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# Relationship Between Students' Attitude Towards Vocabulary Learning and Their English Vocabulary Knowledge

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**Abstract**—This study investigated the relationship between students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral) towards vocabulary learning and their English vocabulary knowledge (breadth, depth and fluency) with reference to Grade 9. It employed a correlational research design and simple random sampling and stratified sampling techniques. Pearson's  $r$  was computed to examine the relationship between each of the three aspects of students' attitude towards vocabulary learning and their breadth, depth and fluency of English vocabulary knowledge. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) was calculated and multiplied by 100 to give a percentage value to examine how a difference in one variable is predicted by the difference in another variable. The findings show that there is a very strong positive relationship between students' attitude towards vocabulary learning and their breadth of English vocabulary knowledge, but a strong positive relationship for a few aspect of breadth of vocabulary knowledge. A moderate positive relationship was found between the students' attitude towards vocabulary learning and their depth of English vocabulary knowledge, but a weak positive relationship between their cognitive and affective aspects of attitude and their knowledge of some aspects of depth of vocabulary knowledge. There is a moderate positive relationship between each aspect of students' attitude towards vocabulary learning and their fluency of English vocabulary knowledge. It is also found that the students' attitude towards vocabulary learning predicts their breadth, depth and fluency of English vocabulary knowledge by 77.44%, 26.3169% and 35.76% respectively (maximum values). Lastly, appropriate recommendations were made based on the conclusions of the study.

**Index Terms**—relationship, attitude, vocabulary learning, vocabulary knowledge

## I. INTRODUCTION

There have been various approaches to language learning, each with diverse perspectives on vocabulary, for a period of more than two thousand years (Schmitt, 2000). At the time of Roman (in the 2nd century B.C), the Greek language vocabulary was learned beginning with the alphabet in early school for second language acquisition (Zorzos, 2009). Then, the students gradually increased their progress in vocabulary skills up to developed discourse (Bowen et al., 1985). Later, in the medieval period (1000-1450 A.D), grammar was overemphasized more than vocabulary during the language instruction renaissance. The matter of attention given to either vocabulary or grammar, speaking or reading, was relayed to the language experts who were initiated to contribute such work to the generation.

If there were no existing vocabulary learning in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning process, there would be great challenges in English language learning in the academic environment. Considering this problem, in the history of English, the first standardized vocabulary called "A Table Alphabetical Dictionary" was produced by Robert Cawdrey (1604). Later, improving this approach, William and Comenius (1611, cited in Schmitt, 2000) attempted to create vocabulary acquisition text to raise vocabulary status. And also in 1755, Samuel Johnson wrote a standard reference titled "Dictionary of the English Language". In the 18th and 19th centuries, English language instructional materials including vocabulary were prepared based on Latin models considering all things in a natural law which could be derived from logic as any language had no difference (Schmitt, 2000).

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, in the time of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), students were mainly expected to know essential vocabularies by using only their efforts through bilingual dictionary word lists. After GTM was downplayed, the Direct Method (DM) focused on meaning-based oral language via listening as a primary skill, and limited instructional time was taken to vocabulary acquisition naturally. Next to DM, Coleman (1929) in the United States and West (1935) in Britain formulated the Reading Method emphasizing reading skills by promoting

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vocabulary teaching. After World War II, the linguist Fries (1945) developed a new approach that is called Audio-lingual. In this approach, he attempted to avoid the limitation of conversation fluency among soldiers in American military institutions by giving less attention to vocabulary teaching. Besides, in Britain, the Situational Approach dealt with vocabulary in a more standardized way than audio-lingual. In 1959, Chomsky strongly criticized the habit formation of the audio-lingual approach. In 1972, Hymes also added the concept of communicative competence to develop meaningful communication. This time, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach emerged, but it also gives little attention to vocabulary teaching rather than considering it as a support for functional language use. All the above methodologies have a common feature of addressing vocabulary teaching and learning issues by giving less attention, but the Reading Method.

To simplify a foreign language teaching and learning process which is highly dependent on vocabulary knowledge, experts developed the following theories to improve vocabulary learning. For instance, language theory which included the three main issues has a great role in a vocabulary learning situation. According to Kasper (2000), one of those issues is 'language is the text' which is discourse-based approach focusing on meaning rather than form in language acquisition. Based on this issue, vocabulary learning takes place in the most contextualized language curricula as the formation is derived from and used in discourses and texts. The next one is 'language use' which draws on integrated skills. In terms of this issue, the skills of the target language are also more related to students' vocabulary knowledge. The last one is 'language is purposeful' (Davies, 2003). This values attention that students may have either academic or professional employment purposes besides the overall communication purpose. It is, therefore, important for EFL students to have a content-rich curriculum that prepares them for success in further vocabulary knowledge.

In addition, input-based Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory is also one of the theories that support the role of vocabulary knowledge in language learning in this research. In this theory, Krashen (1985) argues that language acquisition occurs when only comprehensible inputs are available. These inputs are the second language inputs and are slightly above the learners' current language understanding level (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). These inputs must be comprehensible to the learner and offered in such a way to make him/her understand and use the language using multiple opportunities. In line with this, students' level of word familiarity is considered to control the word level they need to learn. Thus, vocabulary learning is highly attached to the comprehensible inputs which are the pushing factors to express ideas or feelings during using a language.

In Ethiopia, for the last three decades, the English language has been taught as a subject from Grade 1 through colleges and universities in different parts of the country (Sileshi & Tamene, 2022; Admassu, 2008). Apart from these nationally consistent practices, different regions have adopted somewhat different regional policies; some of the regions have made English to be a medium of instruction starting from Grade 5, some from Grade 7 and some from Grade 9 (Addisu, 2020; Heugh et al., 2006). Whereas, the English courses are facing difficulties in language skills like writing, speaking, listening and reading due to their poor vocabulary knowledge (Bereket, 2020; Melaku, 2020; Abiy, 2013; Fisher & Swindells, 1998). In line with this, vocabulary is considered as the most essential component in language learning (Agustín-Llach, 2015; Arast & Gorjian, 2016; Ertürk, 2016). Similar to this, Wilkins (1972, pp. 111–112) says ". . . without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Without having sufficient vocabulary knowledge, students cannot understand others or express their ideas in English properly for the reason that it is central to communication.

Vocabulary knowledge is fundamentally divided into three dimensions: breadth, depth and fluency (Milton, 2009; Aviad & Laufer, 2013). The three aspects of learner's vocabulary knowledge were proposed by Daller et al. (2007). These lexical dimensions were described based on Nation's (2001) analytical framework of vocabulary knowledge. Each dimension contains descriptions of word knowledge aspects. The first horizontal axis lies on lexical breadth (the quantity or number of words learners know at certain level of language competence in the meaning of new words and translation of target words) and the second vertical axis lies on lexical depth (diverse aspects as grammatical functions of words: syntagmatic, paradigmatic, analytic associations and morphological knowledge). The final axis is fluency (correction of spelling errors of words and suffixes) which describes a learner's automaticity and readiness to use the known words in writing.

Although vocabulary learning is very important in language use, it is a challenging and multifaceted task for learners of EFL throughout the time (Read, 2000; Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2009). In this case, EFL learners cannot acquire words naturally as natives and require to use various strategies "to learn, acquire, comprehend, retain, recall, use and expand their vocabulary" (Siriwan, 2007, p.43). They do not have exposure to using words they learned. To this effect, they are influenced by their academic achievement in general and English language learning in particular. Thus, the current study aimed to know how the students apply vocabulary learning to improve their success in foreign language (English in this case) knowledge which depends on how they learn vocabulary lessons in or outside the class.

As long as learners are the major stakeholders in vocabulary knowledge development, understanding their attitude towards vocabulary learning is unquestionable to be researched in a language learning environment. According to Eagly and Chaiken in Al Noursi (2013), attitude is defined as a psychological tendency which can be done by evaluating a particular entity with several degrees of favor or disfavor. In line with this, Hornby (2000) states that attitude is the way that you think and feel about somebody or something that shows how you think and feel and that you want to do things individually. This indicates that attitude is one of the major factors that affect students' language learning and their



English language achievement. On the other hand, Amelia (2018) described that someone's attitude determines how she/he reacts to adversity, ability to grow and learn, potential to overcome challenges and create bonds with certain objects. This considers the characteristic of attitude which is always related to definite stimulus situations but not straggling with challenges. Although there is no single agreement on understanding attitude, the general concepts are similar. For example, Brown (1994, p.168) describes that people's attitudes in all aspects of development begin from the early childhood period and eventually come up with positive or negative value judgments. Overall, attitudes belong to somebody who uses his/her way to show his/her feeling and emotion, belief and knowledge, action and visible responses. Thus, the present researchers believe that one's attitude is the reflection of his/her cognition, emotion and behavior positively or negatively towards an object.

In the same line of discussion, Abun et al. (2019) assert that attitudes include three dimensions such as cognitive, affective and behavioral engagements in academic commitment. In line with this, Jain (2014) defines the three dimensions as follows: cognitive attitude is an evaluation of the entity that constitutes an individual's opinion (belief/disbelief) about the object and it refers to the thoughts, facts and knowledge about an object; the affective attitude is the emotional response and feeling (liking/disliking) favoring and disfavoring, positive or negative evaluation towards the object; behavioral attitude is more or less consistent (favorable/unfavorable) and the tendency to behave, act and respond observably to the object depending on cognitive and affective components. These three dimensions are classified into two: positive or negative feelings about a certain issue, person, object or situation, or event (Abate & Elias, 2018; Cherry, 2019). This helps the researchers recognize students' feelings of implementation, judgment on how they learn, and how they practice language learning. Therefore, in this study attempts were made to assess students' attitudes towards vocabulary learning and their vocabulary knowledge in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects.

There are researches conducted at international and local levels on learners' attitudes at different grade levels and in different settings. For instance, Lin (2019) conducted a research on students' attitudes towards learning English vocabulary through collaborative group work versus individual work in the second year non-English major Taiwanese students at Chia-Yi University, Taiwan. The researcher found that students improved their attitude toward individual work than toward group work over the study period even though their actual vocabulary learning improved more with group work. Similar to this, Li (2009) conducted a study on the attitudes of Chinese junior students who had been studying English as a second language for almost ten years at Kristianstad University College towards English vocabulary learning strategies. The results of the study showed that the successful learners were more in favor of using learning strategies to learn vocabulary and thought most of the strategies are useful. However, the unsuccessful learners had different opinions; they seemed not to favor using learning strategies in their study and only a few of them thought these strategies are very useful. Mukundan et al. (2012) also investigated students' attitudes towards vocabulary learning techniques, namely contextual clues, dictionary strategy, and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) at Malaysia Pahang University (MPU) first-year students. The results of the study also showed that the usefulness and limitation of the respective techniques depend on students' approaches to using them for learning vocabulary. Abate and Elias (2018) researched EFL learners' attitudes towards communicative language learning and their English language achievement with reference to Grade 11 students at Areka Preparatory and Secondary School in Ethiopia. They found that the students' attitude toward communicative language learning significantly predicted their achievement. In the same way, Mustefa (2021) conducted a research on the attitude of students towards learning the English language at secondary schools in Dire Dawa, Ethiopia. He found that students had a positive attitude towards English language learning.

The three studies done at Chia-Yi University second-year non-English major Taiwanese students, Kristianstad University College Chinese junior students who were studying English as a second language for almost ten years, and Malaysia Pahang University first-year students focused on students' attitude towards vocabulary learning strategies and the results pertained to the strategies. These studies are not similar to the current study which assessed the participant students' vocabulary knowledge (breadth, depth and fluency). The fourth and fifth studies were conducted in the same approach as the present study but used different variables (CLT and English language achievement) and English language learning respectively.

Apart from the above studies, the present study, therefore, contributes its part to both local and international research concerns by investigating the relationship between students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral) towards vocabulary learning and their English vocabulary knowledge (breadth, depth and fluency). In addition, as the current researchers' thoughtful survey of the topic studied is concerned, there are no local studies done on this issue (students' attitudes in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects towards vocabulary learning and their English vocabulary knowledge - breadth, depth and fluency and settings: Wanna Wagwsho and Soddo Comprehensive Secondary schools in Wolaita Zone, South Nation, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional State of Ethiopia). Thus, this study aimed to assess this issue and answer the following research question: what is the relationship between each of the three aspects of students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioural) towards vocabulary learning and their vocabulary knowledge (breadth, depth and fluency)?

## II. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

### A. Research Design

The design of this research is correlational which attempted to determine the extent of a relationship between two or more variables using statistical methods. In this design, relationships between and among facts are sought and interpreted. Issues are identified and studied as they occur in natural settings, without any manipulation or treatment. Thus, this study was meant to see the relationship between students' attitudes in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects towards vocabulary learning and their English vocabulary knowledge.

### B. Sampling Techniques

The researchers selected two secondary schools out of five (5) government secondary schools which are found in Wolaita Zone, Sodo Town, Ethiopia. To this end, a simple random sampling technique was utilized. The schools selected for the study include Wana Wagesho Secondary School and Sodo Comprehensive Secondary School. The populations of the study were Grade 9 students who were attending classes in the 2013/2021 academic year. The number of sections of Grade 9 at Wana Wagesho Secondary School and Sodo Comprehensive Secondary School was 10 and 20 respectively. By using stratified random sampling procedure, one section was selected from Wana Wagesho Secondary School and two sections were selected from Sodo Comprehensive Secondary School. All the students in the three sections, a total of 133 students, were included in the study.

### C. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

A questionnaire was adapted from Gardner's (2004) Attitude-Motivation Test Battery used for students studying English as a foreign language. Thus, the researchers used a six-point Likert Scale (an even number of response categories) without a neutral/undecided category. The statement type of attitude adapted requires only a positive or negative category rather than neutral or undecided categories. Each item had six possible answers: strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree and strongly disagree. The questionnaire was translated into Amharic to make the instrument clearer and easily understandable to the respondents of the study. To establish the validity of the Amharic version of the scale and ensure its suitability for this study, the instrument was piloted. The questionnaire consisted of 27 items, 9 items for each attitudinal dimension. The researchers determined the items' reliability through the reliability coefficient test by administering the questionnaire to a sample of 20 Grade 9 students from a different school. Then, the reliabilities of the three aspects of the attitude questionnaire were tested by computing Cronbach's alpha and the values of Cronbach's alpha were 0.87, 0.82 and 0.91 for the cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects respectively.

The researchers used English vocabulary knowledge test to measure the students' achievement/performance. As supported by scholars such as Harley et al. (1990), the test was designed in multiple-choice and matching formats to evaluate the students' vocabulary knowledge objectively. In this regard, the researchers prepared the test consisting of thirty-two common and appropriate target words which fit the participants' grade level. It was prepared for evaluating the performance of the participant-students' vocabulary knowledge focusing on breadth, depth and fluency. In order to check the reliability of the test, the students who filled in the questionnaire for the pilot purpose were made to take the same test twice (10 days gap between Test 1 and Test 2). Then, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed on the SPSS to measure the consistency of the students' results on the two tests. The results of the reliability analysis were 0.82, 0.84 and 0.81 for breadth, depth and fluency respectively indicating the reliability was good since the results are  $\geq 0.8$ . The validity of the test was established by getting suggestions and comments from relevant experts and most senior colleagues of the researchers. Before administering the questionnaire and test, the objectives of the tools were communicated to the study participants and they were requested to read the items carefully and respond honestly.

### D. Data Analysis Methods

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed on the SPSS to examine the relationship between each of the three aspects of students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral) towards vocabulary learning and their breadth, depth and fluency of English vocabulary knowledge. In relation to this, Voelker et al. (2001, pp. 98-99) write the following:

Pearson's product moment coefficient ( $r$ ), commonly referred to as the correlation coefficient, is a quantitative measure of correlation between two interval-level variables. The coefficient  $r$  can take values from  $-1.0$  to  $1.0$ . The sign of  $r$  indicates whether the correlation is positive or negative. The magnitude (absolute value) of  $r$  indicates the strength of the correlation, or how close the array of data points is to a straight line.

The following cutoff points are suggested by Evans (1996) for determining the strength of a correlation:  $.00-.19$  = very weak,  $.20-.39$  = weak,  $.40-.59$  = moderate,  $.60-.79$  = strong and  $.80-1.0$  = very strong.

The  $p$ -value which represents the probability that the correlation between the students' attitude towards vocabulary learning and their vocabulary knowledge would occur by chance was taken at 0.05 level. A  $p$ -value of 0.05 means that there is only 5% chance which results from a sample due to chance. If this probability is less than the conventional 5% ( $P < 0.05$ ), the correlation coefficient is called statistically significant.

Before computing the Pearson correlation, the researchers of this study made sure the following assumptions were met: the sample is random; both variables are continuous data; the data contain paired samples; there is independence of

observations; the variables are approximately normally distributed (a histogram was produced for the attitude and vocabulary scores and it showed that dataset is roughly bell-shaped); a linear association exists between the two variables; there are no outliers in the data.

Pearson's correlation is a measure of only the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an interval scale. "All this means that Pearson's  $r$  gives us information about a number of aspects of the relationship: the direction of the relationship: a positive sign indicates a positive direction (high scores on X means high scores on Y), a negative sign shows a negative direction (high score on X means low scores on Y); the strength of the relationship: the closer to 1 (+ or -) means the stronger the relationship" (Muijs, 2004, p.144). That is, here comes the concept of coefficient of determination which is a statistical measurement that examines how a difference in one variable can be explained or predicted by the difference in another variable. "It is referred to as the coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ), and provides a measure of the degree to which one variable predicts the other by simply squaring the correlation value. You can then simply multiply this by 100 to give a percentage value" (Greasley, 2008, p. 82). Therefore, this statistics was computed for the said purpose.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

TABLE 1  
CORRELATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE AND THEIR BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Components of Attitude	Correlation	Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	
		Meaning of new words	Translation of words
Cognitive attitude	Pearson Correlation	.857**	.770**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133
Affective attitude	Pearson Correlation	.880**	.744**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133
Behavioral attitude	Pearson Correlation	.713**	.725**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 1 shows, the  $r$ -value for the cognitive aspect of attitude is .857 ( $r^2 = .734449$ ), while the  $r$ -values for the affective and behavioral aspects of attitude are .880 ( $r^2 = .7744$ ) and .713 ( $r^2 = .508369$ ) respectively as to meaning of new words. For translation of words, the  $r$ -value for the cognitive aspect of attitude is .770 ( $r^2 = .5929$ ), whereas the affective and behavioral aspects of attitude  $r$ -values are .744 ( $r^2 = .553536$ ) and .725 ( $r^2 = .525625$ ) respectively. The  $p$ -value is .000. The  $r$ -values show that the correlations are strong and very strong and since the calculated  $p$ -value is less than the conventional 5% ( $P < 0.05$ ), the correlation coefficient is statistically significant. That is, as students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral) towards vocabulary learning is improved, their breadth of vocabulary knowledge (meaning of new words and translation of words) is improved accordingly; the attitude the students hold on learning vocabulary matches with their vocabulary knowledge, namely breadth of vocabulary knowledge (meaning of new words and translation of words) strongly and very strongly. The maximum coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) is .7744. That is, the students' attitude towards the aforesaid construct predicts their performance on the breadth of vocabulary knowledge by 77.44%. The finding of this study is consistent with the findings of previous studies, namely Abun et al. (2019), Taghizadeh and Khalili (2019) and Amelia (2018).

TABLE 2  
CORRELATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE AND THEIR DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Types of Attitude	Correlation	Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge			
		Paradigmatic relation	Syntagmatic relation	Analytic relation	Morphological knowledge
Cognitive attitude	Pearson Correlation	.446**	.309**	.295**	.314**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.001	.001
	N	133	133	133	133
Affective attitude	Pearson Correlation	.473**	.361**	.270**	.357**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.002	.001
	N	133	133	133	133
Behavioral attitude	Pearson Correlation	.513**	.461**	.432**	.474**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	133	133	133	133

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 2 shows, the  $r$ -values for the cognitive aspect of attitude are .446 ( $r^2 = .198916$ ), .309 ( $r^2 = .095481$ ), .295 ( $r^2 = .087025$ ), and .314 ( $r^2 = .098596$ ) for paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation, and morphological knowledge respectively. The  $r$ -values for the affective aspect of attitude are .473 ( $r^2 = .223729$ ), .361 ( $r^2 = .132321$ ), .270 ( $r^2 = .072900$ ), and .357 ( $r^2 = .127449$ ) for paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation, and morphological knowledge respectively. The  $r$ -values for the behavioral aspect of attitude are .513 ( $r^2 = .263169$ ), .461 ( $r^2 = .212521$ ), .432 ( $r^2 = .186624$ ), and .474 ( $r^2 = .224776$ ) for paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation, and morphological knowledge respectively.

= .130321), .270 ( $r^2 = .0729$ ), and .357 ( $r^2 = .127449$ ) for paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation, and morphological knowledge respectively. The r-values for the behavioral aspect of attitude are .513 ( $r^2 = .263169$ ), .461 ( $r^2 = .212521$ ), .432 ( $r^2 = .186624$ ), and .474 ( $r^2 = .224676$ ) for the paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation, and morphological knowledge respectively. The p-values are .000, .001 and .002.

The r-values show that the correlations are positive, but weak and moderate correlations exist between each aspect of students' attitude and their paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, analytic relation and morphological knowledge which is called depth of vocabulary knowledge. As the calculated p-value is less than the conventional 5% ( $P < 0.05$ ), the correlation coefficient is statistically significant. The maximum coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) is .263169. That is, the students' attitude towards the aforementioned construct predicts their performance on the depth of vocabulary knowledge by 26.3169%.

This implies that students' attitude towards vocabulary learning needs to be improved in this. In relation to this, Lin (2019) found that enhancing students' vocabulary learning through group work was valuable despite students' perceptions of it not unambiguously favorable, and underlined that it needs to be encouraged. Moreover, Taghizadeh and Khalili (2019) found that the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge were statistically significant contributors to academic reading, while the contribution of attitude to academic reading was not statistically significant and weak vocabulary knowledge was the most frequent problem.

TABLE 3  
CORRELATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE AND THEIR FLUENCY OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Types of Attitude	Correlation	Fluency of Vocabulary Knowledge	
		Spelling error of words	Spelling error of suffixes
Cognitive attitude	Pearson Correlation	.598**	.564**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133
Affective attitude	Pearson Correlation	.419**	.408**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133
Behavioral attitude	Pearson Correlation	.535**	.545**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	133	133

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 3 depicts, the r-value for the cognitive aspect of attitude is .598 ( $r^2 = .3576$ ), while the r-values for the affective and behavioral aspects of attitude are .419 ( $r^2 = .175561$ ) and .535 ( $r^2 = .286225$ ) respectively for spelling error of words. For spelling error of suffixes, the r-value for the cognitive aspect of attitude is .564 ( $r^2 = .318$ ), while for the affective and behavioral aspects of attitude, the r-values are .408 ( $r^2 = .166464$ ) and .545 ( $r^2 = .297$ ) respectively. The p-value is .000. The r-values show that the correlations are positive but moderate correlation exists between each aspect of students' attitude and their spelling error of words and spelling error of suffixes knowledge which is called fluency of vocabulary knowledge. As the calculated p-value is less than the conventional 5% ( $P < 0.05$ ), the correlation coefficient is statistically significant. The maximum coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) is .3576. That is, the students' attitude towards vocabulary learning predicts their fluency of vocabulary knowledge by 35.76%. The finding of the current study is supported by the findings of other researchers such as Tran (2020) whose participant students were found cognitively aware of the importance of learner autonomy in English vocabulary learning, but affectively and behaviorally they showed low interest in learner autonomy in English vocabulary learning.

#### IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it is concluded that there is a:

- Very strong positive relationship between secondary school students' attitude (cognitive and affective) towards vocabulary learning and their breadth of English vocabulary knowledge (meaning of new words), whereas there is a strong positive relationship between their attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioural) towards vocabulary learning and their breadth of English vocabulary knowledge (translation of words);
- Moderate positive relationship between secondary school students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioural) towards vocabulary learning and their depth of English vocabulary knowledge (paradigmatic relation and depth of English vocabulary respectively, whereas there is a weak positive relationship between their cognitive and affective aspects of attitude towards vocabulary learning and their knowledge of syntagmatic relation, analytic relation and morphological understanding of English vocabulary which are also aspects of depth of vocabulary knowledge;
- Moderate positive relationship between secondary school students' attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral) towards vocabulary learning and their fluency of English vocabulary knowledge.

The students' attitude towards vocabulary learning predicts their breadth, depth and fluency of English vocabulary knowledge by 77.44%, 26.3169% and 35.76% respectively (maximum values). Based on the findings and conclusion of the study, it is recommended that English language teachers should work on their students' attitude towards vocabulary

lessons in order to enhance their English vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, material developers should include attractive vocabulary tasks/activities so that students would be interested in the vocabulary lessons and thus their vocabulary knowledge could be improved accordingly. Furthermore, interested researchers might fill in the research gaps of the current study if they notice research gaps focusing on its findings, research design and methodology and scope.

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# The Effectiveness of Communication Strategies to Develop the Communicative Competency of ESL Learners

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**Abstract**—This empirical research study emphasizes the significance of communication strategies that assist rural learners' language learning progress. It examines the opinion of learners about the learning methodology, classroom instruction, and communicative competency. The findings of a questionnaire survey of second-year rural students revealed that classroom teaching and activity-based education positively influence communicative proficiency. The reliability of the data is confirmed through Cronbach's Alpha. The alpha value is .803. The outcomes of the data also revealed that the teacher's competency is one of the major components that promote communicative competency. It creates variations in the communicative competency of learners. The ANOVA findings revealed that rural learners' communicative competency varied depending on the type of college. According to the research, effective classroom teaching using the TBLT method can improve learners' communicative competency.

**Index Terms**—communicative competency, learning strategies, activity-based learning, English speaking skills

## I. INTRODUCTION

Oral competency is one of the essential communication skills that require a lot of practice to produce effective oral communication in a social context. In India, the majority of second language learners find it difficult to communicate and participate in conversations, leading to limited language learning. Even if the English language is not frequently used on daily basis to practice among learners or with native speakers, these factors contribute significantly to low oral communication skills. Low language proficiency is caused by numerous factors such as a lack of grammatical knowledge, hesitation, and pragmatic language skills, which together restrict learners' exposure to the second language, limiting their proficiency level. Exam-oriented teaching and learning methodologies are used in the majority of educational institutions. Traditional classroom training leads to significantly poor language abilities, particularly in oral communication. This process of learning causes a communication gap among students. Eventually, a lack of communication ability makes it difficult to cope with real-world challenges. Effective communication skills are required to maintain interpersonal relationships. It should be fundamental to focus on strategies for improving their communication skills. Educational professionals subsequently allocated ample curriculum and materials to increase prospectuses, such as puzzles, thought-provoking tasks, and structured texts. After all, second language learners who failed to achieve oral proficiency in language skills have been offered situations and facilities. At this point, the teachers' coordination is needed which stimulates rural learners' comprehension and perception to intensify the learning approach and encourage the participation enthusiastically in knowledge and learning contexts.

### A. Research problem

The lack of exposure to the target language is a central factor for rural learners. When there is no exposure, challenges such as traditional teaching techniques and rational approaches, exam-oriented teaching methods, rote-learning, insufficient teaching aids, and technology-based are noted in varying degrees. Various factors have been used to make the students passive. Rural learners' language proficiency is inefficient due to time constraints and lack of curriculum input. Low literacy attainment, passive participation, and lack of interaction in the second language are the outcomes.

### B. Research Questions

1. What are the major causes that lead to rural learners' communicative competence?
2. Do English teachers are competence to teach rural learners?
3. What are teaching aids and technical support followed by teachers?
4. What are the major affecting factors of rural learners' communicative competence?
5. Does TBLT teaching activities provide rural learners with communicative competence?



### C. Objectives

1. This study is to find out the rural learners' communicative competence
2. This study is to find the effectiveness of classroom teaching and activity-based learning to promote communicative competence.
3. It also analysis how far teachers' competency contributes to the communicative competency of the rural learners.

The findings of the survey revealed that classroom teaching and task-based language teaching significantly predict learners' communicative competency. It suggests that practicing communication daily enables learners to inhibit and increase their confidence in communicating with others from various socio-linguistic contexts. It shows that practising communication on daily basis makes the learners free from hesitation and increases their level of confidence to mingle with socio-linguistic contexts. One of the most important components in ensuring the conversational flow of current content is the teaching approach, which increases learners' confidence in their oral communication skills. As a result, it is a great honor for second language teachers to guide students along the right and the most suitable road to success.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In second language circumstances, oral competency has been widely investigated. The majority of the students are unable to contribute their speaking ability. Learners are particularly, hindered when it comes to practicing oral language skills. After assessing the learners' oral communication skills, they will be directed through certain effective communication strategies that will help them overcome the challenges.

Learners are coping with oral communication skills that are linked in various ways, like grammatical errors, accuracy, fluency, rhythm, stress, and intonation (Albino, 2017). It follows communication disruption and leads to ambiguities in the flow of speech. The traditional framework classroom provides less interaction because teachers play the central role, and learners remain seated to listen and repeat (Ishtiaq et al., 2017). It channels partial knowledge among learners. It disrupts the classroom's creative thinking and interactional process. This work suggested a learner-centered classroom to entertain with some effective strategies instead of maintaining a traditional way of teaching. Teachers needed to guide and encourage the learners, which would stop hindrances or other lack of communication skills. The appropriate opportunities and prospects will lead them to produce while undertaking communication skills (Nakatani, 2010). Strategies are linking the concepts to stand on their stature in the communication, which also breaks communication disruptions. There are many possibilities when alternative approaches connect with language classrooms. It provides the flow of consistency to maintain the target language competency. Strategies play a vital role in self-evaluation and self-monitor while performing, and it helps to sum up with clear visions. The behavior of learners will access some effective strategies that lead to enhancing the conversational flow (Nakatani, 2010). He follows two divisions in the strategic approach. Achievement and compensatory strategies help to retain the necessary deeds to perform, and reduction strategies help to avoid communication breaks and elongate the nature of fluency. Additionally, achievement or compensatory and reduction or avoidance strategies are the advanced assisting aspects for second language learners to acquire self- molding with the guidance of strategies. Following the system of effective strategies strengthens the second language skills in the interactive mode to be efficient in oral communication skills. Proficiency with appropriate words and omitting unwanted things while speaking makes more competence.

A study has been conducted among engineering ESL learners that incorporate short stories into classroom teaching to improve communicative competency (Thiyagarajan, 2014). This experimental study proved that it is effective to develop oral communication skills. English Proficiency in Conversation (EPiC), is a web-based programme to develop the speaking skills of intermediate learners via an experimental study (Rodrigues & Vethamani, 2015). The results showed that the learners who received EPiC training are better in communication skills than the students who learned without the EPiC program. A study in the Iranian context assessed the effectiveness of cooperative learning to develop speaking skills (Ehsan et al., 2019). The results proved that it improved intrinsic motivation and speaking skills. The Technology integrated Task-Based Language Teaching will remarkably improve speaking skills and the TBLT method of teaching will reduce the speaking Anxiety among college learners (Shiny et.al, 2021). The absence of teaching materials and curriculum input, non-qualified rural learners, and repetition of concerned methods in the teaching methods can be solved by implementing the TBLT method of teaching.

### A. Methods and Participation of the Study

This current study used the survey method to learn about teaching methods and classroom environments, and also teachers' levels of competency and teaching approaches, in the context of rural learners. The researcher observed that ineffective curriculum and a lack of opportunities followed by the learners' passive mode, which is explicit in poor exposure in the ESL learners.

### B. Research Methodology

The researcher used the survey method to collect the data. The data was collected from the second-year English Major students who are pursuing their degrees in aided and self-financing/private colleges in Ranipet District, Tamil Nadu. The tool used for the survey is a questionnaire designed by the researcher (Appendices). It has three sections.



They are Classroom Teaching, Activities, and Communicative Competency. Out of 120 samples, 100 samples were used for the analysis. The rest of the samples were removed due to outlier responses, and incorrect and incomplete data.

### C. Hypothesis

H1: classroom teaching is positively correlated with communicative competency.

H2: activity-based learning positively correlated with communicative competency.

H3: Classroom teaching and activity-based learning positively predict communicative competency.

H4: there is a difference in the level of communicative competency based on the subject competency of the teacher.

H5: there is a difference in the level of communicative competency based on the type of college.

## III. DATA ANALYSIS

The reliability of the data is confirmed through Cronbach Alpha. It is .803.

H1: classroom teaching is positively correlated with communicative competency.

This Hypothesis is tested through a correlation analysis.

Correlations			
		Classroom_Teaching	Communicative_Competency
Classroom_Teaching	Pearson Correlation	1	.423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
Communicative Competency	Pearson Correlation	.423**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Classroom teaching is positively related to communicative competency. Here, the correlation coefficient of classroom teaching, .423 is highly significant at a 1% alpha level ( $r=.423$ ,  $p=.001$ ). Therefore, there is a positive linear relationship between classroom teaching and communicative competency. The efficiency or deficiency in classroom teaching is affecting the communicative competency of the student.

H2: activity-based learning positively correlated with communicative competency.

Hypothesis 2 is tested through a correlation analysis.

Correlations			
		Activities	Communicative Competency
Activities	Pearson Correlation	1	.372**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
Communicative Competency	Pearson Correlation	.372**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Activity-based teaching is positively related to communicative competency. Here, the correlation coefficient of Activity-based teaching .372 is highly significant at 1% alpha level ( $r=.372$ ,  $p=.001$ ). Therefore, there is a positive linear relationship between Activity-based teaching and communicative competency. The incorporation of activities in classroom teaching is affecting the communicative competency of the student.

H3: Classroom teaching and activity-based learning positively predict communicative competency.

The regression analysis is used to analyze hypothesis 3

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.468 <sup>a</sup>	.219	.203	.322

a. Predictors: (Constant), Activities, Classroom Teaching

As per the model summary classroom teaching and activity-based learning together makes the 21.9% variance in communicative competency.

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.815	2	1.408	13.585	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	10.050	97	.104		
	Total	12.866	99			

a. Dependent Variable: Communicative Competency

b. Predictors: (Constant), Activities, Classroom Teaching

This regression model has a good fit. The ANOVA F value is significant at the 1% alpha level.  $F(2, 97) = 13.585, p < .001$ . Therefore, classroom teaching and activity-based learning significantly predict communicative competency.

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.127	.211		10.069	.000	1.708	2.546
	Classroom_Teaching	.175	.055	.319	3.158	.002	.065	.285
	Activities	.123	.055	.226	2.233	.028	.014	.232

a. Dependent Variable: Communicative\_Competency

The unstandardized coefficient analysis showed that an increase in one unit of communicative competency of the learners causes a 17.5% increase in classroom teaching and a 12.3% increase in activity-based learning. The beta value of each independent variable is statistically significant. The t value of classroom teaching ( $t=3.158, p = .002$ ) and activity-based teaching ( $t=2.233, p = .028$ ) is significant at 5% of alpha level. Therefore, it is concluded that the communicative competence of the learners is significantly predicted by classroom teaching methods and activity-based teaching.  $F(2, 97) = 13.585, p < .001$ .

H4: There is a difference in the level of communicative competency based on the subject competency of the teacher

This is analyzed through an independent t-test

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Communicative_Competency	Equal variances assumed	.190	.664	2.124	98	.036	.176	.083	.012	.341
	Equal variances not assumed			2.053	36.678	.047	.176	.086	.002	.350

The mean value of those who opined that their teacher is efficient in teaching English is 3.25 whereas those who opined as their teacher is not efficient in teaching English have a mean value of 3.07. It shows that the efficient teachers' students have more communicative competency than those who are not. The t value of these mean differences was found significant at 5% of an Alpha level. ( $t_{98} = 2.124, p < .005$ ). Therefore, the communicative competency of the learners is statistically different based on their teachers' efficiency to teach English.

H5: there is a difference in the level of communicative competency based on the type of college.

One-way ANOVA is used to test this hypothesis.

The mean value of learners' communicative competency based on their college is as follows: 3.26 for Aided college learners, 3.26 for Self-Financing or Private College learners, and 3.02 for GOVT college learners. The mean value of govt college learners is lesser than that of private and aided colleges.

ANOVA					
Communicative Competency					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.999	2	.499	4.082	.020
Within Groups	11.867	97	.122		
Total	12.866	99			

The ANOVA F value of these groups was found significant therefore, there is a difference in communicative competency of these learners based on the type of college.  $F(2, 97) = 4.082, p < .005$ . Therefore a post hoc analysis has been conducted to analyze the difference between these groups.

## Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Communicative\_Competency

Tukey HSD

(I) Self finan/prvt - 1, aided -2, GOVT - 3	(J) Self finan/prvt - 1, aided -2, GOVT - 3	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Self - financing/Private	Aided	-.003	.149	1.000	-.36	.35
	GOVT	.241*	.085	.016	.04	.44
Aided	Self - financing/Private	.003	.149	1.000	-.35	.36
	GOVT	.244	.161	.288	-.14	.63
GOVT	Self - financing/Private	-.241*	.085	.016	-.44	-.04
	Aided	-.244	.161	.288	-.63	.14

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The major difference lies between the groups' govt and self-financing/private (MD = .241, P=.016). Whereas, there is no difference between aided and self-financing (MD = .003, P=.149) and aided and GOVT (MD = .244, P=.161). It shows that the learners of GOVT colleges have less communicative competency than the learners of aided and self-financing or private section.

## IV. DISCUSSION

The analysis results proved that classroom teaching is positively correlated with the communicative competency of the students. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is accepted based on correlation analysis ( $r=.423$ ,  $p=.001$ ). This shows that the effective teaching methods adopted in the classroom for enhancing communication have a great impact on the communicative proficiency of the learners. If it is activity-based teaching, this has more impact because, the correlation results of hypothesis 2 are also significant ( $r=.372$ ,  $p=.001$ ). Therefore, classroom teaching and activity-based learning together predict the communicative competency among English learners. Based on the regression analysis results hypothesis 3 is accepted. It shows that teachers should promote task-based teaching in the classrooms. Such classrooms will be the best trial rooms for speaking English in real-world situations. Students consider classrooms the best place to practice and learn English. Converting the language items into suitable tasks will enrich the learning experience of learners through their active participation. Question numbers 9 to 13 gave a list of activities and asked for their opinion about their potential to enhance communicative competence. The mean values of these activities indicated that students believed that the activities like Roleplay (Mean = 3.76), pair Work (Mean = 3.71), group work (Mean = 4.01), storytelling (Mean = 3.98), and games (Mean = 3.46) were beneficial in developing communicative competency. The competency of the teacher to teach English is another important factor that enhances speaking skills. Task-based or activity-based language learning will be successful if it demands the active participation of the learners and they can unravel the language item from the task. This process demands effective planning, organization, and implementation of tasks. If the teacher fails in any of these, it will end up as a practicing grammar item. Therefore, the success of tasks in a classroom and the communicative competency of the learners depend more on the efficiency of the teacher. Hypothesis 4 tests the same. The independent t-test analysis proved that the communicative competency of the learners who opined that their teacher is skillful and efficient at teaching English and vice versa has a significant difference. The students who rate their speaking proficiency as between 6 to 9 out of 10 are 59. Out of this, 53 students rate their teacher as skillful to teach English. Therefore, teachers have a significant role in developing the communicative competency of the learners through classroom teaching. In the rural and semi-urban areas, there is a tendency to have English taught by teachers of other subjects. This is adversely affecting the communicative competency of the learners. Out of 100, 27 students rated their communicative proficiency as between 0 to 3 out of 10, and most often their English classes are engaged by other subject teachers. This is an area that needs attention from the college management. Hypothesis 5 tested the difference in communicative competency based on the type of college. The one-way Anova analysis results proved that there is a significant difference between the students from govt and the self-financing/private (MD = .241, P=.016) sector. The mean value of 72 students who are pursuing their degree in the self-financing or private sector is 3.54 whereas, when it comes to GOVT colleges, it is 3.1. This analysis shows that the GOVT college students need more attention in this area.

## V. CONCLUSION

The research emphasizes rural learners' perceptions of oral proficiency and communicative abilities. The findings of the study revealed that classroom teaching methods play an important role in enhancing the oral proficiency of rural learners'. As a result, teachers should provide rural students with various opportunities to learn a second language. The teaching module should be transformed into contextual teaching in real life. Textbooks are essential, but effective instructional techniques result in proper language production among learners'. The goal of CLT or TBLT teaching and learning is to provide real-life classroom experience for communicative competence. The teaching practices should change into pedagogical active techniques to increase the learners' language skills. According to Hymes (1992),

communicative competence is the root of creating potential learning, which gives meaning to the chore. Effective communication is achieved through the proper practice of communicating and comprehending each other while interacting. Teachers should be aware of the importance of rural learners' communicative competence and its advantages as a facilitator. Educational development may be improved by implementing pedagogical strategies among learners and incorporating activity-based learning teaching methods. There should be sessions for teachers and learners to interact, such as pair work, group work, and roleplay exercises like hints development through pictures, to motivate learners to use new vocabulary. This strategy also maintains motivation and self-confidence, which allow students to study without hesitation. It promotes the active participation of the students. There should be a shift in the language learning process, like conducting a test in a speaking mode, which gives gradual appropriateness. It also corrects the rhythm, intonation, and pattern with the usage of audio and visual aids to improve its sound like a native speaker. The main principle of the TBLT method provides activities that lead rural learners to participate in active learning methods unknowingly. Teachers should take charge to enhance teaching activities for the learners' interaction mode. However, above all, the developing learning process improves the rural learners' enthusiasm and builds good rapport in activity-based learning. Therefore, the TBLT method is one of the meaningful methods of communicative competence that supports numerous aspects of education, employment, business, and life skills.

## APPENDIX

Type of your College: Govt. Aided Self-Financing/Private					
A. Do your teachers of all subjects have the Efficiency to teach English in the classroom?					
Yes No					
1. Teachers are providing opportunities for learners to speak English in the classroom					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
2. Do your teachers follow any special techniques to teach English?					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
Please specify the materials that the teachers used to teach English					
3. My teachers are using Course books alone / 90% to teach English.					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
4. My teachers are using different Stories/ examples related to the content of the textbook to make us understand the concept.					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
5. My teachers are using different videos/ audio clips related to the content of the textbook to make us understand the concept.					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
6. My teachers are using different activities/materials related to the content of the textbook to make us understand the concept.					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
7. My teachers are using Supplementary Books related to the content of the textbook to make us understand the concept.					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
8. Do your teachers follow other materials like pictures or things to teach English in the classroom?					
Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree					
Do you think the following activities can enhance your communication skills					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
9. Roleplay					
10. Pair Work					
11. Group Work					
12. Storytelling					
13. Games					
14. Technology integrated language learning					
15. Do you have your own potential to learn and speak English inside the classroom?	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
16. I never made a presentation in English till this day	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
17. I never speak in English to anyone in an informal situation.	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
18. We can read any English article/magazine inside the classroom to develop communication	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
19. We have the capacity to speak	Strongly	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly

English outside the classroom	agree				disagree
20. We can fluently speak English	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
21. If I rate my speaking proficiency out of 10, my score will be less than 3	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
22. If I rate my speaking proficiency out of 10, my score will be in between 3 to 6	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
23. If I rate my speaking proficiency out of 10, my score will be in between 6 to 9	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree

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# A Cognitive Semantic Study of Causal Interaction of Acts in Narrative

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**Abstract**—Causality is one of the main prominent schematic components in language and cognition. In cognitive semantics, causality has received especial interest because of its significance as a basic element in our cognition. Langacker's (1990 and 1991) causal chain and Talmy's (2000) force dynamics are the most important models of causal structure in language and cognition. Talmy considers force dynamics as one of the schematic systems that structure events. His model is directed to the causal relation between clause components; while the current study investigates the causal relation out of the clause boundaries. It studies how a scene affects another one. The interaction between acts in terms of causality is part of the narrative structuring system in which causality is only one schematic component among others. The current study involves a new treatment of causality in narrative within the framework of cognitive semantics. It aims to answer the following three questions: first, how is causality formulated in narrative? Second, what are the causality forms in narrative? What is the role of causality in narrative? In order to answer these questions, the researcher builds a model on the basis of Talmy's force dynamics. It formulates the way in which related acts interact in terms of causality. The acts are selected and modified by the processes of extraction and conversion which pull out the schematic features of scenes. The model is applied to three events selected randomly from J.K. Rowling's Harry Potter novel.

**Index Terms**—causality, narrative, interaction, extraction

## I. INTRODUCTION

Causality is one of the main prominent schematic components in language and cognition. In cognitive semantics, causality has received especial interest because of its significance as a basic element in our cognition. Langacker's (1990, 1991) causal chain and Talmy's (2000) force dynamics are the most important models of causal structure in language and cognition. Talmy considers force dynamics as one of the schematic systems that structure events. His model is directed to the causal relation between clause components; while the current study investigates the causal relation out of the clause boundaries. It studies how a scene affects another one. The interaction between acts in terms of causality is part of the narrative structuring system in which causality is only one schematic component among others.

The current study involves a new treatment of causality in narrative within the framework of cognitive semantics. It aims to answer the following three questions: first, how is causality formulated in narrative? Second, what are the causality forms in narrative? What is the role of causality in narrative? In order to answer these questions, the researcher builds a model on the basis of Talmy's force dynamics. It formulates the way in which related acts interact in terms of causality. The acts are selected and modified by the processes of extraction and conversion which pull out the schematic features of scenes. The model is applied to three events selected randomly from J.K. Rowling's Harry Potter novel.

## II. CAUSAL INTERACTION OF ACTS AS A MODEL OF ANALYSIS

Causality is one of the most fundamental schematic components in the narrative structuring system because it connects, ascribes and sequences scenes and events at different levels. There are different treatments of causality within and out cognitive linguistics. In cognitive semantics, Talmy (2000) has generalized the notion of causation in his framework of force dynamics. He suggests that the processes of causation are conceptualized as having different types of forces which act in different ways upon the event participants. Talmy has examined many different patterns of force dynamics, some of them are illustrated in the following examples:

- (1) a. I kicked the ball.
- b. I held the ball.
- c. I dropped the ball.

Example (1a) illustrates the canonical type of causation: the causer (antagonist) forces the causee (agonist – the ball) to move. In the example (1b), there is an extension to the notion of causation to sustain a rest state: the antagonist has resistance against the moving tendency of the agonist. In the example (1c), the antagonist enables or allows the agonist to succeed its tendency towards movement (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 65).

Mulder (2007, p. 295) clarifies the steady-state force-dynamic pattern in the following situations:

- a. A stronger Antagonist forces the Agonist to move while it has internal tendency toward rest. As in *The ball kept rolling because of the wind blowing on it*.
- b. The Agonist's tendency toward rest is stronger than the force opposing it. The Agonist has strong inherent tendency toward rest that overcomes the opposing force. As in *The shed kept standing despite the gale wind blowing against it*.
- c. The Agonist has strong tendency toward motion that cannot be stopped by the Antagonist; as in *The ball kept rolling despite the stiff grass*.
- d. The Agonist has weak tendency toward motion that is blocked by the Antagonist's strong force. As in *The log kept lying on the incline because of the ridge there*.

It seems that this theory is designed to work at a lower level of language structure, level of clause. However, this theory does not work with the same efficiency at the upper levels, text or event level. It shows us how the entities within a clause interact, but not how this interaction leads to another interaction in other clauses or sentences. So, the current study suggests a new treatment of causality to deal with the upper level of event structure. This new model of causality is called **Causal Interaction of Acts**.

In Talmy's model, the interaction is between entities within a clause or a sentence. The current model posits an interaction between acts that involve interaction between entities. This means that there are two levels of interaction the lower level (between entities) and the upper level (between acts). According to this model, an event is viewed as a series of interacted acts. Every act consists of a verb (process) and one, two or a group of arguments. In the transitive processes, the act consists of an agent (A) with its process and a patient (P) with its process. In other words, the act structure consists of two states, one state encodes the agent's state (S1) and the second encodes the patient's state (S2). In the case of intransitive process, there is only one state (S0), the agent's state. Croft (2017) refers to these aspectual states in his model of event structure. The two situations, transitive and intransitive, are illustrated in Figure 1.

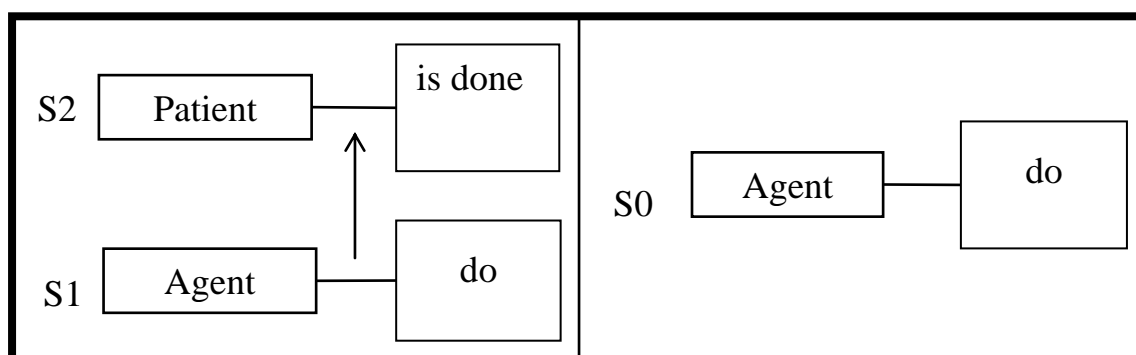


Figure 1: Diagrammatical Analysis of Act Structure

The interacted acts divide into the following types:

1. Logical Act (LogAct): this type of act is not found explicitly in the text, but it is part of the human logic or subjects to it. For example, in the sentence *the horse sings a wonderful song* there is an interaction between this act in which *horses sing* and a logical act in which *horses cannot sing*.
2. Typical Act (TypAct): it is derived from our daily interaction with world around. For example, how boys go to school, how one eats in a restaurant, what happens when a person goes to dentist, etc. Such acts are formulated in terms of script (see Koppel & Berntsen, 2014).
3. Inferred Act (InfAct): these acts can be named contextual acts because they are not expressed explicitly by language, but they derived from context relying on the contextual clues. Although inferred acts are not expressed explicitly, they can be manifested later. The inferred acts, which are expressed explicitly by language in a later time, are called **actualized acts**. Inferred acts exist in mysterious events when something needs to be discovered.
4. Perceived Acts (PerAct): such acts represent the most common acts used in our language. A perceived act is the act that is expressed explicitly by language. These acts divide into two types, **real** and **fantastical acts**. Real acts subject to the real life laws, while fantastical events violate these laws. Sometimes a speaker expresses an act indirectly and with different details. The speaker's expressions can be reformed to show the speaker **intended act**.

These different acts interact with each other on the basis of different notions or forms of causality. Causality in this context consists of three parts: causer, cause, result. Causer refers to the act that makes the cause act performed. Causer and causee can be represented in different forms as follow:

1. Motivator and Motivatee: these terms refer to the situation in an act motivates another act to be performed. The sentence in (2) consists of two interacted acts: the act of traveling and the act of *seeing* that are performed by the same participant, *Tom*. The act of *seeing* motivates the act of *travel* to be performed.



- (2) *He traveled to London to see his family.*
2. Inhibitor and Inhibitee: this situation of causality is opposite to the previous one. In this situation, one act causes another act to stop or to prevent it from undertaking. The sentence in (3) involves two interacted perceived acts. The first act of *the weather* inhibited the second act of *travel*.  
(3) *The weather was so bad, so he couldn't travel to London.*
3. Facilitator and Facilitatee: the situation of facilitation is close to the situation of motivation in which the two lead to performing an act. In this situation, one of the interacted acts facilitates the second act to undertake. The sentence in (4) involves interaction between two perceived acts. The act of *switching on* facilitates the act of *seeing* to be performed.  
(4) *He could see the armed man when he switched on the light.*
4. Resistor and Resistee: this situation is close to the situation of inhibition in which the two lead to stop or prevent performance of an act. In (5), the sentence includes interaction over the concept of resistance between two acts. The act of *the weather being bad* was supposed to stop the act of *travel* but this act resisted and proceeded.  
(5) *He traveled to London although the weather was so bad.*
5. Maker and Makee: this situation encompasses the mechanical affection between two interacted acts. In other words, the effect of the maker on the makee is presupposed and identified. There are two interacted acts in (6) in which the scene starts with the act of *explosion* which leads to the act of *demolish* as a presupposed and mechanical result.  
(6) *The house demolished when the bomb exploded.*

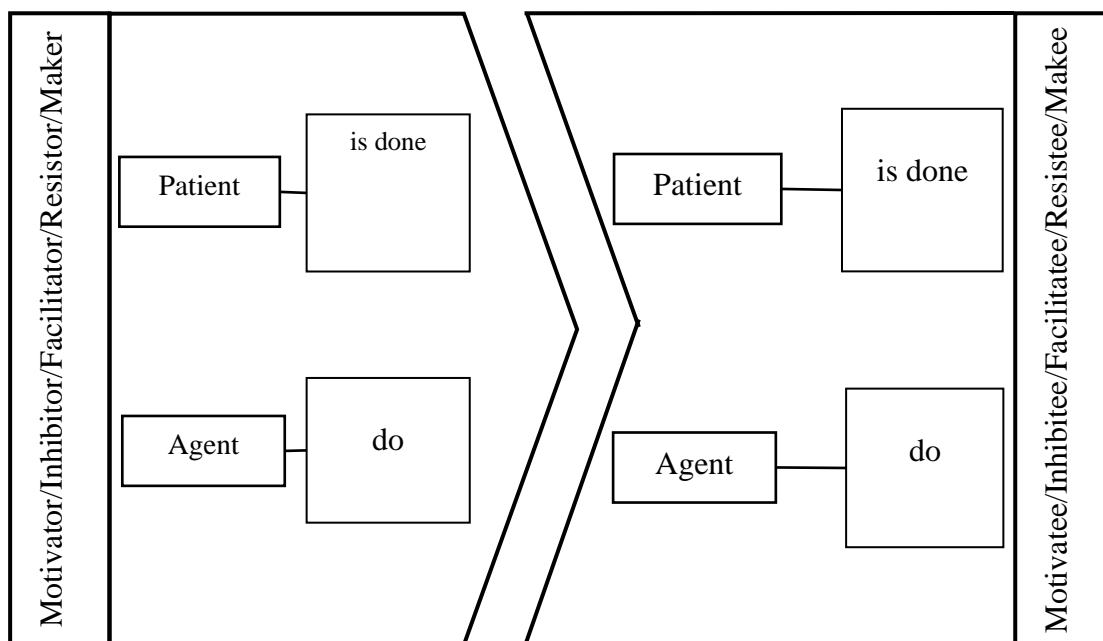


Figure 2: Diagrammatical analysis of Acts Interaction

### Extraction and Conversion Process

One of the main scientific principles in language processing is the principle of economy. A narrative may include a huge and diverse amount of details that cover the main story of that narrative. All of these details are processed within the short term memory, but only the basic concepts or scenes pass to the long term memory. The principle of economy and the huge and diverse amount of details that our memory does not keep represent the necessity of the existence of the extraction process; it involves deleting some linguistic and nonlinguistic redundant elements. This process is directed mainly to the interaction of acts within scenes. Every scene involves interaction between one or more acts which are selected through the process of extraction. The scene in (30) involves interaction between two acts: the act of *selling* and the act of *paying off*.

(30) The man sold his car to pay off his debt.

The second process, conversion, is directed for converting some fluid linguistic elements, for example metaphorical, into more stable elements, literal. Sometimes, a speaker uses many words or expressions to describe something can be explained with one word (or little words) that represent the category to which the expressions belong. The process of conversion uses the category instead of the words which belong to it. In (31), the expression *turning the issue all over in his mind* can be converted to the general concept to which this expression belongs, as it is illustrated in Figure 3. The

bold circle represents the general category to which the expression in question belongs. This category or the converted meaning is called the intended action.

(31) He was turning the issue all over in his mind.

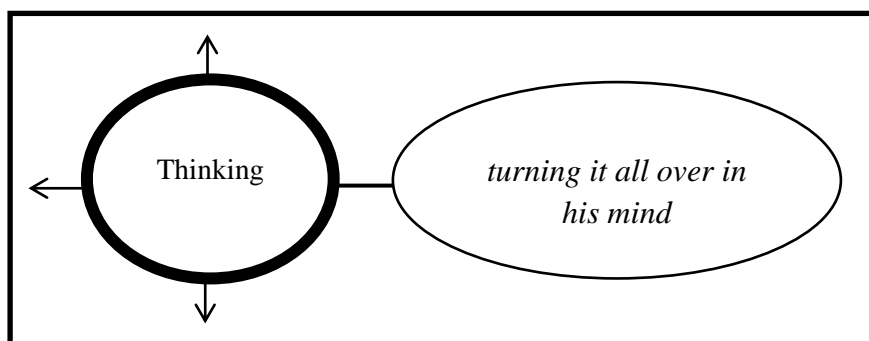


Figure 3: The Conversion Process

The question here is to what extent the two processes can be applied to compress scenes or expressions. The main criterion in this context is the accuracy of message. An expression subjects to the three processes to the extent that the expression meaning is not affected. Language mainly designed to convey messages, so the three processes do not affect the conveyed meaning in any way. In other words, the message will be conveyed as it is.

### III. CAUSAL INTERACTION IN SELECTED EVENTS

#### A. Causal Interaction of Event-A

The present event consists of seven scenes that reflect the different aspects of the events. The framing process ascribes the boundaries of the event on the bases of the five schematic components. These scenes (S) are analyzed in the following sections:

S1. *He was in a very good mood until lunch-time, when he thought he'd stretch his legs and walk across the road to buy himself a bun from the baker's opposite.*

[Motivator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: think) (P: (A: He – Pr: stretch/walk) (P: his legs – Pr: are stretched)) – Pr: is thought)] [Motivee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: bay) (P: a bun – Pr: is bought)]]

According to the formula of the scene above, the scene involves interaction between two PerActs. The first act works as a motivator and it consists of the state of the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) who *thinks* the state of the patient (the clause *he'd stretch his legs and walk*). The second act functions as motivee and it encompasses the state of the doer (*Mr. Dursley*) who *bay* and the state of the patient (*a bun*) which *is bought*.

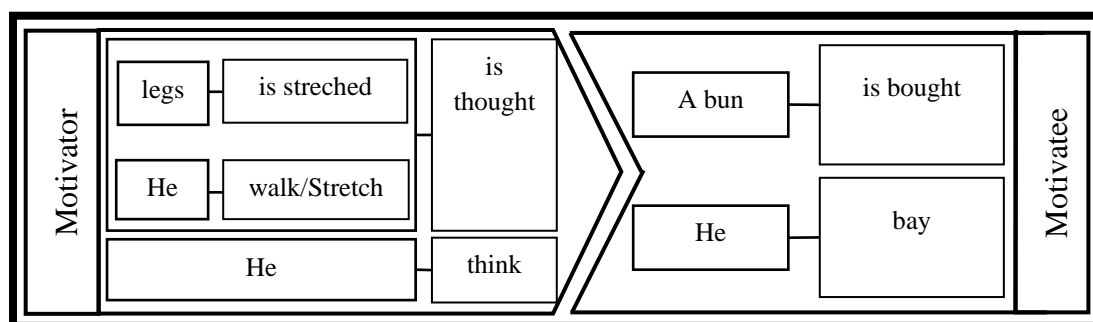


Figure 4: Diagrammatical analysis of S1 in event-A

S2. *He'd forgotten all about the people in cloaks until he passed a group of them next to the baker's.*

(1) [Facilitator: InfAct [(A: He – Pr: walk)]] [Facilitatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr; pass) (P: a group of the people in cloaks – Pr: is passed)]]

(2) [Motivator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr; pass) (P: a group of the people in cloaks – Pr: is passed)]] [Motivee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: remember) (P: people in cloak – are remembered)]]

The scene involves an interaction between two extracted acts in two places. The first interaction involves two extracted acts. The first act is inferred from the context relying on the previous scene when the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) thinks that he should walk. This scene consists of only one state in which the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) performs the action of *walk*. This act functions as a facilitator to the second which includes, as in the formula above, the state of the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) with the process *pass* and the state of the patient (*a group of the people in cloaks*) who *are passed*. This act returns to be a motivator in the second place of interaction with another act. The motivee PerAct involves *Mr. Dursley*

as an agent who performs the process *remember* and the patient (*people in cloaks*) with the passive process *are remembered*.

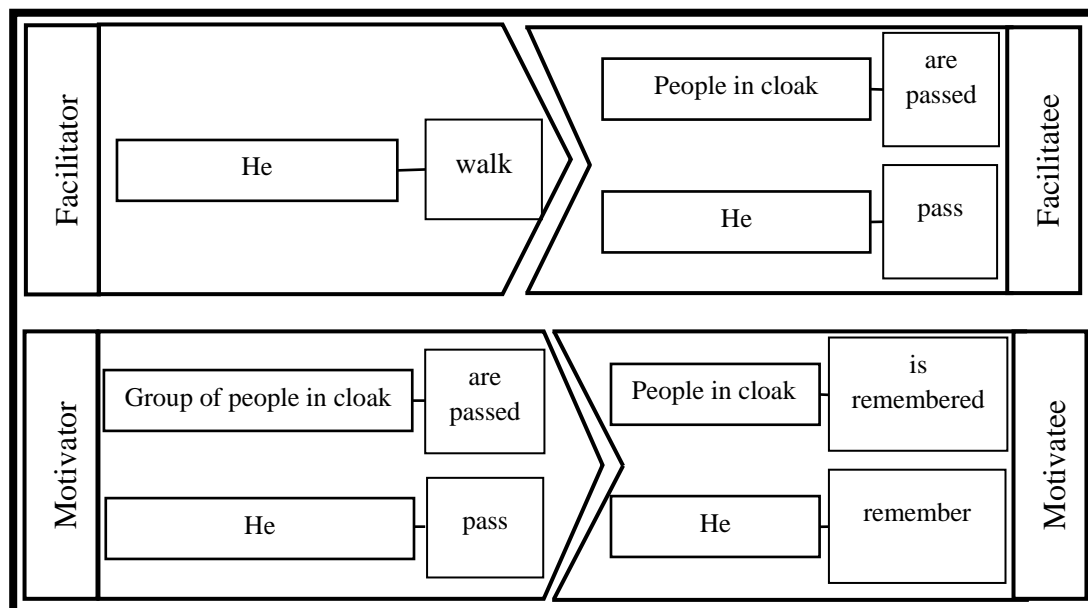


Figure 5: Diagrammatical analysis of S2 in event-A

S4. *This lot were whispering excitedly, too, he caught a few words of what they were saying.*

*'The Potters, that's right, that's what I heard –'*

*'– yes, their son, Harry –'*

A-Dom: Mr. Dursley [Facilitator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: pass) (P: a group of the people in cloaks – Pr: is passed)]] [Facilitatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: hear) (P: (A: People – Pr: say) (P: The Potters – is said)) – Pr: is heard]]

The process of extraction derives two acts that interact in terms of facilitation. The first act is derived from the previous scenes and it functions in this scene as a facilitator. The facilitated act consists of two states: the state of agent in which *Mr. Dursley hears* and the state of patient in which the clause *people say The Potter is heard*. The two acts involve the process of **conversion** in the expression *caught a few words* has been converted to the verb *hear*. There are some words and expressions that have not been integrated because their meaning is conveyed by the extracted acts. These words and expressions are like *whispering, that's right, and that's what I heard*.

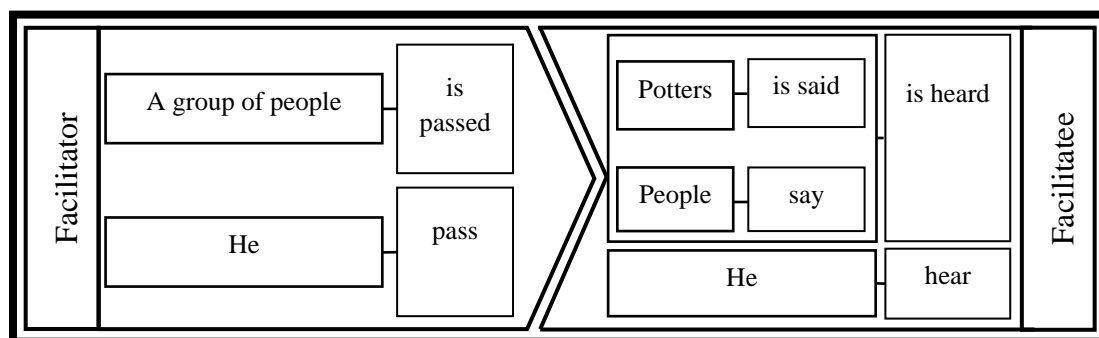


Figure 6: Diagrammatical analysis of S4 in event-A

S5. *Mr Dursley stopped dead.*

[Motivator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: hear) (P: (A: People – Pr: say) (P: The Potters – is said))]] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: stop dead)]]

This scene is a simple one because it is extracted in nature. It involves two PerActs; the first motivates the second. The first act is derived from the former scene where it functions as a facilitatee in the former scene. The second scene involves only one state in which the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) and the process *stop*.

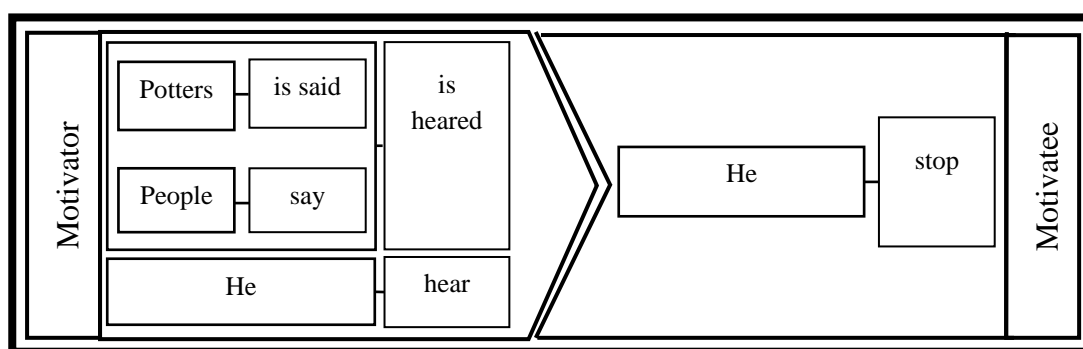


Figure 7: Diagrammatical analysis of S5 in event-A

S6. *He hurried up to his office, seized his telephone and had almost finished dialing his home number when he changed his mind.*

(1) [Motivator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: hear) (P: (A: People – Pr: say) (P: The Potters – is said))] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: phone)]]

(2) [Motivator: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: phone)]] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: go (to his office)]]

(3) [Inhibitor: PerAct [(A: an idea – Pr: appear)]] [Inhibitee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: phone)]]

The scene involves three places of interaction as they are shown in the above formulas. The first interaction is between two PerActs: the first is derived from the former and it works as a motivator to the second act. The latter consists of only one state in which the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) performs the action of *phoning*. This act turns to be motivator in the second place. It motivates the PerAct in which the agent (*Mr. Dursley*) performs the action of *going*. The act of *phoning* turns to participate in the third interaction; it is inhibited by the PerAct in which the agent (*an idea*) appears.

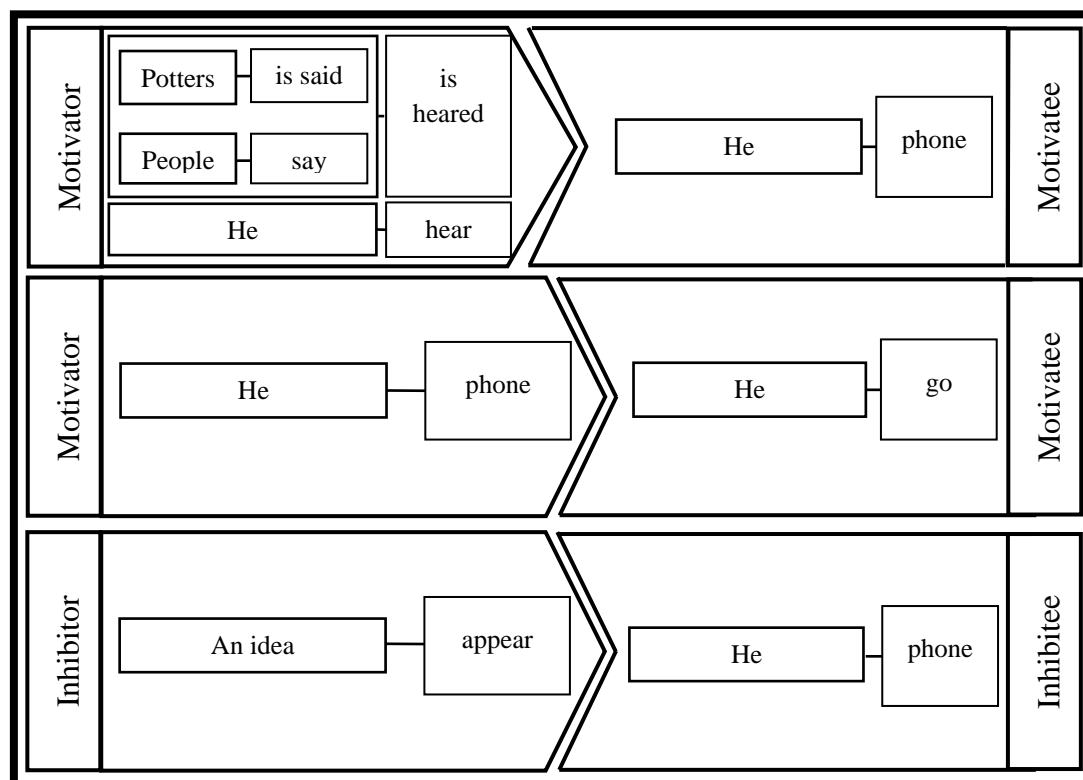


Figure 8: Diagrammatical analysis of S6 in event-A

S7. *He was sure there were lots of people called Potter who had a son called Harry.*

[Inhibitor: PerAct [(A: many people – Pr: have) (P: the name of Potter and son called Harry – Pr: is had)]] [Inhibitee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: phone)]]

The scene involves an interaction between two PerActs in terms of inhibition. The first act represents the idea that Mr. Dursley has in the previous scene. It consists of two states, the state of the agent (*many people*) with the process *have*

and the state of the patient (*the name of Potter and son called Harry*) with the passive form of the verb *have* (*is had*). The inhibitoe is the act of *phoning* which is derived from the prior scenes.

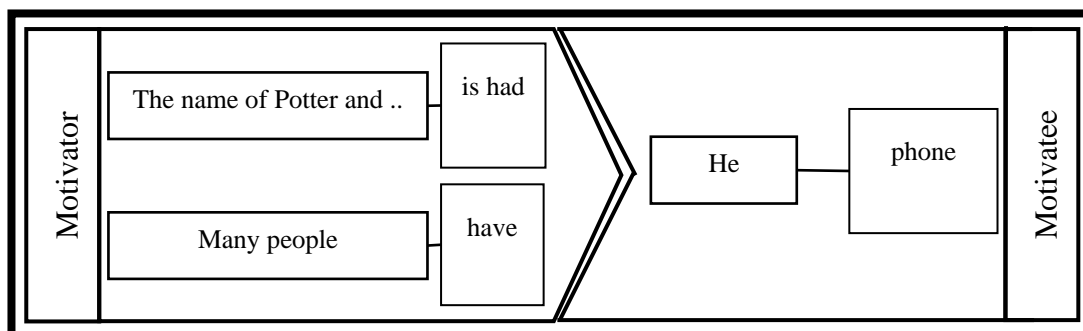


Figure 9: Diagrammatical analysis of S7 in event-A

### B. Causal Interaction of Event-B

The present event consists of three scenes that are listed in the following sections:

S1. *He flicked a silver cigarette lighter open, held it up in the air and clicked it.*

[Motivator: InfAct [(A: something – Pr: do) (P: something – Pr: is done)]] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: open/held up/click) (P: it – Pr: is opened/hold up/clicked)]]

The formula above indicates that the scene has two extracted acts. The first one is inferred from the context and it functions as a motivator. It consists of a general agent (*something*), and unidentified action and patient. This act needs to be identified in a later act. This act interacts with three related PerActs that are integrated in one act for short. The three actions *open*, *held up* and *click* are performed by *Dumbledore* (agent) on the agent (Put-Outer).

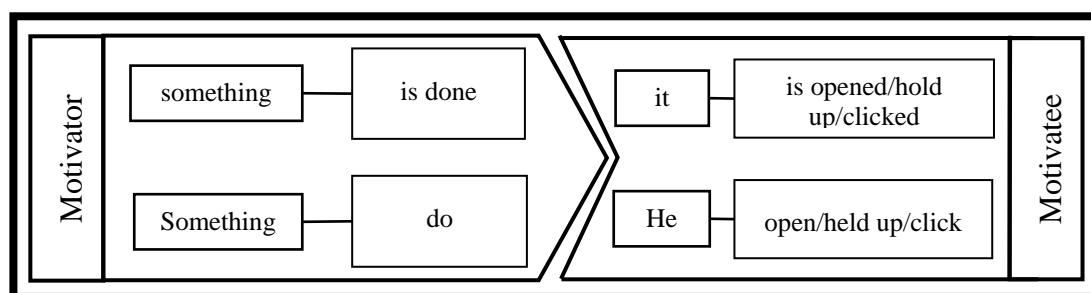


Figure 10: Diagrammatical analysis of S1 in event-B

S2. *Twelve times he clicked the Put-Outer, until the only lights left in the whole street were two tiny pinpricks in the distance, which were the eyes of the cat watching him.*

(1) [Maker: PerAct [(A: He – Pr: click) (P: the Put-Outer – is clicked)]] [Makee: PerAct [(A: All lights – Pr: are went out)]]

(2) [Maker: PerAct [(A: darkness – Pr: exist)]] [Makee: PerAct (A: the cat's eyes – Pr: flash)]]

The scenes involve two places of interaction in terms of making. The first place of interaction includes two PerActs; the first is derived from the former scene and is used as a maker. The second act consists of the agent (*all lights*) which performs the action of *going out*. The second place of interaction involves two extracted PerActs. The first act (maker) includes the agent (*darkness*) with the process of *exist* which is extracted because it is part of the conceptual meaning of the act. The second act includes the agent (the cat's eyes) which performs the action of *flashing*. The spatial component is represented explicitly and illustrated in Figure 11. The cat (the left black circle) is located on the wall (the upper bold line). It directs its sight (the arrow) toward the man (the right black circle) who is located on the street (the below bold line). Concerning causality, the act of *clicking* in the current scene is derived from the previous scene. The other schematic components extend fully into the current scene.

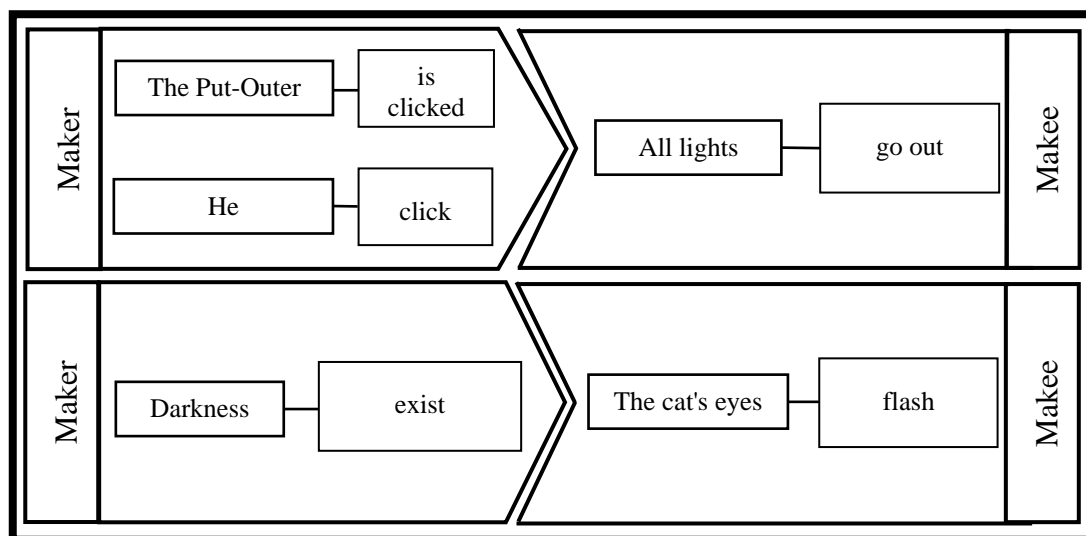


Figure 11: Diagrammatical analysis of S2 in event-B

S3: *If anyone looked out of their window now, they wouldn't be able to see anything that was happening down on the pavement.*

[Inhibitor: PerAct [(A: darkness – Pr: exist)]] [Inhibitee: PerAct [(A: people – Pr: see) (P: what happens – Pr: is seen)]]

The scene encompasses two extracted acts that interact in terms of inhibition. The first act is derived from the previous scene in which *darkness exists*. It functions as an inhibitor to another act which consists of the action *see* with two arguments, *people* as an agent and *what happen* as a patient. Causality has a full extension to this scene; the first act is derived from the preceding scene and the second act represents actualization of the inferred act in the first scene within the present event.

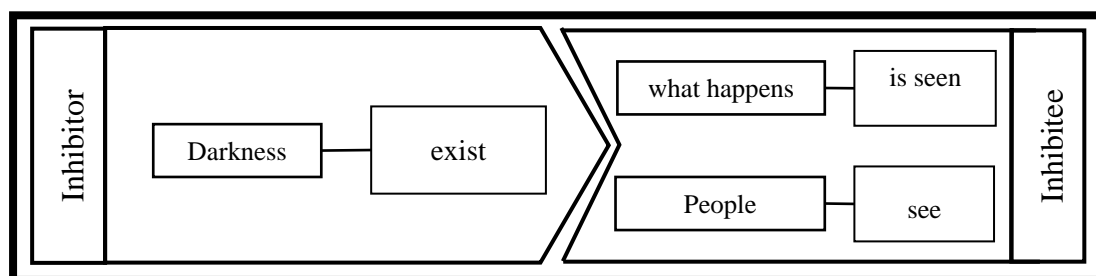


Figure 12: Diagrammatical analysis of S3 in event-B

### C. Causal Interaction of Event-C

It consists of three scenes represented in the following sections:

**S1.** *...the cat on the wall outside was showing no sign of sleepiness.*

[Inhibitor: InfAct [(A: the cat – Pr: wait) (A: something – Pr: is waited)]] [Inhibitee: PerAct [(A: the cat – Pr: show) (P: sign of sleepiness – Pr: is shown)]]

This scene is classified as an initiating scene which contains two acts that are derived by the process of extracting. The first act is an inferred act that is extracted by means of the contextual clues. This act consists of the process of waiting and the two arguments, the cat as an *agent* and *something* as a patient. This act will be actualized in the next scenes or events. It represents the inhibitor for the second act that involves the process of *showing*, *the cat* as an agent and the sign if sleep as a patient.

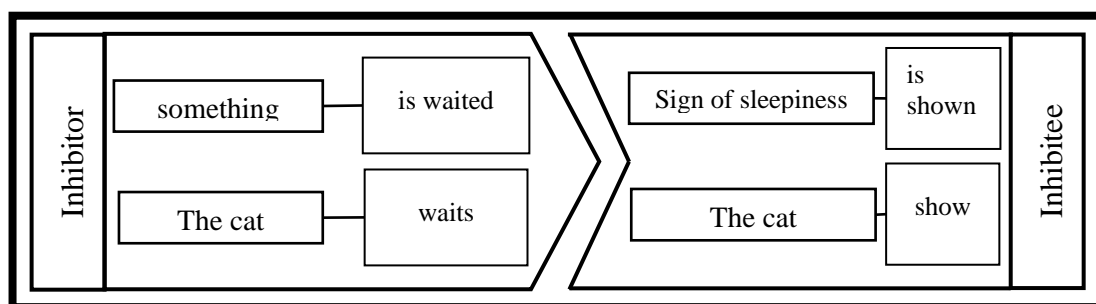


Figure 13: Diagrammatical analysis of S1 in event-C

**S2.** *It was sitting as still as a statue, its eyes fixed unblinkingly on the far corner of Privet Drive.*

(1) [Motivator: InfAct [(A: the cat – Pr: waits) (P: something – Pr: is waited)]] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: the cat – Pr: sitting)]]

(2) [Motivator: InfAct [(A: the cat – Pr: waits) (P: something – Pr: is waited)]] [Motivatee: PerAct [(A: the cat's eyes – Pr: fix)]]

The scene, which is reflected in the sentence above, involves three interacted acts that are identified by the process of extracting. These acts take place within one domain, *the cat*. The first one is the inferred act of *waiting* which is represented in the previous scene. This act interacts with the other two acts, the PerActs of *sitting* and *fixing*. These two acts have the cat as an agent. The InfAct of *waiting* is the basic act in this scene while the other two PerActs are supporting ones. This scene relates to the former scene through the extension of all schematic components. The causal chain extends to this scene through the InfAct of *waiting* that is extracted relying on the contextual clues in the two scenes. This scene is illustrated in Figure 14.

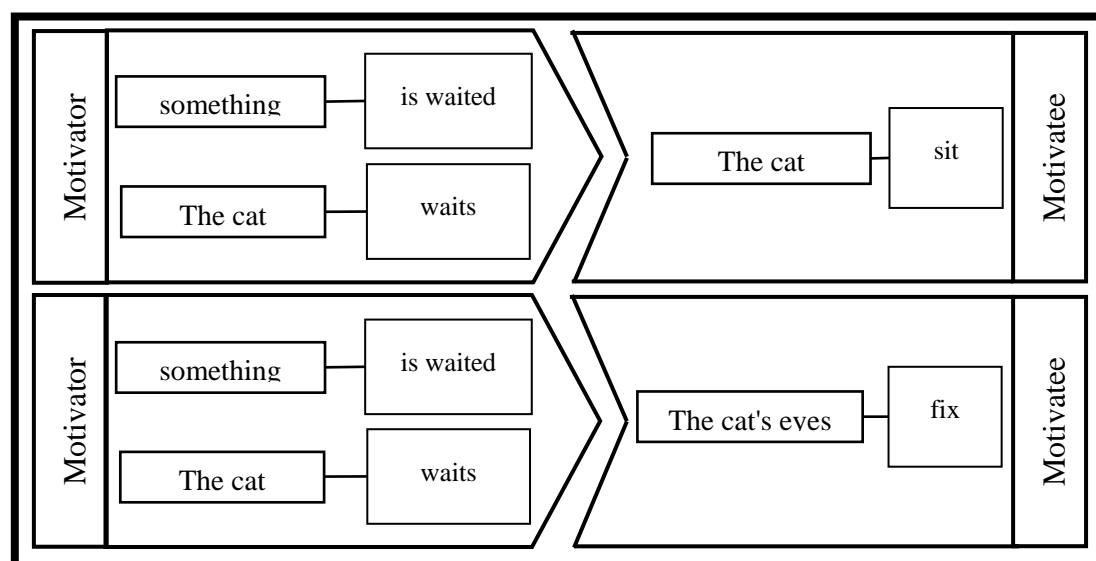


Figure 14: Diagrammatical analysis of S2 in event-C

**S3.** *It didn't so much as quiver when a car door slammed in the next street, nor when two owls swooped overhead.*

(1) [Resistor: PerAct [(A: the cat – Pr: not quiver)]] [Lo: street corner] [Resistee: PerAct [(A: someone – Pr: slim) (P: the door – Pr: is slimmed)]]

(2) [Resistor: PerAct [(A: the cat – Pr: not quiver)]] [Resistee: PerAct [(A: two owls – Pr: swooped)]]

The process of extracting indicates that the scene above involves interaction between three acts and the interaction is based on the concept of resistance. It also includes three domain of participation, they are: the *cat*, the *man* and the *two owls*. The first act is the PerAct of *not quiver* that includes the *cat* as an agent. This act resists the other two acts: the PerAct of *slimming* that the *man*, as an agent, performs and the PerActs of *swooping* which has the two *owls* as agents. The latter PerActs are classified as resistees. The extension of causality from the previous scene is represented by the relationship between the act of *quivering* in the current scene and the inferred act of *waiting* in the prior scenes. The act of *waiting* motivates the cat to resist the act of *quivering*.

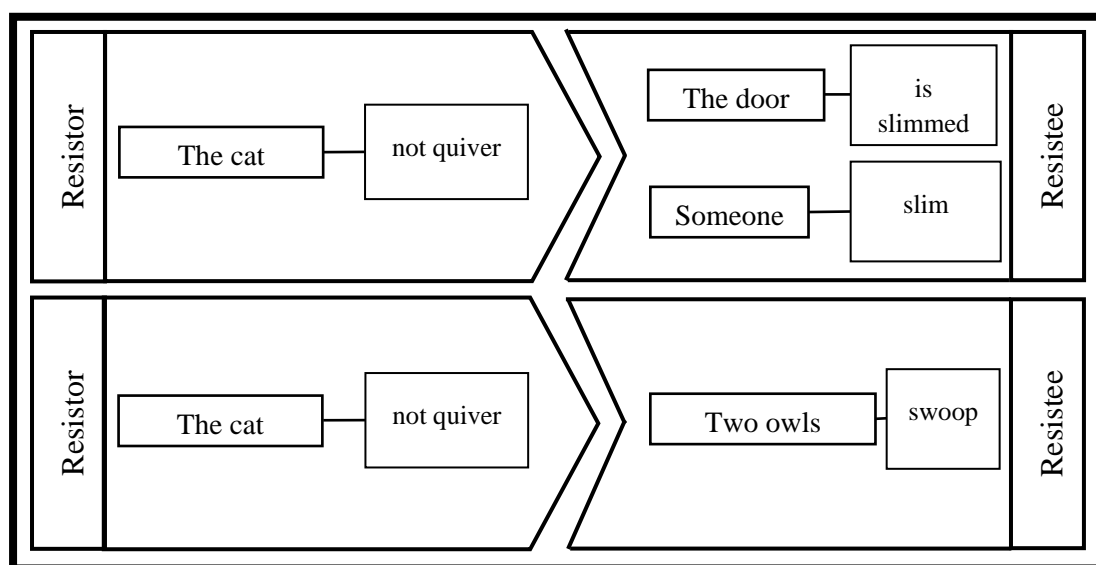


Figure 15: Diagrammatical analysis of S3 in event-C

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

The events analysis above shows how the acts in scenes interact in terms of causality. The analysis can answer the questions raised in the introduction in the following points:

1. Causality is found in narrative in the form of interaction between acts that are performed by one participant or more than one. This interaction takes place within one scene or more.
2. Causality is not only one form; it has a number of forms that encode different causal relations between acts. It can be formed in terms of motivation, inhibition, making, facilitation, and resistance.
3. Causality is a fundamental component of narrative; it has two roles: first, the interaction between the acts represents the core component of scenes/event structure.

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# Linguistic Awareness or Grammatical Competence: What Dominates the Saudi Undergraduate EFL Classroom?

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**Abstract**—Globalization leading to massive geopolitical changes around the world has made it meaningful to reconsider the state of English education in Saudi Higher Education Institutions to gain a realistic understanding of their role and contribution in preparing native Arabic speaking Saudi EFL learners to establish themselves as global citizens. This study weaves around the twin axes of linguistic awareness and grammatical competence by evaluating these factors in a random sample of student participants (N= 120) from Hail University, KSA. They are exposed to two remotely administered tests the first of which measures their grammatical skills in English. In addition, linguistic awareness is measured using participants' acceptability judgements to four types of English syntactical constructions to gain a deeper understanding of their language awareness. Results show that just 17% of the participants could correctly answer the grammar test while 83% of them answered the test incorrectly. Further, in the acceptability judgement test, students answer the syntax with rare collocations (Yes=52.7%, No=47.3%), syntax with unusual collocation (Yes=41.3%, No=58.8%), syntax with frequent collocation (Yes=49.2%, No=50.8%), and syntax with wrong collocation (Yes=5.2%, No=94.8%). Language being a cognitive, social, and cultural construct, a comparative analysis of the results obtained from these two kinds of data is likely to bring the spotlight on the dominant component in the Saudi university EFL classroom, and hence, help identify the precise factors that need to be boosted.

**Index Terms**—first term, second term, third term, fourth term, fifth term

## I. INTRODUCTION

The debate between advocates of linguistic awareness and grammatical competence in a foreign language came of age with the theories propounded by Chomsky who advocated that the aim of all language learning is communication and not necessarily, accuracy in language production. Studies that followed in the decades after Chomsky tabled his ideas swing on the two ends of the pendulum till date.

In a study with Kuwaiti pre-service teachers, Almusawi et al. (2019) found that deficient linguistic constructs affected English literacy coaching. The areas of deficit were wide including phonological, morphological and even orthographic awareness. Linguistic awareness in terms of phonological, morphological, and orthographic and vocabulary in relation to word reading and spelling was the subject matter of a study by Kim et al. (2013) to show that literacy skills in beginners draw on multiple linguistic awareness skills. Adaje and Onekutu (2019), on the other hand, showed in a study with English language students at a school in Nigeria that communicative competence is facilitated by grammatical ability, and concluded that teaching of grammar is a prerequisite to the development of linguistic awareness in English.

### *Linguistic Awareness and Grammatical Competence*

As early as 1960, Chomsky drew the attention of language specialists to the implicitness of language which identifies the structural regularities of language, that is, the fact that every language is composed of certain elements irrespective of the number of speakers or the stage of development of language. Taking off from this, Cook (2008) defined grammatical knowledge as the language knowledge in one's mind and the ability to use this knowledge. The latter involves user's ability to recognize lexical, morphological, syntactical, and phonological features of language and exploit these to code and encode messages. As the term implies, it demands of the user to acquire knowledge of the grammatical rules of a language and is, when used in this sense, of a rather limited scope. Linguistic awareness shines as a broader term because attainment of this is a metalinguistic process and need not be learned behaviour or dependent on educational background like the former. Linguistic awareness, however, may still entail an element of grammatical knowledge but in a more imperceptible manner of acquisition. As far as the measurement of these two abilities is concerned, unlike linguistic awareness, grammatical competence can be measured by evaluating the produced structures for degree of grammatical accuracy.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chomsky (2005) views language as an ideal solution to the conditions of legibility, where interaction between a linguistic approach and an integrated thought and speech centred approach facilitates sociocultural contexts (Chomsky,

2011). Grammatical competence is the knowledge of an ideal speaker-listeners (Chomsky, 1980), and their ability to convey their meaning effectively in a given context. While the communicative competence involves components such as grammatical and discourse competence, and sociolinguistic and strategic competence, it has been quite effective in transforming the process of classroom instruction as a theory. According to Hymes (1967), the person's ability to use the language appropriately in a given social encounter is what constitutes communicative competence.

It becomes obligatory to include language learners in active cultural dialogues and speech orientation when they see language as a means of intercultural interaction. Halimovna et al. (2019) infer the ability to use all types of speech activities: reading, speaking, listening and writing along with knowledge of linguistic skills and sociocultural patterns as communicative competence. Bachman (1990) sees language as the ability to understand and express thoughts mutually and also possess the skills to use grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation during speech activity in meaningful interactions and contexts. Canale and Swain (1980) view grammatical competence as the interconnection between both grammatical and psychological aspects of language use. Van Dijk (1977) ascertains the term 'competence' to determine the levels of language proficiency in second language learning. Language competence is about using skills, experience and acquired knowledge to complete an activity where learners get an opportunity to think and share their thoughts freely, solve problems together by focusing on content and formulation of thought.

Linguistic competence in foreign languages relies on modern technologies for a wider global experience including, but not limited to webinars, remote blended learning, and online master classes offered by leading countries with a rich experience in distance learning education (Muslimov et al., 2016). Hymes (1972) argues of primacy the sociocultural factors in language acquisition of children. Hymes then form a theory of how to speak properly in a given context when acquiring grammatical competence, even when they don't have enough experience of speech activities in social settings. Chomsky's (1977) assertion that an individual experiences pragmatic competence while interacting with his grammatical competence, set apart by the grammar, echoes Hymes's (1972) coinage of the term 'communicative competence' in the language development in children. Bachman and Palmer (2010) prefer to use knowledge instead of competence, thus making the knowledge both functional and sociolinguistic. Halliday (1973) maintains the significance of sociocultural contexts to mediate language connotations where the language is contextually organized. Purpura (2004) agrees with Bachman and Palmer's (2010) linguistic model, stating that encoding and decoding contextual meanings will lead to exploration of the grammatical functions and organizational knowledge.

Linguistic or grammatical competence bases itself on interaction with the speakers of other languages globally, and thus, Rizk (2003) cautions the use of inappropriate response as what is accepted in one culture may not be accepted in the other and vice-versa. When the EFL learners produce a grammatical speech to perfection, they may contravene societal norms of the second language because the inappropriateness of meaning trumps appropriateness of form or grammatical competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). Eslami-Rasekh (2005) adds that it is crucial for language learners to use the language efficiently in varying social contexts. Iranian EFL (English as a foreign language) students struggle to understand and produce a second language since their exposure to the native community and culture is limited. When they fail to recognize the language patterns and functions of speech acts of the second language, they begin to translate and transfer from their native language in order to produce proper sentences (Eslami-Rasekh & Mardani, 2010). It is essential that learners with distinct linguistic and cultural backgrounds develop an intercultural communicative competence for a successful second language acquisition (Byram, 1997; Houghton, 2009).

Mohammad and Hazarika (2016) claim that while all the language skills (LSWR) are of equal importance, writing is the skill most used in academic disciplines and also as a performance benchmark in classrooms to test the levels of academic performance in their field of study. The non-native language learners, therefore, need constant practice at multiple occasions to enhance their writing skills (Deshpande, 2014).

According to researchers, writing is not a naturally acquired skill but a set of practice patterns passed down culturally in a formal learning environment (Myles, 2002). Second language learners try to memorize spellings, learn structuring words and sentences, and use higher-order skills (As'ad et al., 2021) to communicate in different contexts and situations. Craig (2013) adds that the writing skills begin to develop early among students in higher education and as they advance, these learners gain proficiency in academic writing. Kroll (1990) asserts that the teacher needs to recognize the complexities involved for the language learners in mastering second language writing skills. The influence of the native language might be a big hindrance to their second language proficiency as observed in the context of Arabic-medium learners when the semantic differences in L1 and L2 interfered with simple sentence structure constructions and their writing skill in general. Cai (2013) states that these EFL students have a higher understanding of L1 at an undergraduate level but their L2 academic literacy persists at a lower level. Lamtara (2016) points out that when the EFL teachers are not adequately trained to engage, involve and motivate the non-native learners in refining their writing skills, most learners view the writing activities with some uncertainty. Hoch (2017) points out that a well-developed self-assessment checklist is critical in guiding the EFL learners to monitor their own errors in writing since many learners lose interest in these activities due to unsatisfactory and unproductive results and achievements (Westwood, 2004). Khan and Khan (2012) state that the interference of L1, where the native learners transfer the orthographic conventions of Arabic in their English spellings, leads to errors in their writing (Khan & Khan, 2012). Analogous factors lead EFL learners to believe that English writing skills are complicated features that surpass their cognitive abilities (Al Alami,

2013). According to Alfaki (2015), the difficulties EFL learners face includes not only lack of time for reflection and revision while attempting to write in a second/foreign language but also the inability to recognize that only a constant practice of semantic and syntactic features can produce work that is both original and creative.

According to Hameed's (2016) study, the students entering university education in Saudi Arabia exhibit low proficiency levels in English writing skills. Owing to the repetitive attempts at completing the undergraduate program, learners lose many valuable academic years, leading to frustration and stress. Hence, Sedhu et al. (2015) assert that EFL teachers promote the intended writing activity under a less stressful environment. Since writing requires the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competencies, it is one of the most difficult skills to master (Barkaoui, 2000). According to Robertson (2011), the English language instruction that relies on textbooks and workbooks often fails to receive the desired outcome from language learners because of the limited ability to comprehend the rules. Krashen (1982) adds that the main features contributing to the affective filter among the non-native language learners are anxiety and lack of motivation and self-confidence. Many second language learners use translation as a tactical strategy for translating L1 into L2; learners' limited lexicon in the second language is restrictive and pushes them into using a dictionary for the translation process (Hoch, 2017). Both the language teacher and the language learner are responsible for poor writing skills (Fareed et al., 2016). The outdated error correction methods and practices often demotivate the EFL learners and the teachers fail to provide constructive feedback to support the methods. This apparent lack of interest and other attitudinal barriers that align with past failures in English writing skills make the EFL learners hesitant to approach a writing task with positive preconceptions. Fareed et al. (2016) point out that this negative attitude towards their academic English language courses, transition of knowledge from L1 to L2, and lack of intercommunication between the teachers and the EFL undergraduates on ways to improve writing skills are some of the obstacles in the development of writing skills. To Quintero (2008) writing is a complicated skill to develop because students have to use their cognitive faculties to construct sentence structures, and the language teachers need to provide them with a range of topics consistent with their interests, and appropriate teacher feedback to keep them motivated. The study conducted by Rico (2014) identifies the internal and external factors that lead to poor writing skills for EFL learners. According to him, the factors responsible are: teaching methods, lack of fluency in target language, inadequate knowledge of the second language, language transfer, and time allotment. Lee (2005) finds that the issues are cognitive as well as affective in nature and the inadequate instruction and poor evaluation leaves the learners demotivated. Moreover, learners' academic performance is a direct outcome of the frequency in the use of the second language, both inside as well as outside the classroom (Mosha, 2014).

In a survey of the foreign students enrolled at 34 Canadian and American universities, the writing skills of undergraduate and graduate learners were tested using quantitative methods. Linguists investigated second language and testing (Canale & Swain, 1980; Munby (1981). Walz (1982) prefers a functional communicative approach than a grammatical one. Here, the stress is on the communicative purpose of the language, non-native culture and knowledge of the language in general rather than communicative incompetence.

According to the Canale and Swain's (1980) framework, communicative competencies are seen from a sociolinguistic competence vantage and not so much from a grammatical competence like the task-orientated writing catering to a specific discipline. Also, the teachers evaluated written material on discourse level and not on word or sentence level where the writing skills of native learners and non-native learners appeared to be quite similar but when grammatical competence influenced the evaluations of these writing tasks, native learners displayed a better word and sentence structural skills than the non-natives. However, it is worth noting that when non-natives believed there was leniency in evaluation, the coping or strategic competency played a big role in their success in academics.

Lloyd-Jones (1982) argues against the direct and indirect measures of writing evaluations in use as they might be limited in scope, stating several problems associated with them such as measuring writing skills by using a writing sample. According to him, a good piece of writing is an eclectic mix of skills and ideas and is not just an evaluation of different elements used for writing. Citing the work of Moffett (1968) and Kinnevy (1971), Odell (1981) emphasises the diversity in writing tasks including diverse modes, purposes, and audiences where the evaluators analyse writing from the outlook of skills and tasks involving analytical development and organisational structures. Quellmalz et al. (1982) used this parameter to study writing competency and confirmed that diverse modes of writing require diverse cognition levels and lead to different levels of performance in these modes.

In a randomised faculty survey from all departments at San Diego State University, Johns (1981) found that the non-native language learners scored highly in the receptive (reading and listening) skills and that writing should be taught as secondary to the receptive skills. In the writing sample study of writing tasks for the EFL learners, Buckingham (1979), states that advanced language learners need to emphasise sociolinguistic factors in their writing processes, attain flexibility to reach a specific reader's mind in academic settings and to organise their writing through logical sequencing specific to the language they are learning. Blenton (1982) suggests that in order for language teachers to meet communication expectations of the non-native learners, they need to recognize the cognitive and linguistic approaches to learning situations that can apply to future academic requirements.

### **Research questions**

The study takes off from the aims stated in Vision 2030 document and focuses on the language aspect of the Saudi youth vis-à-vis their place in the global jobs market. Consequently, the questions it sets out to answer are as follows:

1. What is the grammatical competence level of Saudi EFL students in Higher Education Institutions?
2. Which is the metalinguistic awareness level of Saudi EFL students in syntactic constructions?

### **Research Objectives**

Given the limited and focused approach of this study, its objectives can be summarized as follows:

1. To evaluate the thrust areas of the university level EFL teachers.
2. To connect between the linguistic performance and linguistic awareness of the Saudi university EFL learners.
3. To place grammatical competence and linguistic awareness in the context of language use in Saudi university EFL learners.

### **Significance of the study to the community**

Irrespective of what the findings may point out, empirical data shows that the Saudi university EFL learner is generally not proficient in English if absorption of Saudi professionals in global jobs is seen as a criterion. This sad state of affairs which is also contrary to the stated national goals of Vision 2030, has prompted the current study. The researcher hopes that findings herein will be especially useful to guide state allocation of funds, formulation of education policy blueprints, train academicians, and educate learners.

## III. METHODS

### *A. Research Design*

A quantitative research design was applied in this study. Since the study is based on the twin axes of grammatical competence and linguistic awareness, two tests were included to measure each of these elements in the participants. The first of these was to measure the grammatical competence of the participants while the second measured their linguistic awareness via acceptability judgements. Acceptability judgments are reports of a speaker's or signer's subjective sense of the well-formedness, native-ness, or naturalness of (novel) linguistic forms. Their value comes in providing data about the nature of the human capacity to generalize beyond linguistic forms previously encountered in language comprehension. They have been used to probe the cognitive processes giving rise to the sense of acceptability itself, the central finding being that acceptability reflects processing ease. It is a widely accepted belief in academic circles in KSA that the EFL course content and corresponding pedagogy are driven by the achievement of linguistic competence as the earlier grammar driven approach failed to yield the desirable outcomes. With language learning globally taking communicative ability as the target, educational institutions in Saudi Arabia also directed their teachers to change learning objectives to attainment of linguistic competence. New materials were accordingly commissioned and these were ostensibly based on the new communicative approach. In other words, the earlier, toned-down versions of English books were now replaced by the more authentic, real life language materials congruent to the L2.

### *B. Participants*

The study participants were 120 (random sample) advanced level learners of EFL at Hail University, Saudi Arabia. The participants were aged between 21-23 years and shared comparable educational background with a minimum of 12 years of training in EFL in a formal educational setting and an entry level score of 7+ in the IELTS exam which placed them in the advanced level learner group at the university. Thus, the group was homogenous in their current level of language proficiency though they were all native Arabic speakers with no family member being bilingual (except them) and their own L2 acquisition not being naturalistic.

### *C. Instruments*

#### *(a). Grammar Test*

The first test measured the grammatical competence of the participants using 20 items that needed them to exercise their grammatical competence in English to answer. This was a standardized grammar test adapted from the IELTS grammar component and therefore was not validated otherwise. The test was administered remotely using Google forms links which were shared with the participants, much like the other test which measured their linguistic awareness. The purpose of the test was disclosed to the participants, and they were assured that the scores were sought purely for research. Being an advanced learner group, Arabic instructions or prompts were not provided with the test to the participants though they were asked to answer honestly and not seek the help of any book, reference materials or the internet to do so.

#### *(b). Syntactic Construction Test*

The second test was set apart from the first by a week which was also the duration allowed for submission of the first test. The second test comprised of 28 sentences in English which used four types of syntactical constructions. Seven sentences each were composed with (i) rare collocation; (ii) unusual collocation; (iii) frequent collocation; (iv) wrong collocation. The participants were directed to read each utterance with its highlighted section and decide whether it appeared acceptable to them or not. This required them to apply their metalinguistic knowledge in deciding the correctness of the item. It was clarified to them that the test was purely research oriented and their scores in it would not be added to the university exams, and therefore, they were to go with their intuition in answering the test.

#### D. Data Analysis

The grammar test administered in this study had questions at B2-C1 level which roughly translates to ‘proficient’ since the participants were all advanced learners of English. Since the test responses were sought in Google Forms, it was mandated that all questions be answered for the feedback to be accepted. This was done to ensure that participants do not leave questions unanswered so that one way or the other, a clear picture of their grammatical competence could be established.

#### IV. RESULTS

RQ1. What is the grammatical competence level of Saudi EFL students in Higher Education Institutions?

Table 1 below summarizes the frequency of correct/ incorrect responses to each of the twenty items. The study set itself certain questions to answer. Data gathered from test 1 answers the first question. As can be seen from the data in Table 1 and Figure 1, the performance of the participants in the grammatical competence test is rather bleak with none of the twenty items reaching the fifty percent correct mark. 17% of the students answered correctly the test whereas the majority of them (83%) answered the test incorrectly.

In stage two of the study, the researcher sought to correlate this performance with participants’ linguistic awareness which, it is surmised, has been boosted in recent years with the opening up of Saudi economy and society to winds of global change. This was also an era which saw an unprecedented growth of the internet, partly due to the compulsions of the pandemic, free and fast access to knowledge and entertainment from around the world, and rapid internationalization of Saudi education.

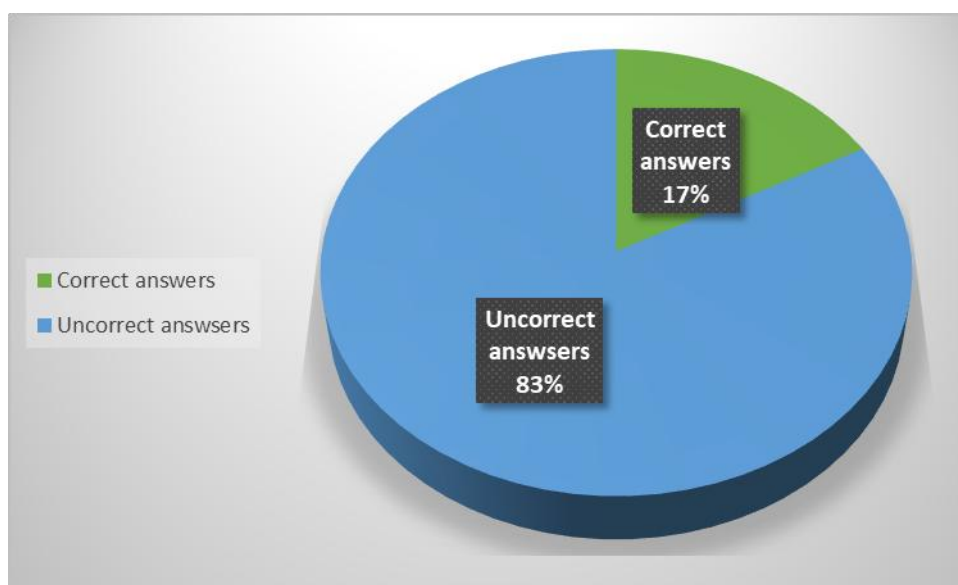


Figure 1. Students' Grammatical Competence Based on IELTS B2-C1 Level

RQ2. Which is the metalinguistic awareness level of Saudi EFL students in syntactic constructions?

As already noted, the second test sought to measure the extent of the participants’ metalinguistic ability in English through asking them to judge certain English syntactical constructions as viable (correct) or unviable (incorrect). They were asked to rely on their intuition in judging and not necessarily view the items through a grammatical lens. This test was also remotely administered using a Google Forms link. The 28 items in the test were equally distributed across four types of collocations viz., rare, unusual, frequent, wrong, to evaluate the accuracy of their judgement concerning acceptability of constructions. At the same time, the grammatical test scores clearly established deficient learned knowledge in English and what remained to be derived from the second test was the extent of random intuitive guesses which would point towards metalinguistic input in case there was reasonable unanimity in correct responses.

TABLE 1  
STUDENTS' GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE BASED ON IELTS B2-C1 LEVEL

	Sentence	No. of correct answers	No. of Incorrect answers
1	There were about five hundred <u>or</u> so loads to transport.	18	102
2	Allow me to be the first to <u>congratulate</u> you on your performance.	12	108
3	I don't think he <u>will be</u> ready on time.	31	99
4	He managed to finish the race in spite of <u>having</u> blisters on the feet.	26	94
5	She didn't <u>have</u> to wait long for the bus, <u>only</u> a few minutes.	23	97
6	Most observers <u>predict</u> the bill won't see <u>the</u> light of day until January.	39	81
7	As an officer of law, I <u>get by</u> though I would like a better salary.	0	120
8	<u>No longer</u> do we expect politicians to tell us the truth.	25	95
9	Although well off the <u>beaten</u> track, the Hotel is nevertheless very easy to get to.	1	119
10	They were <u>supposed</u> to call earlier.	37	83
11	Yes, but the fact of the <u>matter</u> is that is that you can start a home-based business without much stress at all.	23	97
12	The conclusions of the climate deniers are <u>fundamentally</u> wrong.	8	112
13	I think organizing a conference <u>would</u> be an excellent idea.	16	104
14	<u>Slow as I am</u> , to get online, I am just posting the results of the weekend races.	12	108
15	By the time we <u>turned up</u> at the party, the band had stopped playing.	18	102
16	I <u>came across</u> some of my old photos when I was clearing out the shed.	37	83
17	There was a problem with the cooker, but I <u>have fixed</u> it now.	29	91
18	<u>Handled</u> carefully, a hamster can be a good pet.	8	102
19	<u>The thing is</u> , we haven't enough money for the tickets.	30	90
20	The weatherman <u>has predicted</u> a sunny day ahead.	14	106

RQ2. Which is the metalinguistic awareness level of Saudi EFL students in syntactic constructions?

As can be seen from Table 2 and Figure 2, in the case of rare collocations, as many as six of the seven items were voted with a yes on the acceptability judgement criterion (Yes=52.7%, No=47.3). Items 3, 4, 7 scored above 70 positive responses on their correctness which is more than 58% of the participant base. Item 5, on the other hand, scored a low 38 hits of correctness, one plausible reason for this could be that the idea is not culturally familiar in the Arab context. Items 9, 11, 14 of the unusual collocation parameters scored upwards of 70 hits for correctness (Yes=41.5%, No=58.5). These, coincidentally, also figure in the Arabic or L1 repertoire of the participants and it appears that they correlated the intended meaning with that found in the mother tongue and thus, accepted the statements as being correct. The syntactical constructions in this section relied on unusual collocations and this very feature of the utterances proved to be a stumbling block for the participants. However, the overall scores for all the seven items are still commendable, especially when the participants' performance on the learned inputs in test 1 is compared. Four of the seven items in the frequent word combination use achieved a score of more than 60, which goes to show the comfort level of the participants with language which they frequently encounter (Yes=49.2%, No=50.8). However, these usages do not have exact equivalents in their L1, which goes to show that more than L1 transference or correspondence, the participants relied on their metalinguistic knowledge to answer these. The biggest achievement in the second test, nevertheless, has been with the wrong language use in the last section which presented unviable English constructions. The majority of them (No=94.8%) reported that such collocations are not acceptable, while just (Yes=5.2%) said that these collocations are acceptable. Items 27, 28 were unanimously rejected as wrong, the other items in this section have also been judged by the majority as being incorrect.

TABLE 2  
ACCEPTABILITY JUDGEMENT OF ENGLISH SYNTACTICAL CONSTRUCTIONS

	Syntax with rare collocations	Yes	No
1	Luckily, a bush broke his fall.	61	59
2	He caught my eye and smiled.	57	63
3	See you! Catch you later!	73	47
4	Can you give us a hand?	79	41
5	I wonder if he will ask me out to dinner.	38	82
6	Ali would go to any extent to score a point.	64	56
7	He passed out in the sun.	71	49
	Syntax with unusual collocations		
8	Aunt Green loves to fawn over her grandkids.	32	88
9	Can you stop crowing over this matter?	75	45
10	The security in-charge beefed up his boss on the spy cameras.	47	73
11	I was only sizing him up when he took to his heels.	78	42
12	She bristled at his insolence.	24	96
13	The drama plodded on as we all slept!	11	109
14	Old values are getting wiped out in the race for modernity.	82	38
	Syntax with frequent collocation		
15	The Titanic sank on its maiden voyage.	64	56
16	The teacher got a big round of applause on his farewell.	72	48
17	The bomb went off early.	58	62
18	The soldier was in excruciating pain.	47	73
19	We came back as we ran out of money.	76	44
20	He was mean enough to drive anyone to crime.	29	91
21	She burst into tears on seeing her favorite vase break.	68	52
	Syntax with wrong collocation		
22	We were thickly disappointed to lose the match.	11	109
23	He was highly happy to receive the award.	13	107
24	The team is hellishly talented.	7	113
25	We tried bitterly but failed to score a goal.	9	111
26	The newspaper is happily critical of the leaders.	4	116
27	We do love going to the quick food chains like McDonald's	0	120
28	The poet won a prize for committing fine verses.	0	120

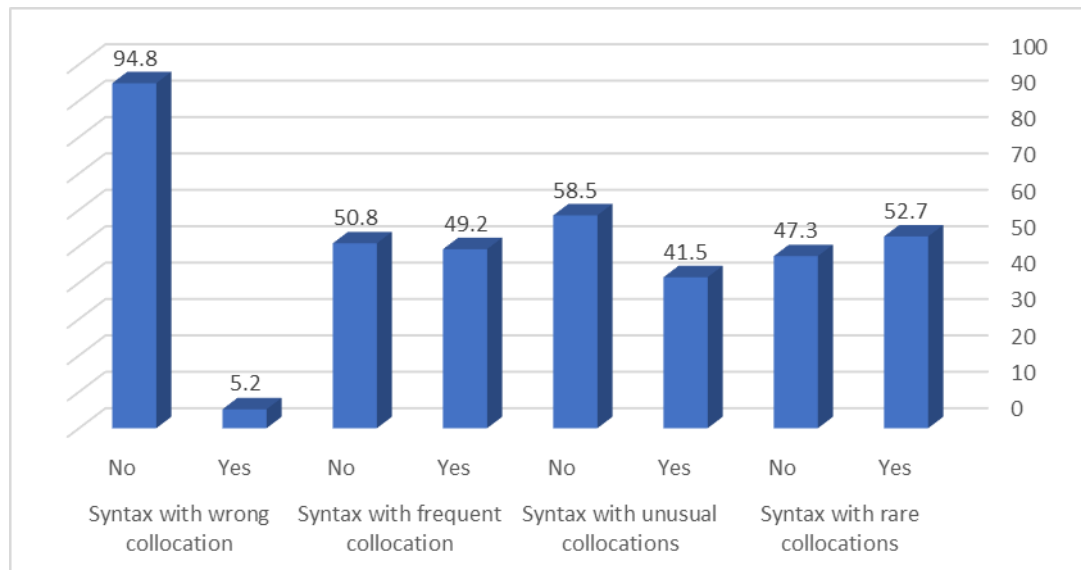


Figure 2. Acceptability Judgement of English Syntactical Constructions

## V. DISCUSSION

This study wove around the twin axes of linguistic awareness and grammatical competence of Saudi EFL students. The study found that Saudi EFL students have a low proficiency level in grammatical competence. It was found that the majority of the students answered the grammar test which is based on IELTS incorrectly (73%) while just 17% of them answered the questions correctly. Although the researcher did not expect outstanding scores, even such low scores were not to be expected of advanced level learners. The researcher's classroom experience with EFL learners in the past pointed towards a firm grasp of grammar but it is also true that the earlier materials being specially prepared for the foreign language learner, were not of the requisite standard. This can account for the dismal performance on the IELTS standardized test. This low level of students' grammatical competence may be associated with superficial learning

system in high schools in addition to the study of English as a subject and not a language of communication. Eslami-Rasekh (2005) reported that Iranian students struggle to understand and produce a second language since their exposure to the native community and culture is limited. In such a case, Eslami-Rasekh and Mardani, (2010) reported that when they fail to recognize the language patterns and functions of speech acts of the second language, they begin to translate and transfer from their native language in order to produce proper sentences. Bin-Hady (2016) found that grammar is taught in Yemeni high school inductively and students were not exposed to real language use.

Furthermore, the study measured the extent of the Saudi EFL students' metalinguistic ability by reporting their familiarity with four types of collocations. The findings showed that students were highly aware of incorrect collocation, half of them were aware about frequent collocation, more than half of them (60%) were aware about sentences with unusual collocations and finally, less than half (47%) of them were aware about the syntactic construction with rare collocations.

These findings are attributed to constant training in differentiating between right and wrong expressions. Once again, their mother tongue too does not support such utterances where negative and positive attributes form a collocational pair. These findings are confirmed by Al-Ahdal and Almarshedi (2021) which found that the metalinguistic awareness of Saudi EFL students is satisfactory due to the satisfactory achievement in identifying the syntactic errors of some sentences provided to them.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

The ability of foreign language learners such as the participants in this study to form correct acceptability judgements in L2 is a typical trait because in this case they rely on well-defined notions of correct as opposed to incorrect, a trait they acquire from long exposure to EFL materials, tests, and training. This was also voiced by some of the participants in the google forms link which elicited their views on acceptability judgements. In any case, the participants' superior metalinguistic performance in the second test as compared to the first which needed them to recall consciously learnt knowledge supports the hypothesis that the Saudi EFL learning process is steadily moving towards achievement of linguistic awareness, a happy finding since it firmly establishes them in the realm of intuitive language use, a process which is closely associated with L1 learning. An extension of this finding is that these learners are in a stage of language learning which is a precursor of bilingualism as they apply intuitiveness to L2 use.

## VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

It can be recommended from the results obtained in this study that learning focus be zoomed out of the earlier grammar intensive approach which entailed non-contextual language use training in the form of structured exercises. The findings of this study have clearly established that the Saudi EFL learner has come of age and is in a stage of learning where metalinguistic input carried more weight than linguistic input. In other words, materials and tasks which involve the learner in direct language use and exposure need to be encouraged in the classrooms and the testing focus also need to place greater premium on communicative rather than textual performance. This, however, will also mean conditioning the teaching community to move away from the textbook approach to an approach that fosters linguistic awareness.

## VIII. LIMITATIONS

This study comprised a reasonable participant base, however, performance is not linear entity and factors such as gender and general classroom ecology need to be part of any study that measures learner performance. It is therefore recommended that future studies take gender into account as a potent factor. Further, the data here is mostly quantitative with the exception of the few comments that the participants freely included in their test. However, it is felt that a core qualitative component in the form of interviews would have added a new dimension to this study as the researcher would then be able to pinpoint the precise operations that occur in the learner's mind as they bank upon their metalinguistic knowledge for communicative purposes.

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# Teaching Vietnamese Writing to Foreigners With Interactive Viewpoints

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**Abstract**—Interactive communication is a key feature of the information age. Forms of communication that were thought to be one-way, such as television and book, becoming interactive along with the growth of digital, mobile devices, Internet, computers. Developed technology and updated media have created more chances for interactive communication throughout social classes, media, disciplines, cultures, places and also times. Pedagogically, writing has been increasingly perceived as inherently social and interactive. It involves more than just creating, organizing, translating ideas into texts. Basically, each act of writing is an interactive phase, ideally manifesting as intertextuality, with a particular academic establishment or discipline represented by its specific foundations, problems, and precursors. For those motivations, we have researched the application of interactive viewpoints into teaching Vietnamese writing for foreign students. Within this, we clarify the concept of interactive writing, propose techniques for teaching, criteria for assessing the interactive Vietnamese writing skills of foreign students, to apply in the teaching process and in testing and assessing activities. The results also have the prospects for developing interactive Vietnamese writing textbooks for foreigners as well as criteria for assessing the interactive Vietnamese writing competency tests.

**Index Terms**—interactive, interactive communication, interactive writing, interactive writing techniques, criteria for assessing interactive writing skills

## I. INTRODUCTION

In social interaction theories of discourse, meaning is a social construction dealt by writers and readers via textual means, which distinctively shapes their corresponding goals. While communicating, the writer and the reader can have lots of actions, aimed at achieving developing and continuous "statuses" of mutual understanding. Attention and research in everyday conversations (Staton et al., 1988) and collaborative writing groups (Gere & Stevens, 1985) vividly reinforce the view that writing is a process of interactions between writers and their readers. Increasingly, the nature of writing, in all languages, is seen as inherently interactive and social. Theorists of writing acknowledge that writing requires higher than just creating, organizing, or transferring thinkings into text. Essentially, every action of writing implies an interactive phase, preferably embodying intertextuality (Porter, 1986).

Therefore, in this article, we present research on applying interactive writing perspectives to teaching interactive Vietnamese writing to foreigners and related issues. Specifically, we study issues related to interactive writing such as concepts, elements, teaching methods, structure of requirements, assessment criteria, assessment standards for the interactive Vietnamese writing competency of foreigners. We conduct research starting from surveying research works on interactive writing in the world and in Vietnam, interactive writing tests in English and Vietnamese, and then with those results we apply in teaching Vietnamese writing to foreigners. The results obtained from this study include the defined interactive writing concept, interactive writing criteria, teaching methods, requirements structure, assessment criteria, and assessment standards, directions for composing interactive Vietnamese writing textbooks for foreigners.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Regarding the concept of interactive / interaction, in the 1980s - 1990s, there were many studies in Australia, UK and USA on interaction in the classroom. Specifically, Douglas et al. have been dominant in promoting adjacent attention to language role in interaction within groups. At that point of time, the concept of students being helped by teachers, urged to create knowledge for themselves showed a special pedagogical perspective (Bearne, 2003).

The interactive approach "holds that language learning occurs in and through participation in speech events, that is, that talking to others, or making conversation is essential" (van Lier, 1988, p.74). This approach is rooted in Long's (1985) interaction hypothesis: "the dynamic nature of the interplay between learners and their peers and their teachers and others with whom they interact" (Brown, 2007, p.304) and sees it as the proposition that "any learning that takes place in the classroom arises in the course of interaction of these players" (Ellis, 1987, p.191).

Regarding the concept of interactive communication, it is a modern term, a key feature of the current information age. Various means of communication that were formerly considered to be one-way, such as TV or book, becoming

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interactive along with the growth of Internet, computers, mobile and digital gadgets. Developed technology and latest media have instantly soared the chances for interactive communicating throughout social classes, media, disciplines, cultures, places and also the time. Forms of interactive communication include basic dialogue and non-verbal communication, game books, interactive novel-story, hypertext, interactive television-movie, video sharing, video games, social media, marketing and public relations, augmented reality, ambient intelligence, and virtual reality (en.wikipedia).

According to researchers, the concept of interactive writing originated from language experience approach (Ashton-Warner, 1963) and shared writing of McKenzie's (1985). In those thoughts, teacher acts as the secretary for oral expressions of students' to denote the operation of transforming speech to language written which can be read as a seductive and understandable text.

Cognitive and sociocultural theories of learning set foundations for interactive writing (Vygotsky, 1978; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wertsch, 1998; Clay, 2001). Processes of cognition are formed and evolved in activities of writing built by teachers and students with socio-cultural nature. The purpose of interactive writing is to help students understand the meaning of writing. Lessons are directional; teachers model what students must do during independent writing. The lesson begins with the teacher and student collaborating to plan the text to be written, often editing the message spoken many times. Then, teacher and student "share the pen" (McCarrier et al., 2000, p. xvii).

In the classroom, teachers use interactive writing to model reading and writing strategies as they encourage students to create texts. Interactive writing allows teachers and students to literally "share the pen" to create a common sentence or message. Interactive writing is a dynamic educational vehicle for the teaching of spelling principles, phonics, syllables, pattern, and various important writing skills at early stages. This interactive writing approach is described in great detail in the work named "Interactive Writing: How Language & Literacy Come Together" by McCarrier et al. (2000).

Thus, "Interactive writing provides a means for teachers to engage in effective literacy instruction, not through isolated skills lessons, but within the framework of constructing texts filled with personal and collective meaning" (Button et al., 1996, p.446).

Regarding interactive writing methods, they have been described in many works such as: *Students and Teachers Writing Together: Perspectives on Journal Writing* (Peyton, 1990), *Some day you will no all about me: Young Children's Explorations in the World of Letter Writing* (Robinson et al., 1990), etc.

In the interactive approach, teachers act as facilitators to engage students in "task oriented", "purposeful" and "collaborative" learning (cooperative) (Rivers 1987, p.10). Learners are not passive observers, but in fact, active and responsible participants in the learning process.

Regarding studies in Vietnamese, although there have been many research works related to teaching Vietnamese writing to foreigners such as teaching writing from sentence, teaching writing using 5W + 1H questions, teaching grammar – writing, teaching writing using mind maps, teaching writing with communication method, etc. However, we have not found a single work that has studied and applied interactive methods to teaching writing. Therefore, in this study, we will refer to the strengths and weaknesses of the existing works in Vietnam, and at the same time apply the experience of teaching interactive writing abroad to propose interactive Vietnamese writing techniques as well as assessment criteria for students' interactive writing skills.

Through the research works, a definition of interactive writing can be summarized as follows. Interactive writing is the process by which writers and readers interact with reciprocal and correspondent roles in creating written discourse with each other. That process involves five basic elements: negotiating the composition of the text; secondly, collaborating in the development of the text; thirdly, using textual conventions; and then reading and rereading the text; and finally, searching, checking, and validating while reading and writing.

### III. TEACHING VIETNAMESE WRITING SKILLS WITH INTERACTIVE PERSPECTIVE

#### A. *Interactive Criteria for Vietnamese Writing Skills*

Regarding interactive writing guidance, many studies around the world have been done and attested (Brotherton & Williams, 2002; Craig, 2006; Hall et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2010; Williams & Lundstrom, 2007; Williams, 2011; Williams et al., 2012; Roth & Guinee, 2011). From the research and definitions of interactive writing, we can draw the interactive criteria for Vietnamese writing skills including the following.

1) The first is interchangeability. Interchangeability is one of the foundations of the interactive, social aspect of language. Writing is an activity used in the social interaction of language. Therefore, interaction in writing must be able to communicate. If there is no communication, then the writing is not interactive.

2) Secondly, interactive writing is a two-way process, with feedback alternating between writers and readers. For example, during interactive writing, students and teachers discuss about what they are going to write. The teacher acts as a facilitator of the discussion - guiding, modeling, supplementing, summarizing, validating, combining, and synthesizing student ideas. Interactive writing is a continuous process of interaction between writers and readers. Readers receive message and give response back to writers. Feedback from the writers will then affect the reader's comprehension and trigger more feedback, possibly eliciting more opinions given by the writers. In terms of theory, the

interaction sequences can be from very simple to rather complicated, relating to different elements consisting of the language level of proficiency of the partakers, differences in social position, acquaintanceship between them, each person's knowledge, the complexity of the message, the nature of the interaction, etc.

3) The third is the communication situation. Interactive writing must take place in a communicative situation. Readers and writers together participate in specific communication situations, interact continuously with each other. If there is no communicative situation, then it is not interactive writing but passive writing or non-communicative writing.

4) The next criterion is problem solving. In interactive writing, communication problems occur, and problem solving is necessary to achieve the ultimate interactive goal. These problems may include discussing topics and writing processes, dealing with text conventions and be of grammar, spelling, punctuation, lettering, phonetics and intonation or styles and ways of writing for different purposes. The problems in the interactive writing process are the teaching content that the teacher wants to aim at and train the students.

5) Next is the criterion of goal completion. When writers actively interact by continuously providing feedback, taking turns, and negotiating meaning with the readers, they are actually collaborating with the readers to progress the discourse and ultimately accomplish the goal of communication. This communication goal is the biggest goal of the series of interactive activities in the writing process.

6) The last criterion is the writer-reader relationship. The relationship between the writers and the readers means that between them there must always be collaboration, cooperation, reciprocity, and working together. This represents the nature of interaction in writing because research has empirically demonstrated that the essence of interactive writing is collaboration. The meanings of discourses are constructed collaboratively by writers and readers in interactive contexts. They actively collaborate with each other to increase their mutual understanding (Staton et al., 1988) (Gere & Stevens, 1985).

#### *B. Techniques for Teaching Interactive Vietnamese Writing to Achieve the Above Criteria*

From the interaction criteria identified above, when teaching interactive Vietnamese writing to foreigners, teachers need to base on those criteria to consider the following issues when constructing activities of interactive writing for students.

1) Create an interchangeable social situation. As analyzed above, writing activities in real social interaction are activities with communication situations such as writing letters, e-mails, ordering, applying for jobs, chatting online, text messaging, social networking, etc. When creating social communication situations, it is also necessary to pay attention to the ability to communicate because the ability to communicate is the door to interactive activities. If the ability to communicate is lost, then writing is no longer interactive, and that writing activity falls outside the goal of social communication.

2) Ensure the bidirectionality of interactions. The most basic nature of interaction in social communication is the two-way nature in the most dynamic sense. One-way impacts will not be considered interactions. Therefore, interactive writing activities must always ensure the bidirectionality of interactions. For example, if you only answer the questions asked, it is considered to have a one-way impact and this writing activity is not interactive yet. Here, the alternation of readers - writers must always be monitored and ensure the positive in two-way interactions.

3) Create communication problems for writers to solve. During the interactive process of the writing activity, communication problems will arise and the students must deal with and find ways to solve all of those communication problems through specific interactions with purposes to accomplish the goal of the interactive writing activity. Communication problems are also the teaching goals that teachers want to integrate for students to train and practice in the interactive process of writing activities.

4) Provide social communication goals for the writers to accomplish. Each interactive writing activity must be geared towards a specific social communication goal. Those are practical goals that the writers encounter in social life reality. It is a motivation, a goal and a joy for students in their interactive writing process.

5) Monitor the alternate writer-reader relationship. In their role, teachers need to supervise the alternate writer-reader relationship. This monitoring is to ensure that the writing activity has meaningful and positive interaction. It is also not beyond the purpose of helping learners achieve true social writing ability, eliminating forms of coping in writing or writing like a machine that cannot accomplish the goal of social communication.

#### *C. Methods for Assessing Vietnamese Writing Skills With Interactive Point of View*

Accurate student assessment across all aspects of language competence remains an area that needs to be researched more. One of the options is to create chances for students to come up with their general score by self-assessment and cross-assessment (van Lier, 1988). Rivers (1987) suggested tests being "interesting and absorbing" and students "mentally interacting with the test writer or administrator or with other students..." (p. 13). An additional choice is to focus more on assessing classroom activities than on end-of-term exams. This can make students more focused on daily activities rather than cramming for tests (Rivers, 1987).

Regardless of the point of view of the assessment of students' interactive writing ability, when performing this test and assessment, the main features of the interactive writing task using the target language (TLU: Target Language Use) needs to be considered comprehensively. The TLU interactive writing task involves the following elements.

1) Writer's feedback: Every interactive writing task should have standards for the amount and level of writer response because feedback is an inevitable premise of interaction. Without feedback, there can be no interaction.

2) Writer's interaction ability: Interaction ability is the core competence of the writing activity. Writers must demonstrate their meaningful, goal-oriented interaction ability at a certain frequency depending on the requirements of each specific interactive writing task.

3) The writer's ability to solve communication problems: In each interactive writing task, language and communication issues are integrated for students to handle and practice. Therefore, assessing the level of problem solving of students is essential to assess students' interactive writing ability.

4) The writer's ability to accomplish communication goals: Not any interactive writing task is an exception to writer's social communication goals. Therefore, the ability of the writer to accomplish the communication goals is also an important factor to evaluate the interactive writing ability of the students.

5) Ability to maintain writer-reader relationship: This is also a skill and ability to perform social interaction of students. Once this relationship is absent or no longer maintained, the interaction possibility will also be lost. Assessing the ability to maintain a writer-reader relationship is also an assessment of students' interactive writing ability.

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The first is teaching Vietnamese writing. The writing practice exercises in the current textbooks used to teach Vietnamese to foreigners are mostly informational writing. That is, most of the exercises are aimed at intrinsic language skills, in which the focus is on information content with little or no attention to the interactive aspect of social communication. Here is an example:

Thực hành viết: (Writing practice)

Với tư cách là một nhà bảo vệ môi trường, bạn hãy cho biết ý kiến về hiện tượng trái đất ấm lên. (As an environment protector, please give your opinion about the phenomenon of global warming.)

With this type of writing task, in terms of training of the intrinsic language skills, it can be good. However, in terms of interaction and social communication, it can be said that these aspects are absent. Instead, we can apply a variety of ways to make writing interactive as shown in some of the following examples.

Phỏng vấn và viết: (Interview and write)

Với tư cách là một nhà bảo vệ môi trường, bạn hãy phỏng vấn các ý kiến và viết về hiện tượng trái đất ấm lên. (As an environment protector, please interview for opinions and write about the phenomenon of global warming.)

About the interactive activity of interviewing and writing, students interview their partners and write an article, a CV, a cover letter, etc. Then the interviewees read the text to check the facts and see if they want to add anything or not. It is also possible to have several people write the same interview and compare their completed paragraphs. For more fun, ask the interviewers not to take notes until they get home, then stay home to write from memory and thus, there will be more inaccuracies to spot and correct.

Other forms of interactive writing activities can be Write about each other, Write and guess who that person is, Read and write, Write blog, Create a forum, Write interactive instructions, etc.

The second is the assessment of Vietnamese writing competence. The assessment of Vietnamese writing competence in writing exams and tests currently does not pay attention to students' ability to interact and communicate while writing. The writing task questions focus solely on the linguistic and technical content of the text. There are no criteria for interactive writing in the framework of the assessment of writing competence. All the criteria revolve around testing the ability to write sentences, paragraphs, texts with different technical levels in the content of the written message itself. For example, we can consider the following example.

Thực hành viết: (Writing practice)

Các anh chị hãy viết về vai trò và những ảnh hưởng của Internet với cuộc sống của chúng ta ngày nay. (Now you write about the role and effects of the Internet in our lives today.)

With this type of writing task, it is clearly that it is aimed at testing learners' knowledge of language and writing techniques through the content of the text. It completely does not create opportunities for learners to interact socially and therefore, cannot test and assess students' ability to interact in social communication. Because, for successful social communication, knowledge is only one part, the rest is social interaction competence, which includes two components: attitude and interaction skills.

The third is the issuing of Vietnamese writing proficiency test. Vietnamese writing proficiency tests so far have not tested candidates' interactive ability in writing because there are no criteria for interactive writing and therefore, of course, there are no standards and scales to assess students' interactive writing competence.

With the test tasks such as Dictation, Fill in the blanks, Write by topics, etc. there are obviously no interactive elements. Even for the task of writing a response to a given letter/ e-mail, according to the interactive criteria for writing activity, this response task is not yet qualified to be interactive because it is only a one-way feedback, there is no possibility of interchangeability, and writer-reader relationship is not maintained.

Therefore, in the process of making the Vietnamese writing proficiency test, the aspect of students' interactive writing competence should be paid attention and added to the exam tasks in order to assess and test students' real communication ability when they are put into a real social communication environment. It also aims to assess the

student comprehensively, including language performance, not just knowledge, or coping with exam questions, with test-taking, and with scores, but have no or very little real performance competence.

Finally, with the compiling of interactive Vietnamese writing textbooks. The actual survey shows that textbooks of Vietnamese language teaching for foreigners can be divided into three groups. In the first group, which is currently available, there are writing assignments and tasks that have been designed with few interactive elements and interactive activities for students. In the second group, they are textbooks which do not have interactive elements. And the last group contains the textbooks that are in the process of being compiled or will be compiled in the future. With these types of textbooks, we should invest attention, construction, expansion, and enhancement of social interaction issues for learners because of the importance of the skills, competence of interactive writing that have been studied and demonstrated in the above content.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

The interactive approach regards student to be an energetic contributor in the class rather than a suffering student; a method which states that language is not the only entity for studying, but also the interactive experiences that students readily interact together and make communications in a targeted language.

The interactive approaches in writing shall allow, when being applied to education, the construction of sequences of communication exchange among the participants rather than a single exchange between the teacher and individual members, and thus, ensuring more diverse interactions. Moreover, creating a mutual space of mental conception is an important point to help learners have mandatory equipment to absorb the content of the subject, and improve the quantity, quality of student's exchanges as well. Therefore, we come to a conclusion that when applying methods of interactive writing, the regular conception of education has been completely changed, as Mathieu (1998) said that teachers are no longer informants but facilitators allowing students to explore, respond, and compare at their own pace.

Within the scope of this research, we have clarified the concept of interaction, discussed the application of interactive elements into teaching Vietnamese writing skills, analyzed the structures of interactive writing requirements, and proposed techniques to teaching and learning interactive writing skills, criteria for interactive writing competency assessment, criteria for interactive writing test assessment as well as directions for compiling Interactive Vietnamese writing textbooks for foreigners.

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# Translating *Macbeth*'s Colour Metaphors Into Arabic: A Revised CMT Approach to Shakespeare's Creative Metaphors

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**Abstract**—Shakespeare is one of the most translated and retranslated English language authors into Arabic. Ever since the rise of the modern translation movement, translating Shakespeare into Arabic has continued to receive the attention of translators and researchers in the field of translating literature. But most academic and critical research on the translation of Shakespeare into Arabic has focused on the sociocultural implications of the translation process while neglecting aspects related to Shakespeare's language and thought. One of the multifarious challenges of translating Shakespeare into Arabic is the Bard's use of creative metaphors which account for the richness, exquisiteness and creativity of Shakespeare's lexical and conceptual legacy. This paper aims to research one of the restrictions of translating Shakespeare's creative metaphors in two Arabic translations of *Macbeth* with specific focus on the colour metaphors of the emotion of fear. The research methods adopt the improved version of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) in identifying, collecting and analysing the tokens in the source and target texts. The study shows that the translation of a creative metaphor into Arabic is influenced by the degree of saliency in the associations between the metaphor's two conceptual domains. It also concludes that the revised CMT provides a reliable framework for understanding and analysing the communicative function of creative metaphors in discourse. The results also show that the deconstruction of conceptual metaphors back into their basic kernel patterns provides a good but inadequate strategy to translate highly-contextualized uses of creative metaphors in the case of lexical or conceptual restrictions.

**Index Terms**—translating creative metaphors, translating Shakespeare into Arabic, Revised Conceptual Metaphor Theory, *Macbeth*, Shakespeare's language

## I. INTRODUCTION

Translating literature is one of the most challenging tasks a translator can be entrusted with (Sanchez, 2009), not only due to the abundance of sociocultural, communicative and stylistic features of literary texts, but also in view of the salient features of language use. One of the challenges that have been associated with translating literary works is metaphors which are laden with multiple layers of meaning in a way that makes them play an intriguing role in indirect communication. There has been a prevalent assumption among academics and translators that the difficulty in translating Shakespeare's texts arises from the complexity and sheer originality of his metaphoric language (Omar, 2012, 2020). Although the mechanisms of Shakespeare's metaphoric language have been researched and analysed from different perspectives, very few studies investigated the actual sources of difficulty in translating Shakespeare's creative metaphors and how these metaphors behave in translation.

Shakespeare's plays, especially the tragedies, are thought to have been translated and retranslated into Arabic more than any other literary text, but still few translations can be described as academic in the sense of preserving the text inside out and fewer studies researched the translation of Shakespeare into Arabic from the perspective of language as opposed to other translation-related aspects such as culture, subject matter, literary genre, characters, etc. (Omar, 2012). Understanding the intricate mechanisms of Shakespeare's language, and particularly the role of the Bard's metaphoric language with its richness, universality and creativity, in informing the development of his themes and characterization, is very significant for an accurate cross-linguistic representation of his works.

Shakespeare's language is unique for being universal, culturally-embedded and creative. Shakespeare's works speak a universal language because they deal with universally-shared themes and concepts. The argument about Shakespeare's universal language is ascribed to Samuel Johnson in his 1765 "Preface to Shakespeare" that appeared in an annotated version of the Bard's plays (Johnson, 2004). The author argued that Shakespeare's themes discuss universal human topics with characters that speak on behalf of man, in general, rather than the English man, in particular (Goddard, 1951). Yet, the universality of Shakespeare's themes and language is not isolated from the English culture in which it originated. Rather, it is completely harmonious with its contemporary cultural milieu. Although Shakespeare borrowed his universal themes from classical, authoritative sources of literature like Biblical content (Marx, 2000) and myths (Root, 1903), the language of his characters reflected the qualities of Elizabethan English drama in its

outstanding and audacious use of imagery and profound opulent depiction of human suffering (Neilson & Thorndike, 1927).

Another aspect of Shakespeare's linguistic heritage is its expressive power which derives its value from being a universal feature or an English accomplishment. Shakespeare's linguistic tradition can sometimes be viewed as lacking the characteristics of English literary texts for several reasons (Rhodes, 2004). For instance, the Bard's language is impregnated with lexical items from Latin origin (Binns, 1982; Claflin, 1921) and mixes genres, unlike any other writer of his contemporaries. Also, the peculiarity of Shakespeare's individual style makes it lack the qualities of academic writing and resist research as an archetype for "academic rectitude" (Rhodes, 2004, p. 210). Shakespeare's language is unique for being colourful and capable of addressing the heart but at the same time its conceptual force appeals to our minds because of its "ineradicable dualism" (Berry, 1978, p. 5) in interchanging between literal and metaphoric expressions.

This study is significant because it bridges a gap in academic research which investigated the academic translations of Shakespeare into Arabic. Research on Shakespeare's translation from English into Arabic, including studies that addressed the translation of Shakespeare's metaphoric language, has focused on the cultural and stylistic challenges of translating Shakespeare's works (Fung, 1994; Hanna, 2006, 2007, 2009, 2016; Omar, 2020) while evading a close examination of language use and its impact on informing the conceptual content of a particular Shakespearean text. This research paper focuses on one of the most intractable challenges that face Arabic language translators who wish to give a very close representation of the Bard's linguistic genius by exploring the translation of one type of Shakespeare's original metaphors in two academic Arabic translations. The targeted tokens are colour metaphors, and the research methods will adopt the revised version of CMT in collecting and analysing the data. The study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What is the source of difficulty in translating Shakespeare's creative colour metaphors?
2. What possible strategies did the translators use to process the targeted creative metaphors, and how far has an academic translation managed to match the original?
3. What kind of limitations are there for translating Shakespeare's metaphoric language into Arabic? And how useful can the revised CMT be in informing the translator's decisions about translating creative metaphors?

## II. SHAKESPEARE'S METAPHORIC LANGUAGE

Although metaphoric representation is one of the unique qualities of Shakespeare's linguistic artistry, the metaphoric component of Shakespeare's language has received little more than modest attention from scholars and literary critics alike. The metaphoric language of Shakespeare started to receive well-deserved attention after the eighteenth-century publication of *Specimen of a Commentary on Shakespeare* in 1794 (Whiter, 1967). This work laid the foundation for studying Shakespeare's imagery and provided a critical survey of the workings of the creative mind with examples from Shakespeare's plays which are rich in creative poetic images. The study researched the creative power of metaphoric associations in forming clustered images which unify the literary work in its totality, a finding which continued to be reinforced by research on the Bard's language and thought (Spurgeon, 1935). Clemen (1977) studied Shakespeare's drama by surveying the Bard's imagery and giving examples that testify to gradation in their intensity to frame the development and unity of theme, structure and stylistic features of the plays.

McDonald (2001) reviewed modern studies on Shakespeare's imagery criticizing the early studies of Shakespeare's metaphoric language for dealing with the content of metaphors irrespective of their cultural and contextual attributes. The author highlighted the significance of studying the "semantic and poetic multiplicity" (p. 71) of Shakespeare's metaphors without isolating them from the context in which they originated as this downplays the socio-historical functions of metaphors. Spurgeon (1935) based her research on the idea that each Shakespearean play is controlled by a group of images which form an 'undertone' that organizes the thematic and stylistic structure of the play.

The controlling undertone in a Shakespearean play intensifies in the form of an emotion that dominates the play's imagery like jealousy in *Othello* and anger in *King Lear*. In *Macbeth*, "fear is the emotion that most colours the atmosphere" of the play (Costello, 2018, p. 23) in culmination of different emotions like ambition, guilt, remorse, despair and others. These emotions intensify in an evolutionary metaphoric model that creates an atmosphere particular to the sociocultural and other contexts of the play. Spurgeon (1935) described this model as 'iterative imagery', explaining how Shakespeare writes with a metaphoric pattern in mind recurring over and over again as an image which dominates the themes of the play and generates a wave of emotions that reflect the author's perspectives in a systematic manner.

Clemen (1977) and Berry (1978) highlighted the role of Shakespeare's metaphors in sustaining the unity of his plays. Both writers viewed these metaphors as a frame for the play's theme and structure in a way they function as integrated cells that promote the unity of the play as a whole. Studies that researched the role of individual Shakespearean metaphors in framing the structure of his plays received criticism for toning down the multiplicity of the metaphoric content. Thompson and Thompson (1987) and Thompson (1990) distinguished between 'macrometaphoric' analysis and 'micrometaphoric' analysis. The authors thought that the first approach was restrictive as it called for processing a metaphor vis-à-vis the controlling theme of the text, regardless of its functional or stylistic variation. Conversely, the second analytical approach called for studying each word or morpheme in the metaphoric structure individually taking

into account all the factors that play a role in producing the metaphoric pattern, without attributing it to the overall dominating theme.

MacCormac (1986) remarked that appreciating creative metaphors requires resilience in finding associations between anomalous conceptual categories. The author explained that the creativity of language users arises from their ability to produce new meanings by viewing conceptual categories as “fuzzy sets” (p. 173). Thus, adopting rational reasoning does not accommodate a logical explanation of creative metaphors. Rather, what accounts for metaphoric creativity is the dynamics of emotion and memory functions. The author gave examples of how Shakespeare juxtaposed lexical items that do not have common associations in normal conditions and remarked that “emotion often plays the largest role in providing the motivation for the production of creative metaphors. Even the conscious intention to suggest a new insight finds roots in a strongly emotion-laden desire” (p. 193).

Shakespeare’s literary works provide an excellent source of data for researching the translation of creative metaphors in the literary genre because of the Bard’s prolific and exquisite use of metaphoric language (McDonald 2001; Rhodes, 2004). Although Shakespeare derived most of his metaphors from the natural environment and everyday experiences which look familiar to most human beings, his metaphoric language is captivating in its power to observe and capture the smallest details of our pervasive experiences (McDonald, 2001; Spurgeon, 1935). The universality of Shakespearean metaphoric language is congruous with the principle of CMT that our language is dominated by conceptual metaphors which are shared by human beings on a global scale. Yet, there has always been consensus among researchers that Shakespeare used unconventional metaphors which are striking in their peculiarity and audacious in their “unobvious analogies” (Hudson, 1872, p. 97). Hudson (1872) remarked that the opulence and boldness of Shakespeare’s metaphoric language originates from the creation of a novel association between the two domains of a metaphor or an extended metaphoric structure which seems interwoven “into one homogeneous mass” (p. 95).

Shakespeare’s translation into Arabic is an extended project launched by an initiative of Arab academics and intellectuals who showed interest in evaluating the different endeavours of translating Shakespeare’s work into the Arabic language from various perspectives. Some academic research projects on the topic chose to research the Arabic translations of Shakespeare from the angle of the contributions made by notable Arab translators to Shakespeare’s translation vis-à-vis the TTs’ accuracy in presenting the STs’ content on the lexical, conceptual as well as stylistic levels (Alsaai, 1997; Omar, 2012, 2020, 2021; Twaij, 1973; Zaki, 1978). Most academic research, however, especially recent projects, on Shakespeare’s Arabic translations focused on the topic from a socio-cultural perspective (Al-Shetawi, 1989, 2013; Hanna, 2006, 2007, 2009, 2016).

A potential common framework for investigating the translation of Shakespeare across different academic projects is metaphor analysis from the perspective of CMT. The findings of Omar (2012) concluded that researching the translation of Shakespeare from the perspective of accuracy is quite restrictive as conceptual metaphors analysis of the STs and TTs proved that even translations which are considered highly authentic in their representation of the STs produced a high percentage of mutation in the content of the translated plays. This paper seeks to answer a number of questions on the translatability of Shakespeare’s creative metaphors and to show how investigating the translation of Shakespeare’s metaphoric language within the framework of the revised CMT can highlight unexplored areas in translating creative metaphors as it unveils several aspects of the situational and pragmatic contexts of literary metaphors.

### III. RESEARCH METHODS

The research methods adopted in identifying, collecting and analysing the data are informed by the revised version of CMT which views metaphors as conceptual patterns that result from the interaction between our reasoning and our physical realities rather than arbitrary linguistic expressions which communicate our ideas indirectly (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999; Lakoff & Turner, 1989). The revised CMT proposed an extended approach to analysing conceptual metaphors (Kövecses, 2015, 2020a, 2020b) as multilayered conceptual patterns that are grounded in rich contextual content. Kövecses (2020a) criticized the shortcomings of CMT due to its heavy reliance on generalized conventional metaphoric mappings with little consideration for “context as a significant factor both in embodiment and creativity” and “a better framework for the metaphorical conceptualization of emotions” (p. 42).

According to the author, creative metaphors arise from a complex milieu of four contextual levels that explain the creation and continuity/discontinuity of metaphoric associations. The first context is physically-embedded and it originates by relating our thought to our bodily experiences and conditions. The second context is the situational context which is related to the immediate physical, cultural as well as social environments. The third context is the discourse context which comprises the existing discourse (cotext), previous context, speaker and other language users’ contextual knowledge as well as prevalent discourse. The fourth context is the larger cognitive context which is framed by our conceptual, historical, ideological as well as individual background. Only when we take into consideration all these dimensions of context that we can understand and account for the value in coining and using novel metaphors.

Creative metaphors do not emerge merely by accumulating universal conventional metaphoric patterns in a hierarchical manner, which is why understanding their meaning and appreciating their function requires profound knowledge of diverse contextual factors that lead to their creation in a continuously evolving discourse. The empirical study adopts the extended CMT in identifying and collecting the data by selecting one type of creative metaphors with a

fixed TD and tracing the variation in the corresponding SDs throughout the ST. It is the variation in the SD content which unveils the type of contextual bond between different conceptual metaphors and their role in informing the metacognitive function of the text. A conceptual metaphor like 'EMOTION HAS COLOUR ASSOCIATIONS' is shared universally. If we delineate the conceptual metaphor further by identifying the type of emotion as in 'FEAR' and diversifying the SD, the 'OBJECT OF COLOUR', we learn more about the communicative function of conceptual metaphors because we can see how a character, plot, author strategy, cultural association, contextual association, etc. unfold based on the degree of intensity and saliency in the metaphor.

In this study, the ST is Shakespeare's *Macbeth* (2005) and the TTs are Jabra's translation of *Macbeth* (2000) and Badawi's translation of *Macbeth* (2001). The selected TD for the creative metaphors is the emotion of 'FEAR' which appears to be associated with different variations of the SD 'WHITE COLOUR'. Shakespeare's 'colour for emotions' metaphors do not reveal an interest in the artistic value of a colour as much as they reveal the Bard's interest in the emotional response it may trigger in human beings (Spurgeon, 1935). Shakespeare allows us to experience the intensity of a character's emotional state by tracing the shifts in the colour of their face or cheeks.

What distinguishes the Bard's sense of colour is how colours can be contrasted with each other as in "black and white, and red and white" (Spurgeon, 1935, p. 63) to indicate different emotions and how the value of a colour evolves with the context in which it is used in a way it becomes "connected with a dominant emotion or theme, and so runs throughout a play" (p. 64). Shakespeare's language unveils deep interest in the contrast and shade of a colour than in the colour itself and employs these creative colour metaphors as a technique to express intense emotions. For instance, Shakespeare uses "the word associated with a colour instead of the colour itself... the sense of fear on the soldiers' faces in Mac., has been depicted, yet its usual colour is not mentioned but expressed" (Janiziz, 1997, p. 25). While the emotion of fear occurs 37 times in *Macbeth*, the colour 'white' which appears in close association with this prevalent emotion occurs only one time.

#### IV. RESULTS

This section provides the results of data collection in the ST and TTs. Having identified the targeted metaphoric pattern in accordance with the framework of the revised CMT, the relevant conceptual metaphors were extracted and analysed taking into consideration the different levels of contextual cues provided in the ST. To illustrate, the conceptual metaphors which underlie the creative uses of the kernel metaphoric pattern (colour for fear) were identified and collected either by looking for direct or indirect references to the TD (FEAR) or the SD (COLOUR/OBJECTS OF COLOUR). Then, the collected metaphoric expressions were deconstructed accurately and contextually by their detailed conceptual patterns regardless of the level of universality in their associations. For example, the conceptual metaphoric analysis preserved the objects of the SD (milk, cream, yogurt, goose, ruby, etc.) instead of reverting these objects to one common universal feature (the colour white). The tables below provide the results of the tokens' conceptual metaphoric analysis in the ST, TT1 (Jabra's translation), TT2 (Badawi's Translation).

TABLE 1  
ST'S CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS

ST 'Colour for Fear' Metaphoric Expressions	Fear Conceptual Metaphors
Lady Macbeth Glamis thou art, and Cawdor, and shalt be What thou art promised. Yet do I fear thy nature: It is too full of the milk of human kindness To catch the nearest way (Act 1, Scene 5, 13-16)	LACKING COURAGE IS BEING TOO FULL OF THE MILK OF HUMAN KINDNESS THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS HUMAN KINDNESS HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) HUMAN KINDNESS HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (LIQUID)
Lady Macbeth My hands are of your colour, but I shame To wear a heart so white (Act 2 Scene 2, 61-63)	BEING AFRAID IS WEARING A VERY WHITE HEART THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS A DRESS WHICH COVERS THE BODY THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS WHITE COLOURED
Macbeth You make me strange Even to the disposition that I owe, When now I think you can behold such sights, And keep the natural ruby of your cheeks, When mine is blanched with fear (Act 3, Scene 4, 115-119)	FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS LOSING COLOUR FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS THE RESULT OF BEING SUBJECT TO A CHEMICAL PROCESS (HEAT)
Macbeth The devil damn thee black, thou cream-faced loon! Where got'st thou that goose look? (Act 5, Scene 3, 11-13)	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF CREAM (YELLOWISH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF CREAM (SOFT) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE COLOUR OF A GOOSE FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE LOOK OF A GOOSE
Macbeth Go prick thy face, and over red thy fear, Thou lily-livered boy. What soldiers, patch? Death of thy soul, those linen cheeks of thine Are counselors to fear. What soldiers, whey face? (Act 5, scene 3, 14-19)	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE COLOUR OF A LILY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE TEXTURE OF A LILY (WEAK) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE COLOUR OF LINEN (OFF-WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE TEXTURE OF

	LINEN (ROUGH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF WHEY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF WHEY (WATERY AND WOBBLY)
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TABLE 2  
TT1 CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS (JABRA'S TRANSLATION)

TT1 (Jabra's Translation)	Back Translation	Conceptual Metaphors
ليدي مكيت: أمير غلامس أنت، وكودر، ولسوف تكون ما وعدت به. ولكنني أخشى طبعك: إنه أملأ مما ينبغي بحليب الإنسانية فلا يتشبث بأدنى الطرق (جبرا، 681)	But I am afraid of your nature; It is too full of the milk of humanity to cling to the closest way	LACKING COURAGE IS BEING TOO FULL OF THE MILK OF HUMAN KINDNESS THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS HUMANITY HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) HUMANITY HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (LIQUID)
ليدي مكيت يداي بلونك، غير أنني أخجل من أن أحمل قلباً كالحا مثلك (ص. 701)	My hands are of your colour, but I shame to carry a heart with a faded colour like your heart	BEING AFRAID IS CARRYING A HEART WITH A FADED COLOUR THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS AN OBJECT WHICH CAN BE CARRIED THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON HAS A FADED COLOUR
مكيت "إنك تجعليني اندهش حتى لطبيعي أنا، عندما أبصر الآن أن بوسعك رؤية مشاهد كهذه، وتحفظين بياقوت خديك الطبيعي، بينما يبيضن ياقوت خدي فزعاً" (ص. 733)	You make me surprised at my nature, When I see now that you can look at such scenes and still keep the natural ruby of your cheeks, while the rubies of my cheeks become whitened with fear	THE CHEEKS OF A FEARING PERSON ARE WHITE RUBY FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS ACQUIRING A WHITE COLOUR
مكيت سخطك الشيطان عبداً أسود، يا غداً حليبي الوجه! من أين لك سحنة الإوزة هذه؟ هناك عشرة آلاف إوزة، يا نذل؟ (ص. 775-776)	May the devil metamorphose you into a black slave, you milk-faced villain! whence do you get this goose-look of yours?	THE OBJECT OF FEAR IS A BLACK SLAVE THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF MILK THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF MILK (LIQUID) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE COLOUR OF A GOOSE FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE LOOK OF A GOOSE
مكيت إذهب، وخز وجهك، وموه خوفك بالأحمر يا ولداً زنيقي الكبد (الكبد الزنيقية البيضاء من إشارات الجبن) أي جنود، يا مهرج؟ موتاً لورحك! خذاك بلون الخام يلقتان الفزع، أي جنود يا وجهاً من لين؟ (776)	Go, prick your face and hide your fear with the red colour You, lily-livered lad (a lily liver is metonymy for cowardice) What soldiers, you clown? Death to your soul! Your cheeks have the colour of raw cloth They teach fear What soldiers, yogurt face!	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE COLOUR OF A LILY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE TEXTURE OF A LILY (WEAK) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE COLOUR OF RAW CLOTH (OFF- WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE TEXTURE OF RAW CLOTH (ROUGH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF YOGURT (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF YOGURT (THICK)

TABLE 3  
TT2 CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS (BADAWI'S TRANSLATION)

TT2 (Badawi's Translation)	Back Translation	Conceptual Metaphors
ليدي مكيت أنت أمير جلامس وأمير كودر وستكون ما وعدتك به، غير أنني أخشى طبعك فهو يفيض بلبن الشفقة مما يردك عن طلب غايتك من أقصر الطرق (ص. 75)	Yet, I am afraid of your nature which overflows with the milk of compassion, and this prevents you from reaching your aim through the shortest road	LACKING COURAGE IS OVERFLOWING WITH THE MILK OF COMPASSION THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS COMPASSION HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) COMPASSION HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (LIQUID)
ليدي مكيت يداي بلون يديك، لكنني أخجل من أن يكون لي قلب بلون قلبك الجبان (ص. 95)	My hands are of the colour of your hands, but I shame to have a heart with the colour of your coward heart	BEING AFRAID IS HAVING A COWARD HEART THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON HAS AN UNIDENTIFIED COLOUR THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS A COWARD (PERSONIFICATION)
مكيت	You make me doubt myself and my	THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON

<p>إنك تجعليني أشك في نفسي وفي شجاعتني حين أراك تتظنن هذه المناظر وتحفظين بلون وجنتيك الوردي على حين أنني أمتنع من الخوف (p. 128)</p>	<p>courage when I see you look at these scenes and still keep the rosy colour of your cheeks, whilst I lose colour because of fear</p>	<p>HAVE THE COLOUR OF ROSES THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON HAVE THE TEXTURE OF ROSES (SOFT) FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS CHANGING COLOUR</p>
<p>مكبث سؤد الشيطان وجهك أيها الوغد. كيف ابيضن وجهك من الخوف فصار بلون الازر المذعور هناك عشرة آلاف... من الازر أيها الوضع؟ (p. 169)</p>	<p>May the devil blacken your face, you villain! Your face has whitened out of fear and acquired the colour of scared geese</p>	<p>THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A WHITENED FACE THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF SCARED GEESE</p>
<p>مكبث اذهب وشك وجهك ليصعد فيه الدم فيغطي على خوفك أيها الولد الجبان. أي جنود يا أبله؟ هلكت روحك، إن منظر خديك الشاحبين ليعت الخوف في نفوس الناس. أي جنود يا شاحب الوجه؟ (p. 169-170)</p>	<p>Go and prick your face so that blood may run in it and cover up your fear, you coward boy! What soldiers, idiot? May your soul perish! The look of your pale cheeks trigger fear in the hearts of people What soldiers, pale face?</p>	<p>FEELING FEAR IS HAVING PALE CHEEKS (YELLOWISH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A PALE FACE (YELLOWISH)</p>

TABLE 4  
ST, TT1, TT2 CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS

ST Conceptual Metaphors	TT1 Conceptual Metaphors Jabra's Translation	TT2 Conceptual Metaphors Badawi's Translation
LACKING COURAGE IS BEING TOO FULL OF THE MILK OF HUMAN KINDNESS THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS HUMAN KINDNESS HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) HUMAN KINDNESS HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (SMOOTH LIQUID)	LACKING COURAGE IS BEING TOO FULL OF THE MILK OF HUMANITY THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS HUMANITY HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) HUMANITY HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (SMOOTH LIQUID)	LACKING COURAGE IS OVERFLOWING WITH THE MILK OF COMPASSION THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS COMPASSION HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) COMPASSION HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (SMOOTH LIQUID)
BEING AFRAID IS WEARING A VERY WHITE HEART THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS A DRESS WHICH COVERS THE BODY THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS WHITE COLOURED	BEING AFRAID IS CARRYING A HEART WITH A FADED COLOUR THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS AN OBJECT WHICH CAN BE CARRIED THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON HAS A FADED COLOUR	BEING AFRAID IS HAVING A COWARD HEART THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON HAS AN UNIDENTIFIED COLOUR THE HEART OF A FEARING PERSON IS A COWARD (NO COLOUR IDENTIFIED)
THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON ARE RUBIES (SOLID, PRECIOUS, RED OBJECTS) THE CHEEKS OF A FEARING PERSON ARE BLANCHED RUBIES (PRECIOUS STONE THAT LOST ITS COLOUR AND VALUE UNDER THE PRESSURE OF A CHEMICAL PROCESS SUCH AS HEAT) FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS LOSING COLOUR AS A RESULT OF A CHEMICAL PROCESS FEAR IS A CHEMICAL PROCESS (THERMAL)	THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON ARE PRECIOUS STONES (SOLID, PRECIOUS, RED OBJECTS) THE CHEEKS OF A FEARING PERSON ARE WHITE RUBIES (PRECIOUS STONE THAT CHANGED COLOUR FROM RED TO WHITE) FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS ACQUIRING A WHITE COLOUR	THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON HAVE THE COLOUR OF ROSES (RED) THE CHEEKS OF A BRAVE PERSON HAVE THE TEXTURE OF ROSES (SOFT) FEELING INTENSE FEAR IS CHANGING COLOUR
FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF CREAM (PALE YELLOWISH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF CREAM (THICK AND UNFIXED TEXTURE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE COLOUR OF A GOOSE FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE LOOK OF A GOOSE	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE) THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF MILK THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF MILK (SMOOTH LIQUID) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE COLOUR OF A GOOSE FEELING FEAR IS HAVING THE LOOK OF A GOOSE	THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A WHITENED FACE THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF SCARED GEESE
FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE COLOUR OF A LILY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE TEXTURE OF A LILY (WEAK) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE COLOUR OF LINEN (OFF- WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE TEXTURE OF LINEN	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE COLOUR OF A LILY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A LIVER WITH THE TEXTURE OF A LILY (WEAK) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE COLOUR OF UNPROCESSED CLOTH (OFF-WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING CHEEKS WITH THE TEXTURE OF	FEELING FEAR IS HAVING PALE CHEEKS (YELLOWISH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A PALE FACE (YELLOWISH)

(ROUGH) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF WHEY (YELLOW WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF WHEY (WATERY AND WOBBLY)	UNPROCESSED CLOTH FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF YOGURT (WHITE) FEELING FEAR IS HAVING A FACE WITH THE TEXTURE OF YOGURT (THICK AND IRREGULAR)	
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## V. DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

The conceptual analysis of the metaphor 'HUMAN EMOTION (FEAR) HAS COLOUR ATTRIBUTES' in the ST shows that the collected tokens displayed variation and gradation in the intensity of the TD, 'FEAR', as reflected in the variation of the shades of the colour 'WHITE' and the non-colour associations of the objects of 'WHITE'. This gradation and variation form a combined mechanism used by the Bard to generate original metaphors out of universal metaphoric patterns. The analysis of the ST's tokens also reveals that there is salient novelty in the associations created between the SDs and TD. The variation in the conceptual metaphors' SDs and the novelty of the cross-domain associations do not appear clearly if we deconstruct the collected metaphoric expressions back into their universal conceptual pattern, as explained in the research methods earlier, which is why the analysis adopted the methods of the revised conceptual metaphor theory.

To clarify, the universal conceptual metaphor 'HUMAN EMOTION HAS COLOUR ATTRIBUTES' occurs in Shakespeare's *Macbeth* as 'FEAR HAS COLOUR ATTRIBUTES/WHITE'. The analysis shows that 'FEAR' is not only associated with the colour 'white' but also with different degrees of 'white' like 'plain white' (when the author used direct reference to 'white'), 'colourless white' (blanched), lily-white (yellowed), and others. Also, the emotion of 'fear' appears in connection with different objects of the colour 'white'. The variation in the objects of 'white' reflects another aspect of the cross-domain metaphoric association. For instance, associating the emotion of 'fear' with the object of 'milk' triggers different levels of sensory metaphoric associations in the reader's mind as 'milk' is 'white', 'smooth', 'sweet', and others. Whereas associating 'fear' with the object 'whey' captures a new set of sensory associations such as 'greenish yellow', 'loose', 'sour', and others.

The diversification in the SDs of the conceptual metaphoric mappings gives rise to the novelty, audacity, as well as aptness in Shakespeare's metaphoric language as it makes the reader develop different sensory experiences which highlight distinct aspects of theme and characterization. To explain, the variation in the SDs is functional to the development in the theme of the play, and it unveils profound attributes in the main character. Macbeth's emotion of fear intensifies as the events in the play progress towards the climax, to the degree he starts seeing only the shades and the objects of 'white' wherever he looks. Macbeth's uses of metaphoric expressions may strike the readers/audience as exaggerated and unreasonable ways of expressing the emotion of fear, signaling that he is approaching a state of uncontrolled madness similar to that experienced by other Shakespearean characters like Hamlet and King Lear. Yet, his utterances are so artistic in their micro-metaphoric associations that capture infinitesimal details of his sensory experiences. The soldier's liver is lily-white because it is too soft and easy to be crushed, whereas his cheeks are linen-white not only for being colourless out of fear but also for being rough and lifeless.

The conceptual analysis of the metaphoric expressions in the TTs yields interesting results regarding the translation of Shakespeare's creative metaphors into Arabic. An examination of the conceptual metaphors of TT2 (Badawi's translation) shows that the main tendency adopted by the translator was to avoid transferring the saliency in the ST's metaphoric patterns. It was obvious from the analysis that Badawi tried his best to distance his translation from the audacious originality of Shakespeare's metaphors and for this purpose the translator adopted a number of strategies. First, the translator preserved the ST's metaphoric mappings that showed a high level of universality in their associations. Examples of these include the following:

LACKING COURAGE IS OVERFLOWING WITH THE MILK OF COMPASSION  
THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS  
COMPASSION HAS THE COLOUR OF MILK (WHITE)  
COMPASSION HAS THE TEXTURE OF MILK (SMOOTH LIQUID)  
THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS THE LOOK OF A GOOSE (WHITE, COWARD, FUNNY, ETC.)

Second, Badawi, changed the metaphoric association between the TD 'fear' and the generic SD 'white' by replacing it with a similar SD such as 'colourless' or 'pale', which is very common in Arabic, and this shows that the translator had a tendency to naturalize the metaphoric associations of utterances for a stronger bond with the readers/audience of the TT, as he proclaimed in the introduction to his translation. Third, the translator demetaphorized the content of original conceptual metaphors by attempting to drop the SDs and turn these metaphors to sense. For instance, the translator deleted the SDs of crème, lily, whey, etc. and described the emotion of 'fear' directly by using utterances such as 'having a coward heart'. It is also clear from the analysis that although the TT2 translator had visible preference for avoiding the novelty of the ST's metaphors, he occasionally preserved this originality whenever the co-text provided for a perceptible contrast like red/white, black/white, as shown in the following example:

THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A WHITENED FACE

### THE OBJECT OF FEAR HAS A FACE WITH THE COLOUR OF SCARED GEESE

It is obvious from TT2 analysis that Badawi's translation approach of explicating the familiar and downplaying the unfamiliar was motivated by a skopos in mind which can be summarized as a wish on part of the translator to avoid enforcing foreign lexical and conceptual structures on the audience, as mentioned in his introduction to the TT. Badawi stated that he retranslated the play into Arabic as a script to be presented by actors on the stage and his aim was to preserve and at the same time simplify the content for the sake of the audience.

If we compare the conceptual metaphoric analysis of TT1 with that of TT2, we notice that there are both commonalities and differences in the translators' approaches to processing the creative metaphors of 'white for fear'. Jabra's translation also preserved the conceptual metaphors which have obvious universal associations and those which Shakespeare contextualized well by establishing a contrast between two colours. On the other hand, Jabra showed more keenness than Badawi on preserving the originality of the ST metaphors even when it contrasted with the naturalness of the Arabic translation, which implies that his translation was closer to foreignization in its attempt to simulate the metaphoric content of the ST. Nonetheless, a close examination of the results provides more profound findings on the limitations that encountered the translator in his foreignization approach. There were examples which show that the TT1 translator occasionally avoided or mitigated the saliency of the 'white for fear' conceptual metaphor by neutralizing the sense of colour or replacing the SDs of some metaphoric expressions with similar SDs.

Jabra's translation rendered Shakespeare's conceptual metaphor 'BEING AFRAID IS WEARING A VERY WHITE HEART' as 'BEING AFRAID IS CARRYING A HEART WITH A FADED COLOUR'. In this example, the translator avoided the striking association between 'WEARING A WHITE HEART' and 'BEING THE CRIMINAL THAT MACBETH EMBODIES'. The hegemony of the universal metaphors 'WHITE-HEARTED FOR INNOCENT' and 'WHITE-HEARTED FOR LEGITIMATE ROYALTY' has enforced invisible restrictions on the translator's wish to translate Shakespeare's metaphors accurately. The thematic progress of the play unfolds the criminal attributes of Macbeth and Lady Macbeth. But also, the dramatic situation reveals the unnaturalness of the discourse used by both characters. Lady Macbeth's pronouncement that "my hands are of your colour, but I shame to wear a heart so white" (Act 2 Scene 2, 61-63) does not only disclose the unnaturalness of her bloody discourse, it also implies strong irony of Macbeth's lack of courage, as it contradicts the ubiquitous assumptions of the prevalent conceptual metaphor 'BEING AN INNOCENT PERSON IS WEARING A WHITE HEART'. In other words, the boldness of Shakespeare's creative metaphors is not without context or occasion, if we take into consideration the author's skopos as a whole.

As for Jabra's attempts to replace the SDs of the metaphoric associations with similar ones, the interpretation for this tendency is that the translator did so in an attempt to mitigate the conceptual saliency in the created conceptual metaphors, and there are numerous examples which testify to this approach. For instance, while Jabra preserved SDs that are commonly used in association with colour metaphors including 'ruby, milk, lily, and others', he changed the SDs that are not very commonly used in colour metaphors such as 'crème, whey, and linen'. These SDs were replaced with already existing ones like when the translator used 'milk', instead of 'crème', or 'raw cloth', instead of 'linen'. The other interpretation of the translator's approach to replace the conceptual metaphors' SDs is the existence of lexical restrictions in the TL. While Arabic allows for deriving an adjective from some SDs like 'lily' and 'milk', it has restrictions on deriving adjectives from SDs such as 'crème' and 'whey'. Interestingly, the shift in the SDs was not very observable but it confines the intensity and continuity of Macbeth's criminal discourse and ironic attitude.

### VI. CONCLUSION

This paper researched the translation of one sample of Shakespeare's creative metaphors in two acknowledged Arabic translations. The paper explored the translation of the universal conceptual metaphor 'HUMAN EMOTION HAS COLOUR ASSOCIATIONS' with particular focus on the conceptual metaphor 'FEAR HAS WHITE-COLOUR ASSOCIATIONS' in *Macbeth*. The selected research methods for data identification, collection and analysis were informed by the improved version of CMT. The results highlighted the inadequacy of the earlier assumptions of CMT and the significance of the revised CMT in analysing the translation of creative metaphors in Shakespeare as the latter accounts for the author's uses of creative metaphors and the translators' decisions in rendering these metaphors in an academic translation. This finding is consistent with the latest research on the topic (Kövecses, 2015, 2020a, 2020b; Omar, 2012).

The conceptual metaphoric analysis of the ST's content reconfirmed the findings of earlier research on the originality and discursive nature of Shakespeare's metaphoric language (Clemen, 1977; McDonald, 2001; Omar, 2012; Rhodes, 2004; Spurgeon, 1935). Although Shakespeare's metaphors are anchored in universal conceptual patterns embedded in our daily physical experiences, the author employs an artistic mechanism which reveals their originality, conceptual uniqueness and perpetuation. Shakespeare's technique of extending already existing metaphoric associations by diversifying the SDs attributed to a fixed TD enabled him to generate creative metaphors that continue to live despite their omnipresent saliency. This finding highlights the significance of the revised CMT in analysing creative metaphors not only in Shakespeare's texts but also in other authoritative texts and the value of relating the uses of metaphors to the discourse functions of their texts and contexts.

This study paves the way for a reconsideration of the academic research on the translation of Shakespeare into Arabic by testing the already-accomplished acknowledged translations vis-à-vis the methods of the revised CMT. The findings



revealed that regardless of the translator's adherence to the ST's content, the main tendency of the translators is to avoid the strong saliency of creative metaphors, even if this saliency does not have cultural or ideological implications. This implies that Shakespeare's creative metaphors resist translation into Arabic if they trigger some sort of conceptual or lexical associations in the minds of the translators. The translation strategies adopted by the translators both of whom are professional translators, academics and researchers in TS were not influenced by the cultural background/content of context or the style of the text in as much as they were influenced by metaphor saliency and its potential impact on the recipients. One of the limitations of translating creative metaphors is the novelty of their conceptual associations or lexical compound structure which cannot be matched in the target language.

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# Online Teaching and Learning During Covid-19 Pandemic: Challenges Faced by English Teachers in Islamic Tertiary Institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia

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**Abstract**—The Covid-19 pandemic has affected the education sectors globally. The sudden shift from traditional face to face learning to online teaching and learning brings various challenges to English teachers, particularly in tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia. Hence, the aim of this study is to examine the online teaching and learning challenges faced by teachers teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and teachers teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Indonesia during the Covid-19 pandemic. The qualitative research design used in this study was a case study using focus group interviews (FGI), individual open-ended responses via Google Form and a discussion thread via Whatsapp. Purposive sampling was used, and 10 English teachers from Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia were chosen as the participants in this study. The data in this study was analysed through NVIVO applications and categorized according to themes. The findings revealed that among the challenges English teachers faced in ESL/EFL online teaching and learning are a lack of technological skills to teach online, constraints in terms of internet accessibility and devices used for teaching and learning, and effective interaction in online teaching and learning. The findings from this study could potentially be utilised to plan strategies and produce practical solutions to overcome the challenges in conducting online teaching and learning among English teachers in any tertiary learning institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia in the future.

**Index Terms**—challenges, online teaching and learning, English as Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Covid-19 Pandemic, English teachers

## I. INTRODUCTION

The norms of teaching and learning have changed abruptly due to the emergence of Covid-19 worldwide. Numerous learning institutions around the world have witnessed an extraordinary shift away from face-to-face learning toward various types of online and remote learning in the aftermath of the COVID-19 outbreak and subsequent lockdowns (Peimani & Kamalipour, 2021). As a result, online teaching and learning emerged as the most appropriate and suitable solution to the current situation. This includes the process of teaching and learning English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to students at the tertiary level. This section will briefly introduce ESL in Malaysia and EFL in Indonesia, online teaching and learning, and challenges in ESL online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. Although there are many previous studies on online learning due to the impact of Covid-19, there are still a limited number of studies carried out in the context of ESL/EFL on challenges in online learning among English teachers teaching in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia. Thus, this study aimed to elicit the challenges that the English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia encountered in online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### *A. English as a Second Language (ESL) in Malaysia and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Indonesia*

The English language is unquestionably a global language. In Malaysia, it is considered a second language and a mandatory subject in educational institutions (Thirusanku & Yunus, 2014). The importance of English is demonstrated by the requirement to acquire a pass, particularly in The Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM), in order to qualify for the certificate of graduation for secondary school as stated in the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2016 (Ganapathy, 2016). Throughout at least 11 years of schooling (Kindergarten until tertiary institutions), English is taught to the pupils so that they would be able to communicate effectively in the target language once they have completed formal education at the secondary level (Ying et al., 2018).

In Indonesia, English is an important subject in schools (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). Despite the fact that the country was not ruled by the British, English has been ingrained in the country's institutions. According to Gustine (2018), English is also being more widely utilised as a medium of teaching in schools and colleges, particularly in areas such as management, information technology, and the humanities. English is also extensively taught as a foreign language to students planning to pursue higher education in an English-speaking country.

The English language has become more important in universities (Yen & Maslawati, 2020). It is not necessary for the ESL learners to speak like native speakers, but they need to comprehend the language and be able to communicate using the language in the real world, particularly in their careers (Ling, 2020). According to the Malaysian Times (2012), one of the reasons English is critical is that businesses require their staff to have a strong command of English. It has been established that the majority of multinational organizations in Malaysia need employees who are proficient in English as they require worldwide communication. The most common medium of teaching and learning English in most learning institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia is face-to-face physical learning. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, English teachers had to shift their teaching and learning to online.

### *B. Online Teaching and Learning*

The way individuals interact and organise their everyday lives has transformed due to technological advancements. Apart from connecting individuals and marketing company products, technology has been utilised to aid in the teaching and learning process (Maslawati et al., 2018). According to Martin et al. (2020), online teaching and learning is an instruction platform employed by teachers. Online teaching and learning can be delivered in real-time, also known as synchronous or at any time and from any location known as asynchronous.

Ahmad et al. (2019) assert that integrating technology into ESL classes benefits tertiary students' academic performance. Online teaching and learning are undoubtedly advantageous in increasing the effectiveness and learning engagement of ESL learners' (Ling, 2020). In their study, Lakshmi and Suresh (2020) have proven the impact of information and communication technology (ICT) on education in terms of increasing engagement, interactivity, relevance, and motivation in teaching and learning. Maslawati et al. (2018) state that by engaging in online learning, learners would be exposed to a productive language environment in which they may engage and study with other users. Investigations on the potential for technology to assist ESL students in developing writing abilities reveal that technologies such as Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), e-learning, and mobile learning have 'endless possibilities' (Hashim et al., 2016). Based on various studies, it is evident that online teaching and learning bring many benefits to teachers and students. However, it is only convenient for teachers and students if they are ready. In this study, it is evident that due to sudden changes in the medium of teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic, English teachers in Malaysia and Indonesia face challenges in conducting online teaching and learning.

### *C. Challenges in ESL Online Teaching and Learning during Covid-19 Pandemic*

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was first discovered in December 2019 in China. Within a few months, it spread worldwide and was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization on 11th March 2020 (Chakraborty et al., 2021). As a result, universities worldwide were forced to shut down their campuses in the spring of 2020 and had to deliver all academic programs via online platforms (Bao, 2020). Similarly, in Malaysia, all tertiary institutions including Islamic tertiary institutions had to comply with the Movement Control Order (MCO) by the Malaysian government. As such, the International Islamic University of Malaysia (IIUM), one of the Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia that fully uses English as a medium of instruction and communication, also has to shift its ESL teaching and learning into full online mode. This change caused lecturers and students to face challenges in their teaching and learning process, especially for teachers who are not well versed in technology.

According to research conducted by Batubara (2021) in Indonesia, online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic could not be carried out smoothly due to the lack of readiness of many stakeholders - teachers, students, and parents. Heng and Sol (2020) added that technology is the most significant barrier to online teaching and learning for those who are not technologically proficient. This is due to their lack of experience and training. In addition, Mahmood et al. (2021) mentions that teachers' readiness in using ICT and lack of facilities such as stable internet connection, learning platforms and gadgets are among the challenges in online teaching and learning. The majority of senior teachers struggled to accept this new norm and the changes demand them to integrate ICT into their pedagogical instruction. This is supported by a study by Rani et al. (2014), they stated that technology could not be integrated into teaching and learning without internet access.

Meanwhile, Yusuf and Jihan (2020) in their study in a public university in Perlis mentioned that interaction in teaching and learning is a significant drawback in online teaching and learning. In the same vein, Cole et al. (2014) reveal that the primary driver of students' unhappiness with online learning at a university is a lack of engagement and communication with their teachers and peers. Darby and Lang (2019) mention that teachers encounter difficulties when they shift from face-to-face teaching to online teaching and learning by digital platforms, mostly owing to a lack of technological competence and inefficiency in utilizing technology. Furthermore, according to Rutil and Gunasegaran (2020), for some teachers, online teaching and learning is new and require more time to adapt themselves to the new technology as they also face time constraints.

### III. METHODOLOGY

This section provides a discussion about the research design, population and sample of the study, research instruments, data collection procedure and in-depth data analysis. It enables readers to have a more comprehensive knowledge of how the study was carried out to answer the research question – What are the challenges faced by English teachers in Islamic Tertiary Institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia in online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic?

#### A. Research Design

This study employed a qualitative approach. The primary goal of qualitative research is to gain a better understanding of certain phenomena through the experiences of those who have directly experienced them, while also recognizing the value of participants' unique perspectives that can only be fully appreciated in the context of their experience and world view (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018). According to Quintao et al. (2020), an interactive model of data collection, analysis, and the utilisation of research instruments are used in a qualitative research approach, with the goal of capturing the subjective component of a social phenomenon. In this study, the phenomena refer to the challenges faced by the English teachers of Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia in online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. A multiple case study approach was adopted to allow a deeper insight into the challenges that the English teachers faced in online teaching and learning in Malaysia and Indonesia.

#### B. Participants of the Study

Purposive sampling was employed in this multiple case study. It is used because the researchers wanted to gain insights from the participants (English teachers) from which the most could be learned (Creswell, 2014). In purposive sampling, the selection of participants shows the direct reference to the research questions in which the research questions provide guidelines as to what the characteristics of the participants are (Patton, 2002). In this study, 10 participants that are among English teachers from one Islamic tertiary institution in Malaysia and another one in Indonesia were chosen. The group of participants was chosen because they fulfilled the characteristics that the researchers had determined and were in accordance with this study's research objectives. The selection criteria were; a) English teachers teaching in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia / Indonesia; b) conduct English courses via online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic; and c) willing to be interviewed via online video conferencing application and added to a related WhatsApp group.

#### C. Setting

This study was conducted in an Islamic tertiary institution in Malaysia and in Indonesia. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic which resulted in the Movement Control Order (MCO) by the government of Malaysia, the focus group interview (FGI) sessions were carried out online via video conferencing application. There were two FGI sessions conducted, each session with five participants. The focus group interviews were conducted using Google Meet. Apart from the focus group interview sessions, the researchers gathered additional information from the participants by having them respond to individual open-ended questions that were distributed via Google Form. In addition, the participants were also added to a WhatsApp group for a discussion thread.

#### D. Research Instruments

A research instrument is a tool for collecting, quantifying, and analyzing data pertaining to research interests. Interviews, examinations, surveys, or checklists are examples of research instruments. These instruments are frequently used in conducting studies in the areas of health sciences, social sciences, and education to evaluate patients, clients, students, teachers, and employees (Olsson et al., 2020). Based on the research question, the researchers designed interview questions for the focus group interview sessions and selected documents to review. Thus, to answer the research question and achieve the study's objectives, the researchers employed three research instruments in collecting data for this study. They are focus group interview questions, individual open-ended questions via Google Form and discussion threads via WhatsApp group.

#### E. Data Collection

Data collection is the act of acquiring data in a systematic manner that enables the researchers to address the research question. In this study, the data was collected through focus group interview (FGI) sessions via Google Meet, individual open-ended responses (OER) via Google Form and a discussion thread via WhatsApp group.

(a). *Focus Group Interview Sessions via Google Meet*

A semi-structured focus group interview was conducted to identify the challenges faced by English teachers in online teaching and learning in this study. Due to the Movement Control Order implemented by the government, the researchers were not able to travel and conduct face-to-face interview sessions. Instead, the participants were then interviewed via an online video conferencing platform- Google Meet. Two focus group interview sessions ranging from 90 to 120 minutes were recorded, and in each session, five English teachers from the particular Islamic tertiary institution in Malaysia and five English teachers from Indonesia were interviewed. The details of the interview sessions are as stated in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SESSION DETAILS

Sessions	Date	Time	Number of Participants
1	4/2/2021	11am -1 pm	5
2	4/2/2021	3 pm -5 pm	5

Meanwhile, Table 2 represents the different phases of data collection via the focus group interview sessions.

TABLE 2  
DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES DURING FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

Phase	Data Collection Procedure
1	Participants were added into a WhatsApp group, and the dates and times for the online semi-structured interview were set and confirmed according to their convenient times.
2	Participants were interviewed through the online video conferencing platforms (Google Meet)
3	The researchers transcribed the recording of the semi-structured interview, and the transcripts were given back to the respondents in order for them to verify any incongruities and to make sure that the researchers have transcribed their interview responses correctly. Verified transcriptions were then analysed.

(b). *Individual Open-Ended Response via Google Form*

Open-ended questions were also administered through Google Form. The open-ended questions were based on the research question. Participants were given the link to the Google Form in the WhatsApp group. They were asked to complete the Google Form within two weeks after the focus group interview sessions. In the Google Form, the participants had to fill in their names, and email addresses and answer all the open-ended questions. The researchers had all the responses stored in Google Drive storage.

(c). *Discussion Thread via Whatsapp*

The Whatsapp application was used as a channel of communication between the researchers and the participants. First, the participants' mobile phone numbers were gathered, and the researchers created a Whatsapp group. The researchers then added all the 10 participants to the group. They were asked to share any screenshots or pictures related to their experiences in teaching online during the pandemic. They were also allowed to share the screenshots or the pictures personally with the researchers if they were not comfortable sharing them in the Whatsapp group.

F. *Data Analysis*

The analysis of data is the most critical component of any investigation. Data analysis is the process of synthesizing gathered data. It is the process of interpreting data acquired by the use of analytical and logical thinking in order to identify patterns, correlations, or trends.

In this study, the recording from focus interview sessions was transcribed verbatim. The term "verbatim transcription" refers to the process through which the researcher converts each vocal sound in an audio recording to text. This occurs when an audio recording is transmitted in its entirety, including pauses, non-verbal remarks, and silence (Loubere, 2017). Additionally, the researchers gave a copy of the verbatim transcription to each participant for evaluation and verification. The participants were asked to rectify any mistakes or inconsistencies. Apart from adhering to study ethics, Hagens et al. (2009) state transcriptions were given to participants to confirm the content of their interview responses and to ensure they had not changed their minds or opinions.

A thematic analysis was conducted on the reviewed and validated transcriptions to ascertain common themes within the findings. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017), the technique of identifying themes or patterns within qualitative data is referred to as thematic analysis. Later in the study, the themes are employed to address the research questions and explain the phenomena presented. A strong thematic analysis explains and makes meaning of the data (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Given that this is a multiple case study, it is necessary to collect adequate data to ensure that key themes are explored.

## IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the findings of the research, which are presented in response to the research question which is about the challenges that the English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia encountered in online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. Several themes were derived after the code identification process. In order to answer the research question, data from the focus group interview (FGI) sessions and individual open-ended responses through Google Form (OER) were analysed. The participants were labelled according to numbers from 1 until 10. All ten participants were interviewed through two separate focus group interview sessions that were carried out via Google Meet and the individual open-ended responses were given to them to be completed a day after the interview sessions. Based on the participants' responses, the challenges can be further categorized into three categories; 1) Technological skills and knowledge, 2) Internet accessibility and devices and 3) Interaction in online teaching and learning

A. *Challenges in Terms of Technological Skills and Knowledge in ESL Online Teaching and Learning*

Based on the focus group interview sessions and the individual open-ended responses from the 10 participants, the researchers discovered that English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia faced challenges in terms of technological skills and knowledge in ESL/EFL online teaching and learning. This includes unfamiliarity with online learning platforms and the amount of time consumed in preparing teaching and learning materials.

(a). *Unfamiliar With Online Learning Platforms*

The participants mentioned that they are unfamiliar with online learning platforms such as Google Classroom and Google Meet. With the sudden implementation of online learning in most universities in Malaysia and Indonesia, most of them are not used to online teaching and are not technologically equipped to teach using these online learning platforms.

*"I'm not... I'm not a techno savvy. I'm not used to using you know ahh you know Google Classroom or Google Meet before umm but you know we've been..."* (P2, FGI)

*"technological... technology ahh negative part of this technology kind of thing because like the rest, I'm don't really know how to use Zoom whatsoever, I'm not technological savvy"* (P2, FGI)

*"...as for me it is actually a big challenge because in my case, I'm not used to online teaching."* (P3, FGI)

Most of these English teachers are facing this problem due to a lack of technological skills to conduct online teaching and learning. This is supported by Darby and Lang (2019) who mentioned that teachers encounter difficulties when they shift from face-to-face teaching to online teaching and learning by digital platforms, mostly owing to a lack of technological competence and inefficiency in utilizing technology.

(b). *The Amount of Time Consumed in Preparing Teaching and Learning Materials*

The participants also added that due to a lack of experience and technological skills, online teaching and learning become time consuming for them. They need more time to prepare learning materials for online teaching and learning.

*"...sometimes it takes a very long time to prepare for the lesson. So, ya ahh I got frustrated okay. I was frustrated with it okay."* (P5, FGI)

*"Some challenges could be that most of the time I have to do trial and error in using other applications for the suitability of the topics teach to the students"* (P8, OER)

Time management errors could adversely affect learners' academic achievement and raise teachers' stress levels. Some of the English teachers mentioned that they spent much time uploading teaching and learning materials into a learning platform namely Google Classroom. This happened because they lacked the technological skills, hence, they took a longer time to prepare and upload learning materials into the online learning platform. According to Rutil and Gunasegaran (2020), for some teachers online teaching and learning are new and they require more time to adapt to the new technology as they also face time constraints. This is supported by past studies that mentioned teacher readiness, efficacy and lack of technological skills and knowledge which resulted in challenges to teachers in conducting online teaching and learning (Batubara, 2021; Heng & Sol, 2020; Mahmood et al., 2021).

B. *Challenges in Terms of Internet, Facilities and Devices Accessibility*

Another major challenge faced by English teachers and students in ESL online teaching and learning is in terms of Internet accessibility, facilities and devices accessibility. According to them, some students lack the necessary devices and internet connection to join online teaching and learning. Moreover, facilities and online learning systems were also not up to date.

(a). *Poor Internet Connection*

A problem with infrastructures, such as a reliable internet connection and gadgets, is a challenge for English teachers in ESL online teaching and learning. Good internet connectivity is required for online teaching and learning. Thus, without a good internet connection, online teaching and learning are exposed to interruption (Abd Aziz et al., 2020). In

this study, most of the participants mentioned that poor internet connection or access is the major problem in conducting a successful ESL online teaching-learning.

*"...internet connection, whether it is stable or it is **poor or no internet** at all. Then, if we are... we don't access to internet, we cannot conduct anything, we can't even communicate with the students ye. (P6, OER)*

*"... and with our **limited internet connection**. So, you know imagine the time you know just to upload or download certain things like umm okay, alright." (P8, FGI)*

*"...So, that was number one problem because **the internet data was slow** alright and umm, we are... I had to share okay with many people in my house umm" (P1, FGI)*

The problems such as poor internet coverage, limited internet data and slow internet speed are among the problems mentioned that hampered the process of ESL online teaching and learning. Inadequate infrastructure, such as a reliable internet connection, impacts the low adoption rate of new technologies in online teaching and learning (Ahmad et al., 2019). This is supported by Maslawati et al. (2021) that mention that in teaching and learning, some students face difficulties such as sharing internet quota among siblings and housemates as well as sharing devices for the learning session.

#### (b). Devices Problem Among Students

Other than Internet issues, the participants in this study mentioned the lack of devices among students. According to them, some of their students did not possess suitable learning devices such as laptops while some of them have suitable learning devices but not with full functionality such as microphones and cameras.

*"... you know, some of them have. So, the thing is I was surprised ye, ahh... we never thought of it actually that there are students who **don't have laptops**." (P3, FGI)*

*"Just...like, if I were not wrong, some of them were not able to talk. They **do not have the microphones** or like they say they could not turn on the mic" (P10, OER)*

*"...And, for some students, it's also the device; some are **using phones** and it's difficult for them to get a clear picture of the issues discussed." (P1, OER)*

*"I pity those you may have insufficient connectivity and have **no reliable gadgets**" (P2, OER)*

According to Dhawan (2020), students' learning is hampered by a lack of appropriate devices. Apparently, the lack of suitable learning devices imposes challenges for English teachers to ensure smooth and successful online teaching and learning.

#### (c). Challenges in Online Learning Portal

Participants in this study also mentioned that the online learning portals were not up to date. For example, university learning management platforms were not functioning well. This is a challenge for both teachers and students when both parties cannot access the learning management system. The number of users is too big therefore it took them a long time to access their university learning portal.

*"I think at one point it was like 800 students without crashing platform you know and umm our platform which...ahh the **university platform** was not umm I think was not big enough I think to handle.. (P4, FGI)*

*"some of them were **very slow** ahh... I waited like half an hour sometimes to access the **uni learning portal**..." (P7, OER)*

According to Adedoyin and Soykan (2020), many universities' online learning systems received a heavy workload due to sudden changes in the mode of teaching. With this problem, some students are not able to submit their online tasks and teachers could not access the students' assignments in the university's online learning portal. These findings concerning the challenges in online teaching and learning in terms of internet, facilities and devices are supported by previous studies which mentioned without proper internet and devices, online teaching and learning pose challenges to teachers and students (Heng & Sol, 2020; Mahmood et al., 2021; Rani et al., 2014).

### C. Challenges in Terms of Online Teaching and Learning Interaction.

Another challenge in online teaching and learning faced by the participants in this study is regarding teaching and learning interaction.

#### (a). Learning Interaction Among Students

The participants mentioned that the interaction among students was poor. Without effective interactions among students, certain types of learning activities are ineffective. According to the participants, the students could not complete certain group tasks in the ESL/EFL online teaching and learning due to insufficient interaction among group members. This is based on the excerpts below.

*"Especially when it comes to group work, some students complained that they **could not contact** their group members...." (P1, OER)*

*"...Lack or almost **no interaction**..." (P4, FGI)*

In addition, based on other open-ended responses from the participants, they mentioned that students were passive, lacked opportunities to give feedback during online teaching and learning; and were silent during online sessions. They were shy to ask questions in big groups and reluctant to respond to their teachers' questions, even some simple ones.



“Online class can be insufficient for **shy** and introvert students who are not proactive” (P3, OER)

“...students' **reluctance** to speak on screen and **lack of opportunities** to give immediate feedback orally” (P4, OER)

(b). *Learning Interaction Between Teacher and Students*

Other than learning interactions among students, the participants also mentioned the challenge in terms of teacher-student interaction in ESL/EFL online teaching and learning. Responses from the participants in FGI disclosed that it was difficult to get responses from the students during online teaching and learning as well as establishing eye contact.

“...See, during class hours ahh... I find... I found it difficult to get **responses** from student. Mainly because of ahh... connection I guess.” (P4, FGI)

“compared to a physical classroom, we can have **eye contact** but with this ahh... online kind of thing, difficult, I mean like we cannot see them okay” (P7, OER)

“If... if they switch on the camera we don't... we cannot establish **eye contact**. So, difficult okay.” (P5, FGI)

Based on these FGI and OER from the participants, these problems have caused substantial challenges to English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in order to conduct an effective ESL online teaching and learning. This is also supported by a past study (Yusuf & Jihan, 2020) that states learning interaction is one of the main challenges in online teaching and learning. The interaction between students and teacher-students is very important in online teaching and learning. Thus, without effective two-way interactions, it would affect the effectiveness of online teaching and learning.

## V. CONCLUSION

The main aim of the current study was to explore the challenges faced by English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia in conducting ESL/EFL online teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. This study has identified three major challenges faced by English teachers in Islamic tertiary institutions in ESL/EFL online teaching and learning which are challenges in terms of technological skills, internet accessibility, lack of devices and effective learning interaction. The findings of this study suggest that without appropriate strategies to overcome the challenges, these could adversely affect the effectiveness of ESL/EFL online teaching and learning.

A limitation of this study is that the result can only be generalized to English teachers teaching in institutions similar to Islamic tertiary institutions in Malaysia and Indonesia. English teachers from other types of learning institutions such as primary and secondary schools might encounter different and additional challenges, thus requiring different strategies and solutions. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study suggests that English teachers might have similar challenges in online teaching and learning regardless of the type of learning institutions, thus, strategies and actions implemented to overcome these challenges might be adjusted and put in place accordingly. Further research could be useful to further understand these challenges, identify measures for overcoming the challenges and produce proper guidelines.

The findings of this study have a number of practical implications. First, it is essential for teachers to have a support system or continuous training to improve their technological knowledge. Thus, it is vital for the administration of learning institutions and the Ministry of Education to implement a policy or system that ensures the existence of this support system and training in every learning institution. Secondly, higher learning institutions in Malaysia must provide ample facilities on their campus in order for students to access online learning. Proper and continuous training and coaching of technological and pedagogical skills for English teachers are essential. The findings reported here shed new light on the Islamic tertiary institutions in particular in Malaysia and Indonesia to address the challenges in online teaching and learning.

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# The Significance of Art Ideology in Ekphrasis: Marianne Moore's "The Camperdown Elm"

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**Abstract**—This study examines the relationship between the genre of ekphrastic poetry and art ideology. It provides a theoretical argumentation on this innate association in continuation with James W. Heffernan's observations in the field. The study argues that ekphrasis is theoretically related to the practice of art criticism, which, in its turn, stands on art ideological grounds. Two hypotheses about the nature of the relationship that combines ekphrasis and art ideology are generated from this theoretical investigation. The first is that art ideology is a *sine qua non* to ekphrasis, and the second is that art ideology especially contributes to the thematic structure of ekphrasis. The validity of this proposition is tested through analyzing Marianne Moore's poem "The Camperdown Elm," in which Moore's own art ideology as explicated in her non-poetic works is utilized. As a result, this study aims to contribute to both the theoretical and analytical studies of ekphrasis genre.

**Indexed Terms**—ekphrasis, art-ideology, James W. Heffernan, Marianne Moore, "The Camperdown Elm"

"Though silent form! Dost tease us out of thought, as doth eternity"

John Keats, "Ode on a Grecian Urn"

## I. INTRODUCTION

The interaction of the sister arts – the visual and the verbal - has received a considerable attention since Horace's pre-eminent dictum "ut pictura poesis" (Louvel, 2011, p. 29; Zeitlin, 2013, p. 19): "as is painting, so is poetry" (Zeitlin, 2013, p. 19). This acknowledgement of the connection between the two arts justifies the age-old tradition of "the verbal representation of visual representation" (Heffernan, 1993, p. 03). 'Ekphrasis,' (ἐκφρασις), is the name given to this crossdisciplinary practice (Squire, 2015). The present paper sheds light on art ideology as one of the theoretical properties of ekphrasis, leaning in its theoretical framework on the work of James W. Heffernan: his definition of ekphrasis and analysis of ekphrastic poetry. It intends to eventually argue that art ideology is a consistent factor in ekphrasis.

*Ideology* is defined by the Oxford dictionary as "any wide-ranging system of beliefs, ways of thought, and categories that provide the foundation of programmes of political and social action: an ideology is a conceptual scheme with a practical application." The expression, *Art ideology*, is therefore used here to denote an individual's or a group's understanding of what art is and what it can do. It encompasses his/their artistic beliefs and principles that shape his/their aesthetic vision. Keohane (1976) adds that an ideology does not necessarily abide by one theoretical vision, it may be a hybrid selection from multiple theories. This paper argues that the ekphrast necessarily correlates the visual work of art with his art ideology.

Heffernan's (1993) definition of ekphrasis suggests the genre's innate association with art criticism, considered here as an ideological discipline. "[T]he verbal representation of visual representation" (p. 3) is an art form which is twice removed from reality: we have 'the real' object, the first level of its re-presentation in visual art which is once removed from this reality, and then the second level of its re-representation in poetry which is thereby twice removed from reality. The prefix "re-" indicates that new insights have been attributed to the object in hand in each time; it is not objectively presented. In the first level of imitation, that is the visual piece of art, the object in concern is the real-life element, whereas the insights attributed to it are the artist's artistic visions on how this object is transported through visual art. In the second level, that is, the ekphrasis poem, the poet reflects on the artistic re-representation of an object rather than the object itself. The artistic insights the poet provides are, therefore, targeted at both components of the art piece: the real-life object plus the artistic vision attributed to it by the visual artist. This is similar to the role attributed to art critics by Heffernan. An art critic, Heffernan (2015) says, is one who is concerned with three elements: the work of art, the artist, and the represented object. Sometimes, one of these elements might be eliminated (ibid). Ekphrasis could be, therefore, interpreted as a sort of *literary practice of art criticism*.

In his articles "Ekphrasis and Representation" (1991) and "Ekphrasis: Theory" (2015), Heffernan advocates the connection between ekphrasis and art criticism. He argues that the fields of art criticism and ekphrasis are very close to each other, and sometimes they intersect. Art criticism, he says, might be called ekphrasis' "purest form" (2015, p. 42),

that is to say it is the platform from which ekphrasis writing departs. The difference between the two disciplines remains, for Heffernan, a matter of language and style. A piece of art criticism is read for artistic knowledge per se, whereas a work of ekphrasis “demands to be read as a work of art in its own right,” in addition to the artistic knowledge it provides (2015, p. 43). Mitchell (1994) confirms that art history, which he uses almost interchangeably with art criticism, is the disciplinary version of ekphrasis. He considers art criticism as the verbal representation of visual representation, which is the way Heffernan defines ekphrasis.

Ultimately, we can consider the tasks of an ekphrast and an art critic to be one, it is the “liberat[ion of] the work [of art] from its own superficial appearance” through “*the context of thought* he creates for it” (Kuspit, 1977, p. 6; emphasis added). Since neither the art critic, nor the ekphrast are restricted to one line of thought, I came to label their artistic critical thought an art ideology, rather than theory, because of the term’s wide application scope<sup>1</sup>. Accordingly, art ideology is unescapably expressed in ekphrasis, and this is a fact imposed by the nature of the ekphrast’s task: a poet-art critic.

On a practical level, Heffernan (1993) disperse ekphrasis analyses continually suggest the presence of art ideologies in ekphrasis. In the second chapter of his *Museum of Words: The Poetics of Ekphrasis from Homer to Ashbery*, he examines a set of Ekphrastic metamorphoses of the Philomela myth from Ovid to Shakespeare from a feminist perspective, while alluding throughout the analysis to threads of art theories, such as realist principles and ut pictura poesis theory. In Ovid’s ekphrastic episode of Philomela’s rape, from his *Metamorphoses* (8 AD), he locates a sister arts theory, also called ut pictura poesis<sup>2</sup> meaning “as is painting, so is poetry” (Zeitlin, p. 19). He further argues that the text’s feminist theme is built on this art theory. Sister arts theory stands on the belief that pictures are not mute, but can speak just like words do. Ovid empowers the silenced Philomela, whose tongue is amputated, with the alternative means of visual weaving with which she reveals her rape story. In the words of Heffernan (1993), this “literally graphic tale - a tale told by a picture...Philomela’s power to speak...is woven into and hence bound up with the power of pictures to speak - to break through the silence in which they, like women, are traditionally bound” (p. 47-49). Significantly, Heffernan identifies the art ideology/theory carried in the text, and also specifies the role it plays in the narrative: the feminist narrative is basis on which ut pictura poesis art theory is built. Heffernan’s observations about art ideologies in ekphrasis are not always voiced out as in this case, sometimes they can be only tacitly sensed in his critique. Take for instance his critique of Chaucer’s “The Knight’s Tale” (14<sup>th</sup> c), he announces that Emyle’s standpoint from her arranged marriage is unclear in the text. But as he analyzes her prayers against the paintings in the temple, the setting of her prayers, he comes to see that she is actually forced into this marriage just like the paintings’ subjects who have been forcefully raped. This analysis implies a realistic art ideology which the critic has applied to the paintings, although he says nothing about it. The Realistic attitude is apparent in the parallelism he makes between real life and art, the commonality of the issue discussed - the status and significance of matrimony and maidenhood in society. Heffernan is one of the critics who often notice the existence of art ideologies in ekphrasis works and the role they play in it. Nevertheless, to this date, it seems no critic contends that art ideology is a sine qua non to ekphrasis genre.

This article aims to test the hypothesis generated from Heffernan’s definition and critique of ekphrasis: art ideologies are sine qua non of ekphrasis’ theoretical framework; and more precisely, they contribute in shaping ekphrasis’ themes and general narrative. This task is attempted through the analysis of “The Camperdown Elm” (1967), an ekphrastic poem by the American poet Marianne Moore (1887-1972), through the lenses of Moore’s art ideology extracted from her non-poetic work *The Complete Prose of Marianne Moore* (1986), in addition to Linda Leavell’s “When Marianne Moore Buys Pictures” (1993), “Prismatic Color: Marianne Moore and the Visual Arts” (1986), and Zhaoming Qian’s “Marianne Moore and The Tao of Painting” (2003). The five components of the ekphrastic work are examined here: the visual art work, the object represented within it, the artist, plus the poem and the poet. This aim is pursued through the following questions: does Moore practice art criticism in “The Camperdown Elm”? If yes, does this criticism express clear theoretical principles of art that can formulate an art ideology? What is this ideology? How does the art ideology affect the structure of the ekphrastic narrative and its thematic meaning?

Similar to Ovid’s and Chaucer’s ekphrasis, Moore’s ekphrasis has also received art-ideological readings by critics, but not this particular poem. Walsh (2010), Molesworth (1990), Hadas (1977), Martin (1986), and Erickson (1992) each discusses a principle of Moore’s art ideology in one of her ekphrasis. Although these critics provide illuminating readings of Moore’s ekphrasis, the analysis of art ideology in these works is a casual one, it is brief and discordant. Moreover, they do not recognize the presence of art ideology in all of Moore’s ekphrasis, only the ones which directly deal with the subject of art criticism like “The Pangolin”, “No Swan So Fine”, and “An Egyptian Pulled a Glass Bottle in the Shape of Fish”. This paper aims to centralize the issue of art ideology in Moore’s ekphrasis, and to examine it in an ekphrasis which is far from art themes, “The Camperdown Elm”.

Thorough art-ideological readings of Moore’s ekphrasis are given by Suzanne Juhasz, Linda Leavell, and Bonnie Costello. Juhasz, in *Naked and Fiery Forms: Modern American Poetry by Women, a New Tradition* (1976), explores more than one art principle in “An Egyptian Pulled a Glass Bottle in the Shape of Fish.” She discusses the earlier principle of art vs natural model and the principle of art-inner necessity relationship. The work of Charles Altieri on the

<sup>1</sup> In making the distinction between the three terms theory, ideology, and philosophy I have relied on Nannerl O. Keohane’s “Philosophy, Theory, Ideology: An Attempt at Clarification” (1976).

<sup>2</sup> See Rensselaer W. Lee “Ut Pictura Poesis: The Humanistic Theory of Painting” (1940).

same poem, “Doubt and Display: A Foundation for a Wittgensteinian Approach to Art” (2016), is also important in this regard. Although he detects no art principles in “An Egyptian”, he wittingly deciphers the poem’s description of the art piece and disambiguates the narrative of the sculpture’s creation process. Linda Leavell, in her dissertation “Prismatic Color: Marianne Moore and the Visual Arts” (1986) and essay “When Marianne Moore Buys Pictures” (1993), thoroughly explores the relationship between Moore’s personal attachment to visual arts and its impact on her poetry. In this study, Leavell does not make any distinction between Moore’s artistic and poetic ideology, like Moore herself does in her prose. Leavell studies a large ekphrastic selection from Moore’s work, and involves many art principles in her discussion, producing a complete art ideology. Last but not least, Bonnie Costello, in *Marianne Moore: Imaginary Possessions* (1981), explores Moore’s artistic mind and the character of the poet-art critic displayed in her poetry. Like Leavell, she covers a range of poems, mostly ekphrastic. Costello even notices the role played by art pieces and art themes in some of Moore’s poems. But, she by no means deals with ekphrasis genre per se, there is no mention of this genre even when she deals with ekphrastic poems. It is also remarkable how both critics, Costello and Leavell, could find traces of Moore’s art ideology in works which are not centered around art themes, a task pursued in the present study of “The Camperdown Elm”.

These studies, like Heffernan’s previous critique, are of great value for the present paper as their textual analyses support the paper’s main thesis on the relatedness of ekphrasis and art ideology. Nevertheless, despite their frequent observations of this relationship, none of these critics argues for it in Moore’s work and in ekphrasis on the whole, neither theoretically nor practically. Art ideology-ekphrasis relationship is a concern beyond their study scope, it has been merely included in these works to serve other research objectives. The present study intends to argue on this relationship theoretically and to demonstrate it through the art ideological analysis of Moore’s ekphrasis “The Camperdown Elm.” This latter case study is used as an illustration, although the same can be said about other ekphrasis.

## II. ART IDEOLOGY IN MOORE’S “THE CAMPERDOWN ELM”

From surveying the previous studies indicated above we can see that Moore endorses a nexus of interwoven art theories and traditions - including Primitivism, Arts and Crafts Movement, Chinese art, The Stieglitz’ Circle and the American avant-gardism - out of which she develops a unique ideology of art specific to her. The traces of this ideology are arguably found in all of her ekphrasis pieces: they are either deliberately involved as in “The Pangolin”, “No Swan So Fine”, and “An Egyptian Pulled a Glass Bottle in the Shape of Fish” or indeliberately as in “The Camperdown Elm”.

### A. “Kindred Spirits” Through Moore’s Eyes

A poet and an art critic with a refined artistic taste and vision, Moore chose to convey her environmental quest in “The Camperdown Elm” through both methods, poetry and art criticism, or simply through ekphrasis. “The Camperdown Elm” is composed of two stanzas, the first is a reflection on Asher B. Durand’s painting “Kindred Spirits” (Figure 1), whereas the second is a literary narrative about the elm tree at the Prospect Park.



Figure 1 Asher Brown Durand, *Kindred Spirits*. 1849, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. (A public domain image)

At first reading of “The Camperdown Elm”, and with a rudimentary knowledge of its subject - the painting, one senses a strong attraction to representational art on the part of Moore and Durand. Moore (1958) describes the pastoral setting of Durand’s painting with brevity. The figures are depicted in active conversation, apparently about the trees Bryant loves so much and to which he is pointing:

At the edge of a rockledge  
overlooking a stream:  
Thanatopsis-invoking tree-loving Bryant  
conversing with Timothy Cole  
in Asher Durand’s painting of them  
under the filigree of an elm overhead. (p. 243)

As the stanza ends, the speaker leaves us at a crossroad: whether we would like to be transferred to the painting itself outside the text to get a more profound portrayal of the scene with its impressive “elm tree” (Davis, 2020, p. 17), or else to continue with Moore’s own narrative of another elm tree in the next stanza. In this latter, Moore describes the possible effect of the Prospect Park’s elm tree on its viewers from Durand’s painting – Cole and Bryant – if they would ever come to see it. Moore’s contemplation on the natural scenery from Durand’s painting and the painter’s technique of verisimilitude, in the first stanza, indicates her appreciation of representational art, this is an aspect which Costello (2012) also examines. In her article “Tedium and Integrity” (2003), Moore praises the Sung academicians’ emphasis on “faithful representation” (p. 258). This attitude, she says, has controlled spontaneity in Chinese artistic creation, and also led to the “happy result” of “the superb paintings of insects, flowers, animals, and birds” in Chinese art (ibid).

Other principles can be located in Moore’s special focus on the painter, his work of art, and the artistic subjects depicted in it; after all, the inspection of the art piece is an important element in ekphrasis criticism. “Kindred Spirits” is a landmark painting of American Romanticism painted by Durand, a first-generation American landscape painter. It is a gift to Bryant, and a homage to their late friend Cole (Peck, 2005). Its title is excerpted from John Keats’s sonnet VII “O Solitude” (1815) (ibid), a poem that speaks of a man’s wish to have a solitary life in nature, with the company of a like-minded man, his “kindred spirit” (Keats, 1982). Durand’s has borrowed his painting’s title from Keats’ work in order to commemorate a similar anecdote to that of Keats about two friends from his artistic circle: Timothy Cole and William Cullen Bryant, portrayed in the painting. The kinship between these two figures is an ethical and an aesthetic one. Bryant, is an American Romantic poet, who is also famed for his environmental concerns; whereas, his kindred spirit, Cole, is the forefather of The Hudson River School of landscape painting, to which Durand belongs. This School is closely tied to Romantic naturalism, and its paintings specifically represent the Hudson River Valley and its shores (Avery, 1987).

In her poem, Moore (1958) emphasizes this kinship to which Durand also belongs. Durand’s Romantic naturalism is revealed through her overall description of his painting, and Cole’s is granted by his affiliation to the same art school. Moore moves therefore to Bryant, demonstrating how he is similar to them. She identifies him in the poem as “Thanatopsis-invoking tree-loving Bryant” (p. 243). His description as a “tree-loving” intellectual highlights his environmental concerns in social life and poetry as well, a matter further illuminated in her “Introduction” to *Central Park Country: A Tune Within Us* (1986), where she speaks about his call for the reservation of New York City’s “forest and woodland for shade and refreshment as a park” in 1836 (p. 618). This vision, she says, has come true in New York’s Central Park later on (ibid). His poem “Thanatopsis” (1817), which Moore recalls in this poem, is one of the earliest Romantic works to be known in America (Campanella, 2003). It has been a direct inspiration for another painting by Durand - “Landscape—Scene from Thanatopsis” (1850). Moore’s statement “Thanatopsis-invoking...Bryant” is, therefore, a reference to this poet’s instigation, or as she says “invocation”, of the Romantic movement in American literary and painterly art through this foundational poem. In her poem, Moore is saluting Bryant as the precursor of American Romanticism and the environmentalist.

Moore is, therefore, employing a work of a double romantic imprint: first is the Romantic pastoral setting in which humans peacefully co-exist with nature, and second is the line of the leading Romantic artists taken as its subject. “Kindred Spirits” is a Romantic painting which celebrates the American Romantic Movement. By recalling the names of the fathers of American Romanticism - Durand, Cole, and Bryant – together with their landmark works - “Kindred Spirits” and “Thanatopsis” – in her ekphrastic work “The Camperdown Elm”, Moore is expressing an interest in the artistic lineage driven by them as a movement: American Romanticism.

The first aspect, of concern to Moore, is the kindredness of these artists’ spirits, Cole, Bryant and also Durand and Keats: their environmentalist ethics which extend to their literary and artistic work. We can locate two similar ideas in Moore’s art ideology. The first is art-nature relationship; for Moore and the Romantics, art is a faithful imitation of nature. Durand and Moore provide the visual example of the elm tree and The Hudson River Valley surrounding it. The second idea is man-art relationship. Both Moore and the Romantics believe in the continuity between man’s ethics and his art. Their respective works, “The Camperdown Elm” and “Kindred Spirits” treat the ethical trait of man’s harmonious living with nature. All in all, in “The Camperdown Elm”, Durand, Cole, Bryant, and maybe Keats are kindred spirits who stand for two art principles from Moore’s art ideology which are art-nature relationship and man-art relationship.

#### B. The Romantic Principle of Man-Art Relationship in Moore’s Art Ideology



Moore's first principle of art-ethics relationship is traced back to the Chinese concept of integrity. Integrity is the major principle of the Daoist aesthetics (Qian, 2003), whose various facets are discussed by Moore in her essay "Tedium and Integrity". One facet of this concept is the wholeness (or integrity) of man's character: that is the harmony between his art, ethics, and also profession. Moore (2003) contends, "the view that painting is not a profession but an extension to the art of living" is an "important feature of Chinese painting" (p. 258). The artist is himself the social being and the professional as well. She further explains how the painter in China "underwent rigorous intellectual discipline" (ibid). That is to say, he is both ethically 'disciplined' and 'intellectually' trained to lead a complementary life and artistic career. This concept of the artist applies well to Durand, Cole, and their fellow poets as well. They have undergone environmental as well as artistic education, and their art links their aesthetic visions to their environmental ethics. "Kindred Spirits", for instance, speaks of the morality of peaceful living in nature which its painter practices in social life. It conveys well the principle of art-ethics which Moore preaches in her prose work.

Moore continues by stating that the integrity of the artist's character is not enough for the creation of an authentic work. In order to produce "genuine art", she insists, the totality of the artist's character – including his ethics, profession and art - should spring from his inner self (Leavell, 1993, p. 257). This is achieved through the artist's practice of individuality. Individuality is to deny external influences and impositions and follow one's his inner spirit. In her article, "E. E. Cummings, 1894- 1962", Moore (1986) underscores the urgent need to know how "to be ONEself ... in an epoch of Unself" (of nonself)"<sup>3</sup> (p. 563). The American Romantics, whom Moore's subject painting commemorates, are an example on the self-reliant intellectuals who break up with the old tradition of the Enlightenment to instigate their own artistic principles and vision of life. That is to say, their art is "genuine" and not a replication.

Accordingly, art for Moore has to stay true to the inner self of its creator. In another article by her, in Lincoln Kirstein's *To Honor Henry McBride*, she argues that it should hold the artist's personal touch which is reflected through his non-conformity and liberality in attitude, as well as gusto and creativeness in the selection of material and subject matter (Moore, 1986). In her interview with Donald Hall, Moore (1969) gives the example of *The Dial*'s artists, the magazine for which she was first a contributor and then an editor. She declares that "we didn't care what other people said...Everybody liked what he was doing...I think that individuality was the great thing. We were not conforming to anything...it was a matter of taking a liking to things. Things in accordance with your taste" (p. 36-37). Individuality is exactly "what made [*The Dial*] so good," she explains (p. 37).

### C. Moore's Romantic Principle of Art-Nature Relationship

The second principle represented by the figure of Durand and the other Romantics in the poem is art's imitation of nature, or art-nature relationship. This is the most oft-advocated artistic tendency in the totality of Moore's ekphrasis body of work, not only this one. Moore sets forth several reasons in her essays as to why she considers nature a valuable model for artistic creation, two of which are reflected in "The Camperdown Elm": one is the high beauty of natural objects, the other their spiritual importance. On nature's beauty, this poem gives the example of the elm tree; while in other ekphrasis Moore talks about the pangolin, the fish, the swan, etc. Answering Hall's question (1986) about the reason behind her excessive interest in animals in her poetry, she says, "they are *subjects* for art and *examples* of it, are they not?" (p. 552; emphasis added). Animals are 'subjects' for artistic representation because their beauty is an 'example' of aesthetics; Moore exclaims, "which of us has not been stunned by the beauty of an animal's skin or its flexibility in motion?" They have a "stunning...stupefying" beauty, which invites artistic representation (p. 573). This applies to the flora of the world as well.

In "The Camperdown Elm", Moore (1958) observes how the elm tree in Durand's painting looks like an art piece rather than a real tree. It stands as a "filigree overhead" of the two artists (p. 243). The Longman Dictionary (1978) defines the filigree as "*delicate ornamental wire work*" (p. 408). Nevertheless, the real elm tree at The Prospect Park is more alluring for Moore (1958); if only these "nature-loving" artists had come across it, they would have been even more astonished by its beauty:

... Imagine

their [Cole and Bryant's] rapture, had they come on the Camperdown elm's  
massiveness and "the intricate pattern of its branches,"  
arching high, curving low, in its mist of fine twigs. (p. 243)

The above description is actually a faithful portrayal of the elm tree at The Prospect Park. Olson (2011) remarks that this "tree was a mutation that lacked the gene for negative geotropism" (p. 22). So, it could not discern directions and crawled instead of growing upwards resulting in the peculiar shape she is in. Its shape rose the public curiosity and made it the most famous tree in the park (qtd.in Olson, 2011, p. 22). Moore (1958) describes it as the Americans' "crowning curio" (p. 243). The Longman dictionary (1978) defines the curio as "an object, valuable because of its age, rarity or its beauty" (p. 271). To say that Cole and Bryant would be pleased with the sight of this curio is a further emphasis on Romantic artists' interest in natural beauty as a model for artistic creation.

The second reason for imitating nature given by Moore, is nature's spiritual importance. For Moore, elements in nature are not empty figures, but have a certain spiritual value for humans. This value is attributed to them by man who seeks to find his own place within the universe through establishing associations with its elements. For instance, In

<sup>3</sup> Here, she is referring to the Modernist tendency of impersonality.



Chinese artistic culture, Moore (2003) attests, the dragon is a totem for the power of Heaven; and the bamboo symbolizes elegance; whereas the phoenix, the tortoise, the unicorn, the crane, the pine, and the peach symbolize long life. Moore believes that thinking about oneself as being part and parcel of the universe, in this way, is more profound than exclusive reflection on one's inner self. This latter state she calls "egotism", and it is known for the Buddhists as "ignorance"; whereas, the former is "the development of a whole personality" (Moore, 2003, p. 258). This means that introverted exploration of one's inner self (exclusive concentration on the first integrity) is just a part of the personality's development. It needs to be augmented by his integration into nature (the second integrity). Moore (2003) regards the first integrity, the integrity of man's/ artist's 'inner' personality including his art, ethics, and profession, as a profundity and the second, man's integrity into the 'outer' universe, as a yet more profound profundity. Now that art springs from the artist's inner self, and the artist spiritually conceives himself as an inseparable part of nature, his art would ultimately spring from nature's spirituality. In the discussion below, we will go back to see how this idea is manifested in Durand's Romantic painting.

Moving to the art piece itself, its internal constituents should also respect the principle of integrity among themselves. Its composite elements - nature's physicality and nature/artist's spirituality - have to be in harmony: "Painting," says Moore (2003), "should be a *fusion* of that which pertains to Heaven - the spirit - and the matter, which pertains to Earth, as effected by the painter's insight and skill... The function of brush and ink is to make visible the invisible" (p. 258; emphasis added). Her last statement indicates that the painting's spiritual content comes first for the artist, then comes the selection of an appropriate artistic matter and form in order to visually embody this spirituality. Moore often contemplates on the manifestations of this principle - the integration of spirit and form - in nature. This has been the subject of many of her ekphrasis, like "An Egyptian Pulled a Glass in the Shape of Fish" and "The Pangolin", where the titular animals remarkably embody this integrity. For Moore, and the Chinese before her, as the artist respects the natural law of integrity, his art has to abide by it as well.

In Chinese art culture, the spirit-form integrity is delivered through the *Six Canons of Painting* (6<sup>th</sup> century). Besides her contemplation on nature, Moore has obviously relied on this book for her conception of this principle. *The Canons* is a famous book by Xie He, to which "every single book on Chinese art alludes as the most honored standards of Chinese art criticism" (Qian, 2003, p. 255). The principles it delivers insist on the continuity between art form and its spiritual signification, and set forward a practical procedure for preserving this continuity. Moore explains the six canons, in her article "Tedium and Integrity" (1958), as follows

- the first [canon] - basic to all - [which] controlled the other five...was spirit.
2. The Second Canon says 'The brush is a means of creating structure.' The ideal takes form. The spiritual aspect has tangible expression...
3. According to the object, [addressing the artist] draw its form.
4. According to the nature of the object, apply color.
5. "Organize the composition with each element in its rightful place."
6. In copying, transmit the essence of the master's brush and methods. (p. 258-259; emphasis added).

Except for the sixth, each of these canons emphasizes "the fact that spirit creates form", which she speaks of in her other poem "Roses Only." The examples Moore has given earlier show how this harmony and correspondence between the painting's spiritual content and its formal traits is actually manifested in Chinese art. The turtle, for instance, is a visual embodiment of the concept of long life. The association between form and spiritual idea made here is valid, as the turtle actually enjoys the spiritual trait of long life. In her (ekphrastic) evaluation of visual art works, Moore pays special attention to the symbolism of the objects represented and the spirit-form relationship in them. This can be seen in her interpretation of the fish-shaped glass in her ekphrastic poem "An Egyptian Pulled a Glass Bottle in the Shape of Fish", the church architecture in "The Pangolin", and the elm tree from Durand's painting in "The Camperdown Elm".

#### D. "Kindred Spirit" 's Spiritual Connection to Nature

The elm tree which occupies the center of Durand's painting and Moore's ekphrasis is regarded by many Americans, including Durand and Moore, as a national symbol for the huge history it has. The story of this tree starts with the Britons' settlements in New England, where its presence as an indigenous tree was remarked across the American soil (Campanella, 2003, p. 1,139). By the end of the nineteenth century, the American elm has spanned the whole continent, and it became a universal aspect of the American urban topography especially (p. 01). By time, it passed as a national symbol, as intimated by Thomas J. Campanella, the specialist in urban studies, in his book *Republic of Shade: New England and the American Elm* (2003):

No tree has loomed larger in American history than the American elm ... [elms] also began to collect a range of historical and sentimental associations. Colonists planted elms as domestic ornaments, to shelter a home from lightning and storms, or to mark weddings or the birth of a child...occasionally such elms evolved into monuments of national importance. (p. 5-6)

In a newly uprising country preparing to present its national identity markers to the world like America, aged elm trees were especially estimated for being a "witness upon the field of history" and "vessels of collective memory" (p. 06).

Durand has started his artistic career soon after the formation of the independent state of The United States of America, a time when the expression of the American identity was a persistent issue in all arts. Artists debated the would-be markers of their national identity. They wanted to portray this spiritual ideal through an appropriate signifier in their art to preserve the unity of form and spirit, the would-be identity marker has to be an element of a special value for the American people. It also needs to have a consistent presence across the country's geography and history. Ralph W. Emerson suggests that, if the British culture is defined by its art, literature, music, and architecture; America has its natural legacy (qtd.in Campanella, 2003). He gives the example of the Niagara Falls, Lake George, The White Mountains, The Connecticut, and The Mississippi (ibid). Other American artists suggest the indigenous elm tree; it "has been so dominant" in the work of American artists who sought to speak for their Americanness "that few depictions of the region in literature and the arts failed to account for [it]" (p. 06). This nationalist artistic project was especially carried out by the Romantics, who did not only portray "*the beauty, [and] grandeur ... of the American elm*" but also "struggled to capture ... its *symbolism* and to *fathom its grip on the native imagination*" (p. 74; emphasis added). Campanella (2003) mentions the etchings of the village greens by John Warner Barber, the lithographs of Currier and Ives, and the sentimental photographs of Samuel Chamberlain which repeatedly feature the elm tree in visual arts; in literature, on the other hand, he gives the example of foreign and local writers like Henry David Thoreau, Anthony Trollope, Charles Dickens, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Henry James, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Edith Wharton and Eugene O'Neill.

Through the employment of a suitable symbol, the American Romantic artists (and Durand) succeeded in conveying the intended spiritual message through their art. Campanella argues that they helped "forging a fresh identity for the young republic," and also contributed to the environmental awakening in the Jacksonian period (ibid). It is significant to notice also the artist-art relationship here. The American Romantics' representation of the elm springs from an inner necessity, which is the expression of one's national identity. Also important is the order of spiritual content and physical natural object in their work: the painters' initial concern is the expression of their sense of belonging to their natural space, after that comes the choice of a concrete symbol to represent this idea (the elm tree) and the two are in total harmony. These criteria add to the reasons why Moore pays homage to the American Romantic tradition and their moral values in her ekphrasis "The Camperdown Elm", of which Durand is a part.

#### *E. Moore's Attitude Towards Durand's Symbolic Use of the Elm Tree*

Although not directly indicated in the poem's text, Moore's estimation of the elm tree in Durand's painting is based on its cultural symbolism, which is its spiritual significance; in addition to its naturalness and exquisiteness that is, physical beauty. This painting is known for its naturalist status as the most iconic American landscape painting (Peck, 2005). This iconicity is credited to the Americans' "own formulations about nature and culture in that era" in which the elm tree, among other natural elements, holds a very special place as a national symbol (ibid). Moore is no exception to this critical opinion which was popular among the audience of "Kindred Spirits". The historical context of "The Camperdown Elm" indicates that she has noticed the cultural symbolism underneath the elm tree in Durand's painting, and made use of it in this ekphrasis piece accordingly.

Moore has written "The Camperdown Elm" in the late twentieth century, a time when American elms were on their way to extinction. The government, environmental activists, and critics around the country were fighting a tough war to save this precious species from the danger of eradication. In the chapter of "Boulevard of Broken Trees", Campanella (2003) specifies four threats that were gradually leading the American elm heritage to extinction: 1) trees removal within the project of streets modernizations beginning in 1860s, 2) Dutch elm disease beginning 1931, 3) The Great Hurricane of 1938, 4) The Second World War which diverted the "manpower and resources being used to fight Dutch elm disease... to combat the rise of fascism in Europe and Asia" (p. 158-159). Moore (1958) tells an anecdote of the weeping elm at New York City's park which was infected by the Dutch elm disease:

The Bartlett tree-cavity specialist saw it  
and thrust his arm the whole length of the hollowness  
of its torso and there were six small cavities also.  
Props are needed and tree-food. It is still leafing;  
still there; mortal though. (p. 243)

This anecdote is no special case, it is a miniature of the larger scenario of the eradication of elm trees from the American landscape that spanned the twentieth century.

Moore received M.M. Graff's call to save this elm tree when almost a century has passed since the American elms were first being endangered; the American government's efforts and finance were already worn out and new priorities came to the surface. Moore wrote her ekphrastic poem "The Camperdown Elm" to revive the national program of elm tree rescue. To strengthen her environmental and cultural plea, Moore opens her poem by associating the sick elm tree at the park to the culturally symbolic elm in Durand's painting:

I think, in connection with this weeping elm,  
of "Kindred Spirits." (ibid)

Then, she starts describing the scene portrayed in it. Recalling this particular painting here is an attestation to the elm's cultural value, and a reminder for the government and citizens of its predicament. Nardi (2001) makes clear that "Moore exalts the historical relevance of the park, focusing on a specific tree that becomes a symbol of the American

cultural past ...which must be preserved" (p. 46). This tree, Moore (1958) argues, is different from any other tree; it is not

lindens,  
maples and sycamores, oaks and the Paris  
street-tree, the horse-chestnut. (p. 243)

This is a tree that must be saved because it has its roots deep into the American cultural identity, art and literature since the early nineteenth century, not only its soil and geographical space. Moore concludes her poem by insisting on the need to save the park's elm tree.

#### F. Other Art Principles Displayed in "The Camperdown Elm"

Linked to the principle of the spiritual value of natural elements in art, is art's utility. In Moore's art (and poetic) ideology, art has always got a role to play: in other words, beauty has a function as well. This can be either an actual (physical) function or a spiritual one. Unlike in "The Camperdown Elm", this idea is directly addressed in her other ekphrasis work, "The Pangolin" and "An Egyptian Pulled a Glass Bottle in the Shape of Fish", among others. In "The Camperdown Elm", it is not clear at the poem's surface that Moore has employed Durand's painting for environmental purposes, but it is indeed the case. Thanks to the use she makes of this painting that she could finally appeal to her audience and bring financial aid for the rescue of the elm tree at Prospect Park at "a time when New York City and Brooklyn were caving in financially" (Olson, 2011, p. 18). This particular poem came to be remembered as a poem that "provides a strong paradigm for eco-activist poetics" (p. 16). It is also important to notice here that Moore has used the painting, whether intentionally or unintentionally, for another purpose: the concrete display of her art ideology; that is, all the principles discussed above. Yet, this ideological purpose had to be explained through language in order to direct the reader/viewer's focus to specific notions in the painting to the exclusion of others.

The role played by Durand's painting in "The Camperdown Elm" is partly granted by art's timelessness, in the display of Moore's art ideology and supporting her environmental quest as well. This is a trait Moore highly appreciates and emphasizes in her article "Tedium and Integrity" and ekphrasis piece "No Swan So Fine" among other works. In "The Camperdown Elm", Durand's painting "Kindred Spirits" is regarded as a cultural archive that can be used time and again to speak of nation's cultural heritage, and also of the Romantic tradition's art principles which are too close to Moore's multi-perspectival art ideology. Its utility is not limited to the time in which it was painted, nor that in which Moore has written her poem; it is fit for all times. When the elm trees would finally be driven into to extinction as a consequence of the natural and political calamities befalling it, its representation in American art will persist, and together with it its symbolism of a nation's natural outlook and cultural heritage at a certain time. It would similarly stand by as a monument of American Romanticism.

### III. CONCLUSION

The contribution of this study is to continue the discussion that Heffernan has concerning the ideological denotations of ekphrasis. After a theoretical demonstration of ekphrasis-art ideology relationship, deduced mainly from Heffernan's work, the study sets out to analyze art ideology that is envisioned in Moore's poem "The Camperdown Elm". It arrives at the conclusion that the proposal of art ideology's relevance to ekphrasis is validated because Moore's character of the art critic clearly pronounced in her prose – *The Complete Prose of Marianne Moore* and "Tedium and Integrity" – is also exhibited in her ekphrasis, though indirectly as befits the norms of poetry. Her prose shows her as an amateur art critic with a multi-perspectival art ideology, yet a clearly defined one. The principles of her art ideology are attentively respected in her critique of Durand's "Kindred Spirits" in this poem; in nowhere we could find an art principle in this ekphrasis which is not strongly supported in Moore's other prose and verse. Her role in this ekphrastic piece meets that of an art critic as defined by Heffernan: she assays the visual artist, the art piece, and the object(s) represented in it. Ekphrasis is found to be indeed the literary practice of art criticism; and as such, it exhibits a certain art ideology, environmental preservation and man's wholeness, which the work allows and the ekphrast identifies with.

The art ideology displayed by Moore in "The Camperdown Elm" plays a crucial role in shaping the poem's environmental theme. As it has been demonstrated in this article, the success of Moore's call to save the vanishing elm tree is credited first of all to her evocation of the tree's cultural symbolism through Durand's painting. It is also credited to her reference to the Romantic school of art and poetry as the authority in matters concerning the environment, and for man's affinity with nature. Visual art principles are, therefore, for the ekphrast and the reader as relevant as literary principles. An adequate understanding of an ekphrasis poem requires an attentive listening to the art critic within it, not just the poet.

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# Note-Taking Proficiency in Interpreting Teaching: Putting the Note-Taking Fluency Scale to the Test

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**Abstract**—Note-taking skills are critical to consecutive interpreting. As an important construct of translation competence and an essential skill of interpreting performance, note-taking merits rigorous and systematic investigations as well as reliable and valid assessment instruments and procedures. In the present study, we aim to further validate the note-taking fluency scale developed by Zhou and Dong (2019), focusing on four dimensions, the coordination between listening and note-taking, the timing of taking notes, the systematic nature of notes, and the use of notes. We evaluated the note-taking skills of a group of Master in Translation and Interpreting (MTI) students majoring in Chinese-Portuguese interpretation in Macao. The fluency scale was administered twice, at the beginning and the end of the training program respectively. The results corroborated the development of note-taking proficiency along with note-taking training in three cognitively less demanding dimensions, i.e., the timing of taking notes, the systematic nature of notes and the use of notes, while the more “stagnant/attractor” aspect of the coordination between listening and note-taking remained unchanged after several months' training. We conclude the paper by outlining specific pedagogical implications tailor made for the four dimensions of note-taking skills for future Chinese-Portuguese interpreting training.

**Index Terms**—note-taking skills, note-taking fluency scale, interpreting proficiency, interpreting training

## I. INTRODUCTION

When it comes to note-taking in interpretation, we normally think of actions to record the essential contents and the respective logic to interpret properly the information heard from another language during interpreting. In the realm of interpretation studies, there are several lines of research endeavors that are related to note-taking. Some studies discussed its definition (Rozan, 2002; Pöchhacker, 2004; Gillies, 2017), others have explored its constituent parts (Gillies, 2017; Jones, 2014). Still, there are studies that investigated its relationship with memory (Gillies, 2013; Pöchhacker, 2015), while others have explored its roles in interpretation (Gile, 2006; Liu & Zhang, 2009; Gillies, 2013; Setton & Dawrant, 2016), and its dynamic interaction with interpretation performance (Szabó, 2006; Gile, 1995/2009; Gillies, 2013). In terms of pedagogy, some studies have discussed its importance in teaching interpretation (Dam, 2004, 2007; Liu & Zhang, 2009).

When all these lines of inquiry are put into perspective, there is still one obvious research gap that has not been filled. This relates to the instruments and assessment procedures. In other words, there has been very little research aiming to provide systematic measures for assessing the proficiency in note-taking. That was the background and rationale for the note-taking fluency scale developed by Zhou and Dong (2019) who aimed to fill up this gap. According to the authors, the scale was designed to describe, test and predict note-taking proficiency. Its validity and reliability were confirmed among a group of year-3 students of a Chinese-English translation program.

In light of these developments, the present study intends to put the note-taking fluency scale proposed by Zhou and Dong (2019) to test in interpreting practice, with a view to identifying its applications and utility in the real note-taking situation. To achieve this goal, we administered the scale to a group of (N=8) Master in Translation and Interpreting (MTI) students specialized in Chinese-Portuguese interpretation. The scale was administered respectively at the beginning and the final phase of a consecutive interpretation (CI) training in one semester. Our purpose was to verify the validity and reliability of the teaching and learning methods of interpretation in terms of four dimensions as stipulated in the metric table. These include the coordination between listening and note-taking, the timing of notes, the systematization of notes and the use of notes. We aim to better understand the dynamic interactions between the proficiency of note-taking and the proficiency of interpretation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Gilles (2017) defines the note-taking skill as a representation of the skeletal structure of the discourse. Note-taking plays an important role throughout the interpretation process. According to Rozan (2002), effective note-taking in interpretation should follow seven principles; (a) noting down the idea but not the verbatim word forms; (b) following strict rules of abbreviations; (c) making effective links; (d) paying particular attention to negation; (e) knowing where to add emphasis; (f) verticality; (g) shift. According to the widely cited Effort Model of consecutive interpreting (Gile, 1995/2009), the interpretation process involves two phases of cognitive tasks: the first phase happens during the speech of the speaker and it implicates the coordination between comprehension, analysis, note-taking on the part of the interpreter, all of which are subserved by his/her short-term memory operations. Then, the second phase arrives when the interpreter needs to speak (interpreting). This involves recalling from reading the notes taken during the first phase and the articulation or production of speech. Thus, it becomes clear that note-taking is actively engaged in both of the two essential stages of interpreting, the input stage and the output stage, both when the speaker speaks while the interpreter listens and analyzes the flow of information, and when the interpreter produces his or her own interpretation.

In addition to the active involvement of note-taking during the entire interpretation process, we can also expect a close connection between note-taking and memory functions and skills. According to Andrew Gillies (2013), note-taking can be considered as a tool that helps to recall the original speech and it thus becomes a technique of memory per se. In interpreting, especially in consecutive interpreting during which process an interpreter provides several rounds of interpretation, note-taking becomes an essential device to complement the limitation of short-term memory, an external device to strengthen our limited working memory capacity by reducing the cognitive load placed on the interpreting task (Dong et al, 2018; Wen & Dong, 2019). Above all, note-taking, as a skill and a memory technique, plays an essential role in the two key stages of interpretation, namely, both in the understanding and the production stages, permeating the entire interpretation activity and thus becomes the guarantee for a fluent and qualified interpreting task to proceed smoothly. This intricate association between note taking and memory is also echoed by Pöchhacker (2015) who describes their inseparable relationships as follows:

CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING of entire speeches presents major challenges to the interpreter's MEMORY. Faced with the need to render speeches lasting five to ten minutes or even longer, interpreters take notes to avoid overburdening their memory during the initial processing phase (COMPREHENSION) and to ensure the retrieval of content stored in memory during the second processing phase (production) (Pöchhacker, 2015, p. 283).

Therefore, note-taking contributes significantly to working memory capacity and the efficient recall of the contents heard. In addition, according to Andrew Gillies, proficient note-taking can help ensure the quality of interpretation, reduce the brain burden and increase the efforts of interpreters in the speech comprehension and analysis phase as well as in the production phase:

[I]f you have a sound note-taking system, ingrained through a lot of practice, then you won't need to put so much mental effort into taking the notes, they'll be better notes and you'll have more mental capacity free for listening and understanding the speech. You also won't have to put so much effort into reading your notes in the second phase of consecutive, so your presentation will be better (Gillies, 2013, p. 168).

In addition, Setton and Dawrant (2016) elaborate, in a more systematic way, the three functions of note-taking that guarantee the quality of an interpretation, including the reinforcement of memory, the guarantee of information integrity, and a more coherent and communicative rendition:

Note-taking has three valuable functions: as an activity that enhances analysis and therefore, memory; to provide a record of items (or cues to them) that may escape our short or medium-term memory, ensuring completeness; and as a speaking plan of what we are going to say and how, perhaps including some target language elements, to make our rendition more coherent and communicative (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p. 143).

The contribution of note-taking to the quality of interpretation is also recognized by Liu and Zhang (2009, p. 77) who designed a table exclusively for evaluating the interpreting performance of English course graduates in which the sub-parameter – notes, included in the higher-level parameter – interpretation techniques, represents 5% of the total assessment on a scale from 0 to 100. Other remaining five parameters include, Transfer of information accounting for 35%; Interpretation expression for another 15%; Linguistic use for 30%; Quality in general for 10% and Time control with  $\pm 2\%$  are also related to note-taking. These percentages allocated to the note-taking indicate that it is an essential and relevant factor to the performance of consecutive interpretation, rendering it an inseparable element in the assessment of interpretation performance.

Recent studies (Cai et al., 2015; Yu & Dong, 2021) also indicate that consecutive interpreting proficiency is conditioned and predicted by language competence as well as by memory capacity, partly as a result of the self-organization of the interpreting competence system of unbalanced individuals. Since note-taking and note-reading are efforts to aid working memory as an integral part of the interpreting competence system, its measurement contributes to the study of interpreting proficiency. As the level of proficiency in note-taking is usually not assessed directly with the final products of the notes taken during interpreting, and the note-taking skill is idiosyncratic with many individual traits of the interpreter, the metric table of note-taking fluency, developed by Zhou and Dong in 2019, could serve to effectively measure note-taking proficiency.

The metric scale of note-taking fluency, entitled "self-description of note-taking in interpretation (in Chinese: 口译笔记自我描述)", is the outcome of a study by Zhou and Dong (2019) based on the notes from interpreters, records of trainees and follow-up interviews with interpreters and several sessions of group discussions, with the intention to measure precisely the fluency of note-taking in consecutive interpretation. The scale consists of a total of 21 questions that fall into four categories, namely, the coordination between listening and note-taking, the timing of notes, the systematic nature of notes, and the use of notes. According to Zhou and Dong (2019), with data statistics in their study, the metric scale has a high level of internal consistency, high validity (also reviewed by experts in the field), and convergent validity with other factors (e.g., number of note-taking exercises, interpreters' learning motivation, and interpreter performance). The results of the study by the two authors point to the potential link between note-taking fluency and interpreting proficiency. That is to say, interpreters' fluency in note-taking may allow us to predict the performance of interpreters, which in turn reflects their proficiency in interpretation.

When teaching note-taking principles and methods, interpreting trainers should pay attention to the development of trainees' note-taking skills to improve their interpreting skills. Moreover, trainers should also know what aspects of note-taking skills can be improved through training and what aspects may not develop as expected even after intensive training. This metric scale of note-taking fluency can serve as a useful tool to further explore its reliability and validity in terms of research replication and generalization, longitudinal effect, as well as other aspects such as skill improvement after training. These became the motivation for the current study in the first place.

The present study aims to confirm the validity and reliability of this metric scale of note-taking among a group of Chinese-Portuguese interpretation students, through a diachronic analysis of the results of two tests administered to the same group of MTI students in the two phases of note-taking during consecutive interpreting, with a view to better understanding the dynamic interactions between interpretation proficiency and note-taking proficiency. More specifically, in this study, we aim to answer two research questions:

- 1) Are the previous results of the note-taking fluency scale replicable? That is to say when the scale works among the note-taking by Chinese-English interpreting students, will it be equally effective among the Chinese-Portuguese students?
- 2) What are the longitudinal effects with this fluency scale? In other words, which aspect(s) of the scale will improve and which will not after intensive training for a longer period of time (e.g., one semester)?

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

We conducted the survey among a group of first-year bilingual students (N=8) specialized in interpreting from the Master's program in the Chinese-Portuguese Translation and Interpretation concentration in the academic year 2020/2021 at the Macao Polytechnic University (MPU), a tertiary education institution located in the Macao Special Administrative Regions (SAR), China. All these students have passed the interpreting aptitude test organized by MPU and Directorate General of Interpretation (DGI)<sup>1</sup> before they entered the 2<sup>nd</sup> semester of year one. In the 1<sup>st</sup> semester of the course, students have learned all the foundational subjects in translation and interpretation. Starting from the 2<sup>nd</sup> semester of the course, those who passed the interpreting aptitude test could begin to take specialized classes in interpreting. Among the eight bilingual students, three are coming from Chinese Mainland whose mother tongue is Mandarin Chinese, and four are from Macao locally whose mother tongue is Cantonese, while the remaining one is from Timor-Leste whose mother tongue is Portuguese. Instead of the heterogeneous mother tongues, all of them have Chinese (Mandarin/Cantonese) and Portuguese as their A or B languages in interpreting. Three of them are males and 5 are females.

#### B. Measures

The present study uses the metric scale of note-taking fluency, entitled "self-description of note-taking in interpretation (in Chinese: 口译笔记自我描述)", designed and constructed by Zhou and Dong (2019). The detailed content of the metric scale in question is in Table 1 as follows:

<sup>1</sup> Directorate General of Interpretation has been providing pedagogical support to the Master's Program in Chinese-Portuguese Translation and Interpretation of Macao Polytechnic University since 2019.



TABLE 1  
METRIC TABLE OF FLUENCY IN NOTE-TAKING

Dimension	N. <sup>o</sup>	Self-description
Coordination of listening and note-taking	3	I am not able to follow the speaker's logic while concentrating on taking notes.
	6	It is difficult for me to listen and take notes at the same time.
	8	My notes are not good while concentrating on listening to speeches.
	9	It is very difficult for me to listen and take notes.
	17	I can listen and take notes at the same time and I don't feel uncomfortable.
Timing of notes	1	My notes can keep up with the speaker's rhythm on the whole.
	4	After the speech ends, I need some time to continue writing my notes.
	13	I take notes very slowly, not being able to keep up with the speaker's speech rhythm.
	20	I almost finish the notes when the speech ends.
Systematic nature of notes	2	I do not know what should be written in the notes.
	5	My notes are confusing.
	10	I have to think while using symbols in note-taking.
	12	I have some symbols that I use proficiently.
	15	I do not know how to use symbols for note-taking.
Use of notes	7	I know what the symbols in my notes mean.
	11	I understand what the notes mean when I look at them.
	14	I can read my notes.
	16	Looking at the notes, I can recall the content of the original speech.
	18	Looking at the notes, I can recall the logic of the original speech.
	19	Looking at the notes, I can easily recall the content of the original speech.
	21	I can easily identify my notes.

In this metric scale, there are a total of 21 self-descriptions, with the 3<sup>rd</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, and 17<sup>th</sup> items belonging to the dimension of the coordination between listening comprehension and note-taking; the 1<sup>st</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 13<sup>th</sup>, and 20<sup>th</sup> items related to the punctuality of notes; the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 12<sup>th</sup>, and 15<sup>th</sup> self-descriptions related to the systematization of notes; and the 7<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup>, 14<sup>th</sup>, 16<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup>, and 21<sup>st</sup> related to the use of notes. Among them, there are descriptions of positive scores (including 1<sup>st</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup>, 12<sup>th</sup>, 14<sup>th</sup>, 16<sup>th</sup>, 17<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup>, 20<sup>th</sup>, 21<sup>st</sup>) and negative scores (2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 13<sup>th</sup>, 15<sup>th</sup>). In our study, we administered the scales two times in the form of a survey, in which participants needed to respond to all these 21 items.

The first survey was carried out in the 3<sup>rd</sup> week of the Consecutive Interpreting course (which lasted a total of 15 weeks of class sessions), in which the way how to take notes had been systematically introduced in the first two weeks of classes. The second time was done in the penultimate class of another course in the same class, called "Consecutive Interpretation Practices" (which also has, in its entirety, 15 weeks of classes), in which students put into practice what they have learned throughout the semester.

The survey comprised 21 descriptions contained in the metric table mentioned above, which are organized, however, in numerical order, with no indication of the dimension to which each description belongs. The eight students were asked to rate, according to their actual situation, each of the descriptions on a scale of 1 to 6, in which "1" indicates "completely does not match (to the real situation of the respondent)", "2" indicates "relatively does not match", "3" indicates "somewhat does not match", "4" indicates "somewhat matches", "5" indicates "relatively matches", and "6" indicates "completely matches". Therefore, on this scale, there are 3 classifications whose own sense is negative ("completely doesn't match", "relatively does not match", and "does not match a little") and another 3 whose sense is positive ("somewhat matches", "relatively matches", and "completely matches"). In addition, to facilitate the comparison of responses given in the two surveys, students are required to indicate their names and the date of completion on the two surveys.

Having obtained the data from the two surveys, we carried out statistical analyses on the number of students with various answers to each of the 21 descriptions in both surveys, and we elaborated four column graphs on the results of the 1<sup>st</sup> survey in each one of the four dimensions in the metric scale in question, as well as four homologous graphs for the 2<sup>nd</sup> survey. In addition, to observe the respective general situation more directly and straightforward, we calculated the average points and standard deviation (SD) of the eight students at the four dimensions in the two surveys. For the average points, we resorted to the 6 points Likert scale indicated by Zhou and Dong (2019), in which, concerning responses to descriptions with negative sense (such as the 6<sup>th</sup> description: "It is difficult for me to listen and take notes at the same time"), the points calculation is contrary to the one intended for answers to the descriptions with a positive sense (such as the 1<sup>st</sup> description: "My notes can keep up with the speaker's rhythm on the whole."), with the choice "completely does not correspond" getting 6 points, "relatively does not match" 5 points, then the "completely matches" choice 1 point (Zhou & Dong, 2019, p. 930). As for the SD, it is calculated by the excel tool (STDEV) to verify the statistical dispersion of the self-evaluation ratings at the four dimensions among the eight students in the two surveys.

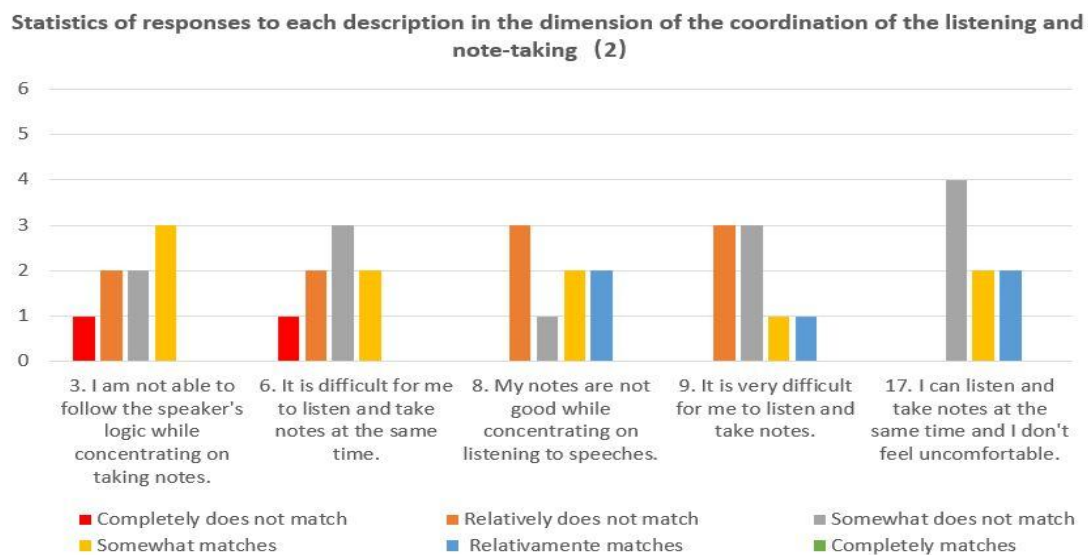
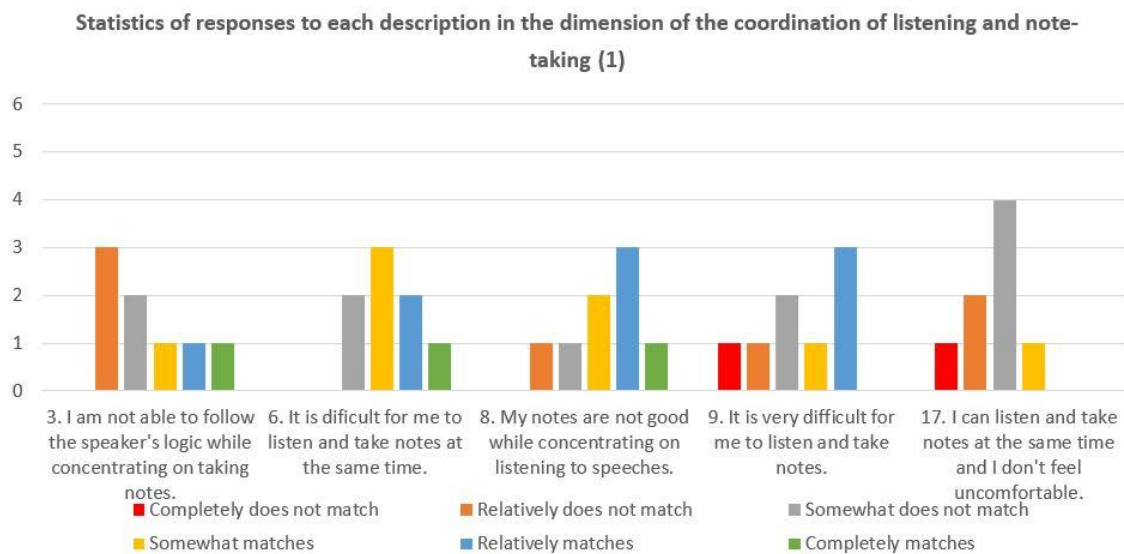
Based on these data, we were able to make a comparison between the two surveys at the level of number of students with different answers, average points and standard deviation points, thus allowing us to reveal the developmental trajectories of note-taking skills of these students in terms of four dimensions.

#### IV. RESULTS

In this part, we present the column graphs which show the number of respondents with each of the six choices ("completely does not match", "relatively does not match", "somewhat does not match", "somewhat matches", "relatively matches" and "completely matches") in every description in each dimension. Statistics on averages and SD of each dimension are also presented, followed by discussion.

##### A. Comparison of Statistics of the Coordination of Listening and Note-Taking

Figure 1 and Figure 2 show the statistics of responses to each description in the dimension of the coordination of listening and note-taking, respectively from survey 1 and from survey 2.



Comparing the data of the two surveys, it is obvious that, for the 6th, 8th, 9th and 17th descriptions, the number of respondents with the respective problems and difficulties in the 2nd survey is reduced. Regarding the 3rd description, the number of students with negative self-evaluations (with the answers "relatively matches" and "completely matches") decreased. This situation can be further contended in Table 2.

TABLE 2  
AVERAGE AND SD OF THE COORDINATION OF LISTENING AND NOTE-TAKING

Dimension	Description	Average				SD		
		1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference		1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference
coordination of listening and note-taking	3	3.63	4.13	+0.50		1.51	1.13	-0.38
	6	2.75	4.25	+1.50		1.04	1.04	0
	8	2.75	3.63	+0.88		1.28	1.30	+0.02
	9	3.50	4.00	+0.50		1.51	1.07	-0.44
	17	2.63	3.75	+1.12		0.92	0.89	+0.03
	Overall	3.05	3.95	+0.90		5.39	4.20	-1.19

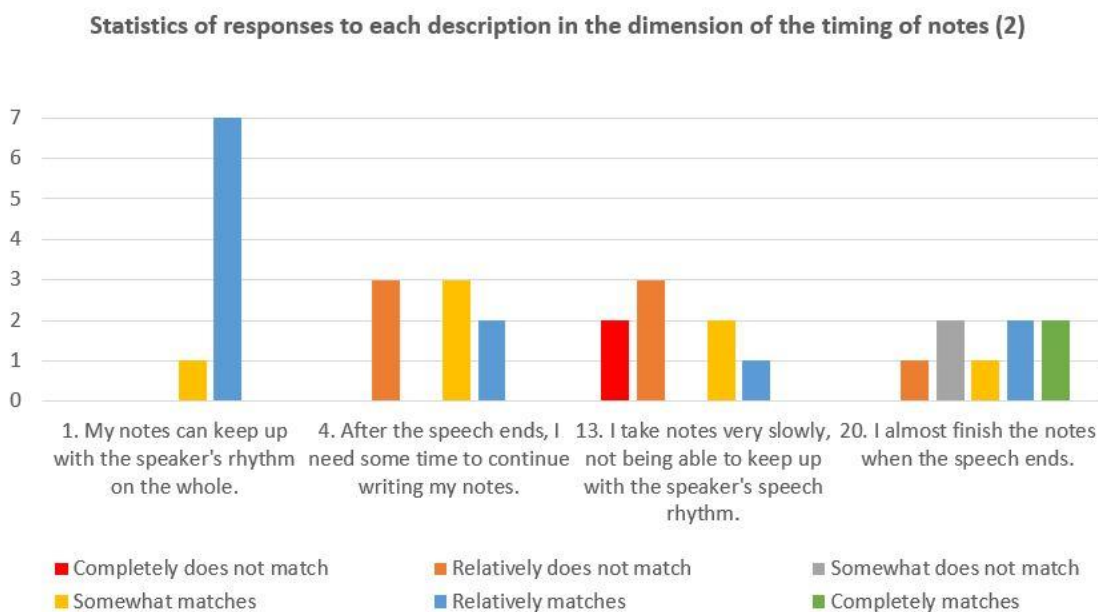
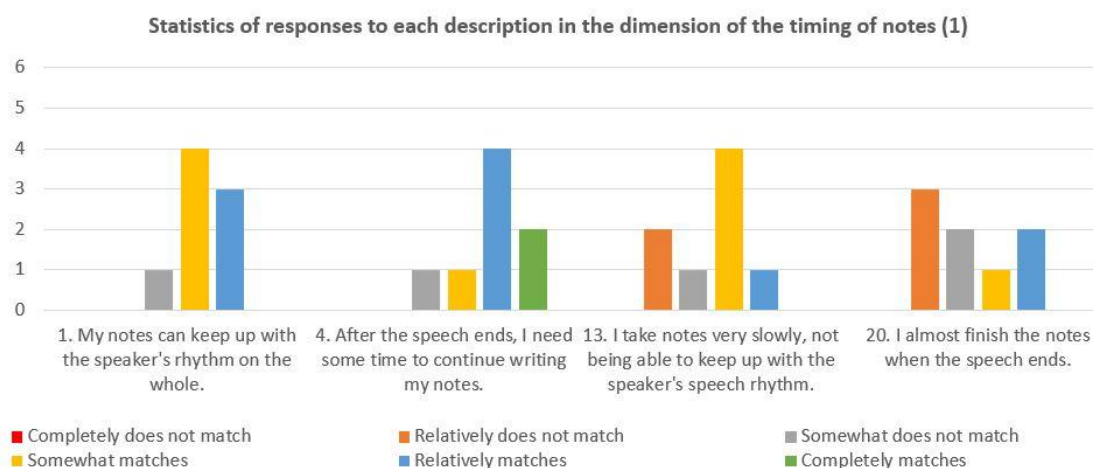
Based on averages, there is improvement in all of the abilities after training, especially the two abilities to listen and take notes at the same time (6th description) and to listen and take notes at the same time without feeling uncomfortable (17th description). However, the self-evaluation remains relatively unsatisfactory after training (3.95 points out of 6).

Based on SD, the self-evaluation regarding the abilities to follow the speaker's logic while concentrating on taking notes (3rd description) and to listen and take notes with ease (9th description) becomes more homogeneous.

Combining the averages with SD, the training benefits more students regarding the ability to follow the speaker's logic while concentrating on taking notes (3rd description) and the one to listen while taking notes at the same time (6th description).

#### B. Comparison of Statistics of the Timing of Notes

Figure 3 and Figure 4 show the statistics of responses to each description in the dimension of the timing of notes, respectively from survey 1 and from survey 2.



Comparing the data of the two surveys, it is found that after training, there is an increase of students with positive self-evaluations in all of the descriptions. This finding is further observed in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
AVERAGES AND SD OF THE TIMING OF NOTES

Dimension	Description	Average			SD		
		1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference	1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference
timing of notes	1	4.25	4.88	+0.63	0.71	0.35	-0.36
	4	2.13	3.50	+1.37	0.99	1.31	+0.32
	13	3.50	4.38	+0.88	1.07	1.51	+0.44
	20	3.25	4.25	+1.00	1.28	1.49	+0.21
	Overall	3.28	4.25	+0.97	2.64	4.04	+1.40

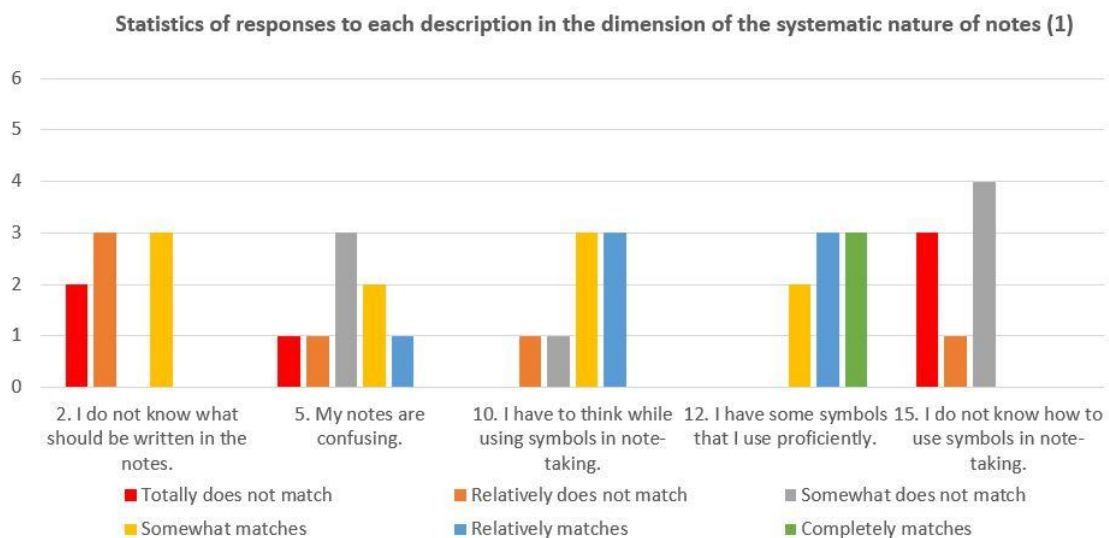
Based on averages, there is an improvement in all of the abilities after training, especially the two abilities to reduce the time needed for finishing the notes after the speech ends (4th description) and to almost finish the notes when the speech ends (20th description).

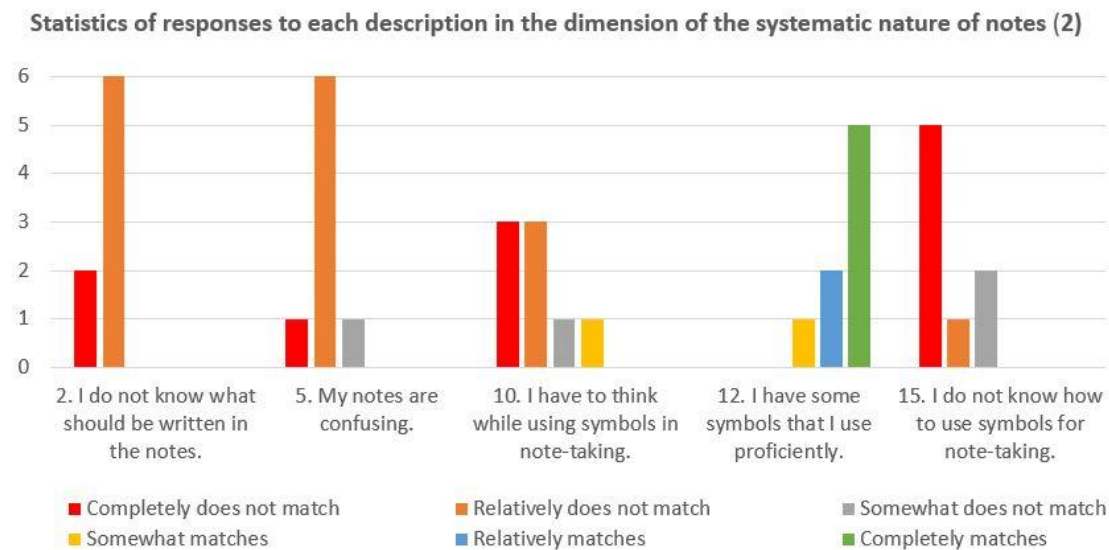
Based on SD, after training, students' self-evaluation regarding the abilities of this dimension becomes more heterogeneous, except the ability to keep up the speaker's rhythm when taking notes (1st description).

Combining averages with SD, the training benefits more students regarding the ability to keep up the speaker's rhythm when taking notes (1st description).

### C. Comparison of the Systematic Nature of Notes

Figure 5 and Figure 6 show the statistics of responses to each description in the dimension of the systematic nature of notes, respectively from survey 1 and from survey 2.



Figure 6. 2<sup>nd</sup> Survey's Results

With the comparison of the data from the two surveys, there is an increase of students with positive self-evaluations in all of the descriptions after training, especially in the 2nd, 5th, and 10th descriptions, which is evidenced in Table 4 as follows.

TABLE 4  
AVERAGES AND SD OF THE SYSTEMATIC NATURE OF NOTES

Dimension	Description	Average			SD		
		1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference	1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference
systematic nature of notes	2	4.50	5.25	+0.75	1.31	0.46	-0.85
	5	3.88	5.00	+1.12	1.25	0.53	-0.72
	10	3.00	5.00	+2.00	1.07	1.07	0
	12	5.13	5.50	+0.37	0.83	0.76	-0.07
	15	4.88	5.38	+0.50	0.99	0.92	-0.07
	Overall	4.28	5.23	+0.95	3.20	2.80	-0.40

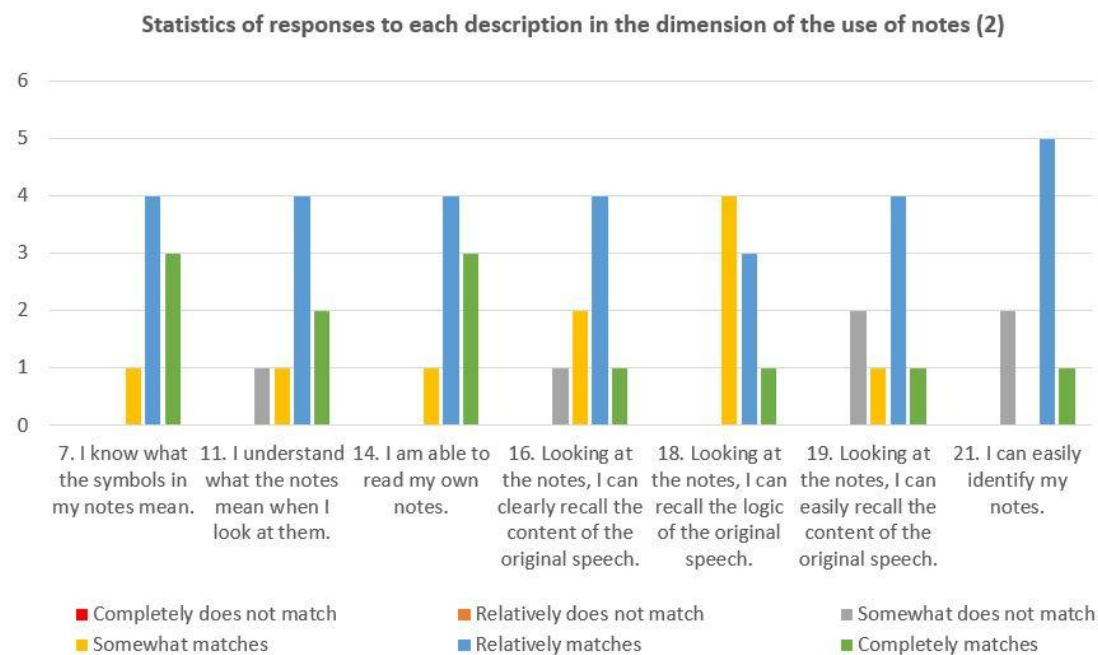
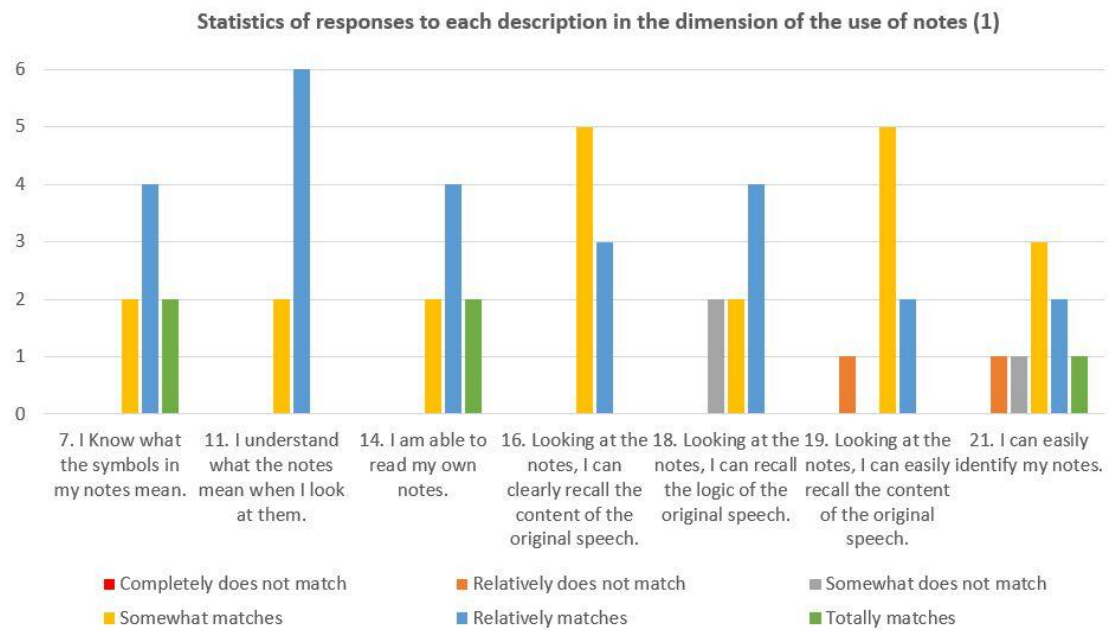
Based on averages, there is improvement in all of the abilities after training, especially the two abilities to take organized notes (5th description) and to reduce the time of thinking while using symbols in note-taking (10th description).

Based on SD, it is found that, after training, the self-evaluation regarding all the abilities of this dimension becomes more homogeneous, except the one to reduce the time of thinking while using symbols in note-taking (10th description).

Combining the averages with SD, it is shown that the training benefits more students regarding all of the abilities of this dimension, especially the ones to take organized notes (5th description) and to reduce the time of thinking while using symbols in note-taking (10th description).

#### D. Comparison of Statistics of the Use of Notes

Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the statistics of responses to each description in the dimension of the use of notes, respectively from survey 1 and from survey 2.



Comparing these data from the two surveys, there is an increase of students with positive self-evaluations after training in the 7th, 14th, 18th, 19th, and 21st descriptions. On the other hand, a phenomenon emerges that does not exist in the previous dimensions, that is, regarding the 11th and 16th descriptions, there is an increase of students with negative self-evaluations after training, which means that some students, despite having declared that they have no problem using notes in the 1st survey, start to consider that they have it after the training and practice of interpretation. Actually, after we verify the survey data, this unusual phenomenon comes from the same respondent. In addition, Table 5 illustrates more data that further explores this dimension.

TABLE 5  
AVERAGES AND SD OF THE USE OF NOTES

Dimension	Description	Average			SD		
		1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference	1 <sup>st</sup> survey	2 <sup>nd</sup> survey	Difference
use of notes	7	5.00	5.25	+0.25	0.76	0.71	-0.05
	11	4.75	4.88	+0.13	0.46	0.99	+0.53
	14	5.00	5.25	+0.25	0.76	0.71	-0.05
	16	4.38	4.63	+0.25	0.52	0.92	-0.40
	18	4.25	4.63	+0.38	0.89	0.74	-0.15
	19	3.50	4.50	+1.00	0.93	1.07	+0.14
	21	4.13	4.63	+0.50	1.25	1.06	-0.19
	Overall	4.43	4.82	+0.39	3.82	5.20	+1.38

Based on averages, there is improvement in all of the abilities after training, especially the ability to easily recall the content of the original speech when looking at notes (19th description). The comparison of SD of the two surveys show that after training, the self-evaluation regarding items 11 and 19 becomes more heterogeneous, while the self-evaluation regarding the other descriptions becomes more homogeneous. Combining the averages with SD, it is found that the training benefits more students regarding the ability to clearly recall the content of the original speech when looking at notes (16th description).

### E. Discussion

From the comparison between the different choices of students, averages and SD of the two surveys, we arrive at the following observations.

1) After interpreting training and practices, students believe that their note-taking skills of all the four dimensions have improved.

2) Since the students evaluate more homogeneously their note-taking abilities at the dimensions of coordination of listening and note-taking as well as the systematic nature of notes after training, the training benefits more students at these two dimensions. On the other hand, the students evaluate more heterogeneously their abilities at the dimensions of timing as well as the use of notes after training, which implies an increased difference of abilities among students at these two dimensions.

3) The average points at the dimension of coordination of listening and note-taking is the lowest among those in the four dimensions both in the 1st and 2nd survey. Thus, the “stagnation/attractor” (Larsen, 1997, 2005; Dong, 2018; Liu, 2022) state seems to occur in this dimension, which implies that coordination of note-taking and listening presents the greatest difficulty to trainees among all the dimensions. This is because during note-taking and memorization, an interpreter also has to process the information heard from the original speech at the same time, which adds to the processing capacity requirements. The processing capacity requirements are increased with such factors as high information density in the source language, reordering of information and differences between the syntactic structures of the source language and the target language (Gile, 2006). Considering this, the coordination of note-taking and listening requires more cognitive efforts than the other three dimensions.

4) As for the dimension of the use of notes, respondents’ self-evaluations are relatively positive both in the 1st and 2nd surveys. Nevertheless, we assume that this positive self-assessment does not necessarily imply a truly good level of use of notes among the respondents, especially in consideration of the special case in which the positive self-evaluation of one respondent becomes negative after training. It is possible that they do not correctly understand some descriptions in this dimension, or they fail to carry out a self-assessment objectively and rationally. So further investigations need to be conducted to clarify the findings about this dimension.

5) Considering the developmental paths of the note-taking capacities of the eight respondents, the metric scale is effective in testing the note-taking proficiency in Chinese-Portuguese consecutive interpretation and its effectiveness can be corroborated with longitudinal design.

## V. CONCLUSION

The present study aims to further verify the validity and reliability of the metric scale of note taking during interpretation, focusing on the four dimensions elaborated by Zhou and Dong (2019), namely, the coordination between listening and note-taking, the timing of notes, the systematic nature of notes and the use of notes to better understand the dynamic interactions between interpretation proficiency and note-taking proficiency. To achieve this goal, we used the metric scale called “Self-Description of Note-Taking in Interpretation” designed and constructed by Zhou and Dong (2019), which composed of 21 descriptions related to various note-taking abilities revealing four dimensions mentioned above. We performed two surveys using the contents of this scale among a group of eight students specialized in Chinese-Portuguese interpretation at MPI. With the results obtained from these two surveys, we compared these data by drawing up eight statistical graphs and calculating the average points and the SD points of each description and each dimension, in order to reveal the developmental paths of the note-taking capacity of respondents in terms of four dimensions during interpretation.



With our diachronic analysis, we came to conclude that the metric scale in question serves as a useful and effective tool to analyze the various note-taking skills in Chinese-Portuguese consecutive interpretation and it has practical value for examining the note-taking ability of students of different language pair and different levels, thus providing specific teaching and learning orientation to diverse students. The interpretation training contributes to all the dimensions of note-taking proficiency, especially in the dimensions of coordination of listening and note-taking as well as the systematic nature of notes. We also found an inseparable relationship between note-taking proficiency and interpretation proficiency, with a good note-taking skill being the basis for a qualified interpretation, while the accumulation of interpretation practice contributes to the improvement of the ability to take notes.

Last but not least, as we realize that the dimension of coordination between listening and note-taking constitutes the greatest difficulty in training interpreters, it is necessary to pay more attention to this dimension not only during teaching and learning for student interpreters but also throughout the professional development, including continuing education. Thus, further investigation on “stagnation/attractor” would be necessary. In addition, it is also advisable to pay attention to the increased difference of the ability of the timing of notes as well as the use of notes among the students in the context of teaching and learning. On the other hand, concerning the special phenomena that arise in the dimension of the use of notes, especially the fact that the overall positive self-assessment in both surveys, more detailed interviews with these respondents may be carried out in the future to find out potential explanations for these developmental trends in their note-taking proficiency.

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# Online Scaffolding Strategies: Case Studies of Asian EFL Learners in an Academic Writing Course

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**Abstract**—The article reported a case study investigating the scaffolding strategies of twelve Asian EFL learners in four small groups' scaffolding strategies during two online collaborative writing (OCW) tasks in a composition course using Google Docs as a writing platform. Of interest was how EFL learners with different L1 scaffold each other while co-constructing OCW tasks, and also if scaffolding strategies used during OCW tasks influence writing performance. Data collection included pre-test and post-test writing, two OCW tasks on descriptive and argumentative essays, learners' use of scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations during OCW tasks observed through Google Docs revision history, and student reflection. The findings showed that learners in small groups employed both scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues to jointly construct their OCW tasks by giving advice, providing suggestions, responding to questions or requests, asking questions, or clarifying ideas. Learners who contributed more texts directed their team and initiated both scaffolding negotiations and non-negotiations while performing group work. The study results also revealed that members who employed more scaffolding negotiations during their OCW processes likely produced a better quality of writing in their post-test. Nevertheless, these findings indicated that members in small groups benefited from both scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations as they helped in task revisions. The findings contributed to research that has investigated online scaffolding strategies in EFL learners' collaborative writing tasks.

**Index Terms**—scaffolding strategies, online collaborative writing, writing performance, EFL learners, negotiations

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years writing instructors have shown growing interest in how they can assist students in acquiring rhetorical forms of academic written language. One of the most useful techniques for supporting their learners is scaffolding, a notion which owes much to the earlier work of Vygotsky (1978, 1987) and Wood et al. (1976) who posited that learning occurs when learners interact with their social environment, particularly when they engage with more knowledgeable peers (Wilson & Devereux, 2014). In academic settings, scaffolding is a crucial element to support learners to make gradual progress from one step after another along their learning continuum. To some scholars (e.g., Hammon & Gibbons, 2005; Van Lier, 2004), scaffolding is a means of assistance granted by a supporter who has the potential knowledge to provide substances or things which can assist in the process of acquiring knowledge and enhancing the learning experience. Learners need scaffolding to move forward and reach beyond their current potential challenges. Van Lier (2004) marked six features of scaffolding: (1) contextual support – accepting errors as part of the learning process; (2) contingency – providing support depending on partner's reaction; (3) continuity – repeating the same action over time; (4) flow – allowing communication flows in a natural way; (5) handover – encouraging partners to take control when they accumulate sufficient skills; (6) intersubjectivity – showing mutual engagement and support. Therefore, in acquiring knowledge, teachers and more knowledgeable partners act as scaffolders to assist less able peers to reach higher levels of knowledge development (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Once learners show sign of progress on their own, scaffolding can be withdrawn, otherwise it can become counterproductive rather than making a positive impact (Verenikina, 2003). In an academic writing context, scaffolding can be orchestrated in various forms. Shooshtaria and Mir (2014) outlined some practical examples of guided learning through practice, including (1) joint construction of texts (group members jointly construct an essay with the teacher as a 'scribe' or 'mentor' who would suggest word choices or phrases); (2) peer response feedback when students work in small groups, using guiding questions or prompts provided by the instructor; and (3) teacher feedback (guidance information to assist future writing).

Currently, a growing interest of the centrality of tasks in online writing with an integration of technology has given rise to new pedagogy in L2 writing. Therefore, the potential links between technology and scaffolding have gained prominence (Hsieh, 2019; Rovira, 2015). The need of employing scaffolding strategies with online writing tasks to promote learning interaction and permit learners to seek support from peers requires further investigation, particularly

in a classroom where learners come from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds enrolling in an online composition course. Hsieh (2019) claimed that to date limited attention has been paid to how online resources can facilitate peer scaffolding and learners' collaborative learning experience, in particular an EFL/ESL classroom with culturally diverse learners (Kitjaroonchai & Suppasetseree, 2021a, 2021b; Li & Kim, 2016). Majid and Stapa (2017) investigated Malaysian ESL learners by employing Facebook in a blended learning classroom to explore learners' scaffolding techniques while constructing descriptive essays. All the participants were native Malaysians with similar English proficiency level. Added to that, Hsieh (2019) examined the interactions among native Chinese EFL learners with the assistance of online resources in collaborative writing (CW) assignments and how online resources support their collaboration. Large gaps remain underexplored in the investigation of how EFL/ESL learners with different L1 backgrounds who have not met each other before, interact and scaffold each other while performing online collaborative writing (OCW) tasks during the current pandemic. The present study, therefore, addresses the gap by exploring how first-year university students with different L1 backgrounds in Asian countries scaffold each other while jointly constructing their academic essays in Google Docs files.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Scaffolding

The concept of scaffolding was earlier explained by Wood et al. (1976) as a "process that enables a child to solve a problem or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 90). Likewise, in Vygotsky's (1978) translated book entitled, *"Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes"* asserted that scaffolding occurs when young learners interact with their social environment, including more knowledgeable partners or adults who could support them to move to a higher level of current performance. Scaffolding is relational by nature, engaging both the course instructor and learner's participation (Van de Pol, 2012), and is therefore related to Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) in which more capable peers assist their partners to move forward (Hsieh, 2019; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). From Vygotsky's notion of ZPD, it can be inferred that an individual's cognitive development is enhanced through assistance and scaffolding provided by more capable peers or experienced adults (Chaiklin, 2003). Through positive interactions and support from more knowledgeable peers, individual learners will enhance their cognitive functions at the higher levels, such as the ability to think more critically, the ability to improve problem-solving skills, or the ability to find a useful technique in acquiring a language in a more effective way. Therefore, scaffolding is perceived to be "a form of support for the development and learning of young learners" (Rasmussen, 2001, p. 570) in knowledge building with the assistance of teachers or capable peers who provide essential tools to enhance the learning experience (Huang, 2019). Hanjani and Li (2014) advocated that language scaffolding should conform to three conditions: drawing members' attention to the problem, giving a clarification or solution, and reciprocating the scope of task-related episodes, so that the collaborators could improve their work. Hannafin and Land (1997) further claimed that scaffolding is not limited to teacher-student or peer-to-peer interactions, but technological tools also play a vital role in enhancing individual learning curves. In a language learning context, Mavrou et al. (2010) and Gutiérrez (2006) acknowledged that the presence of computer-assisted learning tools or educational software applications promote learners' language discussions and interactions and assist in behaviors such as providing further explanations, which encourage learners to co-construct language-related knowledge while engaging in group projects. Added to this, Boggs (2019) went on to claim that even with self-scaffolded corrective feedback in English L2 writing course assisted by computer-assisted learning tools, learners demonstrated durable increases in grammatical accuracy in the long term compared to those learners who received teacher-provided scaffolding. In short, we may conclude that learners can enhance their knowledge through support from teachers and more knowledgeable peers, or even scaffold themselves through the use of instructional tools and learning applications made available today. For this reason, OCW activities become an effective pedagogical approach to increase scaffolding in the language classroom.

### B. Online Collaborative Writing With Google Docs

Online collaborative writing (OCW) tools such as Google Docs (GD) have been extensively integrated in L2 writing classrooms over the last decade (Lee & Hassell, 2021). This web-based word processing tool is designed to permit multiple writers to collaborate and edit their writing synchronously in real-time or asynchronously (Woodrich & Fan, 2017). The tool permits collaborators to construct texts in their time of convenience and space-independent fashion while using the built-in window chat or comment to interact with other team members and revisit their revision history to edit or revise their shared texts. Collaborating on the web-based tool provides opportunities for learners to negotiate on tasks, share linguistic resources, conceptualize lexical units and grammatical rules, and subsequently enhance a cognitive advantage that influences knowledge gains on an individual level (Alghasab et al., 2019; Chen, 2019; Li & Zhu, 2013). The use of web-based collaborative tools motivated learner engagement and participation in group writing and increased peer interactions (Williams & Beam, 2019; Zhang, 2019) and stimulated learners to negotiate meaning in the target language and correct each other's mistakes. Researchers (e.g., Olson et al., 2017) found that in OCW, the group whose members showed more balanced participation during the collaborative process, their co-constructed essay was positively correlated with higher rated quality, and the presence of a group leader with transparent roles was associated with higher quality written text. Furthermore, Li and Zhu (2017) went on to claim that team members who

exhibited mutual interaction patterns (highly engage or interact with peers' texts) were found to produce high-quality written text, while low quality written text was marked in groups that exhibited lower levels of mutuality. More recently, Elabdali and Arnold (2020) found that the team whose members showed high mutual interaction in both discussion posts and revisions appeared to have positive effect on the text quality of short stories. In contrast, Arnold et al.'s (2009) study showed no relationship between members' level of collaboration in group writing and their grammatical accuracy, cohesion, and overall scores of the texts. Savasci and Kaygisiz (2019) found that Turkish EFL students who were exposed to CW tasks for an entire semester spanning 14 weeks showed no preference of group work over individual writing, and they claimed that they could monitor their self-improvement more productively. Other disadvantages of CW were reported by Ghufuron and Ermawati (2018) that the inactive participation and irresponsible members added more work to the leader or the high-skilled partner, which resulted in the unbalanced workload.

The review of these previous studies shows mixed findings of OCW activities – both advantages and drawbacks. The majority of this previous research has been conducted on EFL or ESL learners who share the same native language and collaborate in small groups. Few studies have explored learners with different L1 backgrounds negotiating on tasks and scaffolding each other while co-constructing tasks via online word processor, such as GD (Kitjaroonchai & Suppasetseree, 2021a), particularly learners who are new to each other undertaking an online writing course. Therefore, there is a need for more research on how culturally diverse learners interact and negotiate on language scaffolding to perform OCW tasks. With this as a gap, this present study aims at filling this research gap by addressing the following research questions.

1. How do EFL learners with different L1 scaffold each other in OCW tasks?
2. Do scaffolding strategies from OCW tasks influence individual writing performance?

### III. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted an embedded case study (see Yin, 2009), which examined learners working in small groups, with its own bounded system but embedded within the same study site. Each sub-group was bounded by time and setting (two OCW tasks spanning ten weeks operated in an international university setting). In this present study, the frequency of learners' uses of scaffolding strategies while co-constructing two OCW tasks in GD was investigated.

#### A. Participants

The participants were 35 first-year university students coming from nine different countries in Asia, namely Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam, enrolling in a composition course at a small international university located in central Thailand. The participants' English language proficiency levels ranged from pre-intermediate to advanced [comparable to A2 – C1 based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale] as shown by their IELTS overall band scores adopted by the university where this study was carried out. Learners were teamed up in groups of three or four members, as recommended by previous researchers (Dobao, 2014) for effective team collaboration and for reducing chances of members' slacking off from group work. Learners formed their own teams, but each group should have at least one member from a different nationality. Group members could withdraw their participation during the CW process if they experienced disputes or conflicts. Since the study employed an embedded case study, the researcher conducted an in-depth investigation by examining learners in small groups: language scaffolding, their inputs and text contributions, discussion and comments in GD archives, and reflections. To fathom the phenomena being investigated in depth, the researcher selected four groups based on three criteria: (1) members were varied in English language proficiency, (2) all members in the group were from different L1 backgrounds, and (3) at least two members stayed off-campus during the time of data collection. Therefore, the embedded case in the present study shortlisted 12 students from four divergent groups. The profile of the participants is demonstrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE EMBEDDED CASES

Group	Pseudonym	Gender	Nationality	IELTS overall band score	Major of Study
G1	Joel	Male	Filipino	7.5	Public Health
	Soteal	Male	Cambodian	5.5	Education
	Sanit	Male	Thai	4.0	English
G2	Naw Moo	Female	Myanmar	6.5	Education
	Thanh Vu	Male	Vietnamese	5.0	Entrepreneurship
	Zhang Chen	Male	Chinese	4.5	Computer Information System
G3	Raynold	Male	Malaysian	4.5	Computer Information System
	Sophak	Female	Cambodian	6.5	Accounting
	Farbian	Male	Male	5.0	Entrepreneurship
G4	Linda	Female	Malaysian	6.5	English
	Bella	Female	Malaysian	5.0	Education
	Piyaporn	Female	Thai	5.5	English

#### B. Writing Tasks

The study was conducted in a composition course offered to first-year university students in the first semester of the 2021 academic year. In the present study, two types of writing genres: descriptive and argumentative essays were used for data analysis. Three controlled topics were shortlisted for each team to choose one for a descriptive essay. The controlled topics were (1) Describing your university, (2) Describing an unforgettable event, and (3) Describing your favorite place. Likewise, these controlled topics for argument were shortlisted, which included (1) Should curfews be imposed on campus? (2) Is college education necessary? and (3) Should college students have part-time jobs while they study? Each team picked one topic to collaborate via GD files and began their first OCW task in week three after receiving training for six hours during the orientation on how to use GD toolbar, including its collaboration features like comment or chat window, review version history, and editing mode in the first and second weeks of the research phase. Each group was given three weeks to complete each writing task.

### C. Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected from the students' pre- and post-test scores using Jacob et al. (1981) Composition Analytic Scoring Rubric consisting of content (30 pts), organization (20 pts), vocabulary (20 pts), language use (25 pts), and mechanics (5 pts). Students were asked to take a pre-test writing on an opinion essay entitled "*All levels of education, from primary school to university, should be free of charge*" with the average word length of 300-400 words within 70 minutes using Microsoft Word during the second week of research implementation and submit it through the learning management system (LMS Moodle). Then each group was engaged in two OCW tasks: the first task (descriptive essay) was carried out from weeks 3-5, while the second task (argumentative essay) was constructed from weeks 6-8. The team members' use of language scaffolding strategies while engaging in two OCW tasks was recorded, tabulated, and analyzed quantitatively. In week 10, the post-test was administered in the same protocol as the pre-test. Student reflections were used in discussion for data triangulation in establishing corroborating evidence and enhancing understanding of learners' scaffolding strategies.

### D. Data Analysis

Learners' pre- and post-test was assessed by three raters who have taught composition (researcher included), and the average scores were used for analysis to compare their mean scores and examine the differences in writing performance after engaging in two OCW tasks. Learners' use of language scaffolding while constructing OCW tasks was coded by adapting Hanjani and Li's (2014) evaluative negotiations on scaffolding and non-scaffolding frameworks to identify learners' negotiations on tasks while engaging in writing tasks. According to these researchers, an evaluative negotiation should conform to three conditions to be counted as scaffolding: (1) It should address members' attention to the problem being discussed, (2) It should provide alternative(s) or explanation (s), and (3) It should expand or clarify the immediate task so that members in the team could improve the quality of work. The framework of language scaffolding and non-scaffolding proposed by Hanjani and Li (2014), with their examples is illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE 2  
EVALUATIVE NEGOTIATION FRAMEWORK ON SCAFFOLDING AND NON-SCAFFOLDING

	<b>Scaffolding</b>	<b>Example</b>
<b>Evaluative Negotiations</b>	Advising	ST1: Change this to full-name to Asia-Pacific International University instead of AIU. ST2: Ok, thanks.
	Instructing	ST1: Each of us need to describe one tourist attraction in our hometown. ST2: Yes, we can do that. ST3: I agree with this idea.
	Providing options	ST1: I moved this phrase to paragraph 6 for it fits better. ST2: I thought about that too, it should be in the final paragraph.
	References	ST1: You need this source from: <a href="https://www.asiahighlights.com/thailand/chiang-rai">https://www.asiahighlights.com/thailand/chiang-rai</a> , C. Check this website ST2: Thank you.
	Response to questions	ST1: I added the specific name of the city after you ask if we should be more specific to the description. ST2: Oh, great.
	Response to request	ST1: I added "bougainvillea trees and palm trees" as you requested to be more specific to the description. ST2: That's cool.
	<b>Non-Scaffolding</b>	<b>Example</b>
<b>Evaluative Negotiations</b>	Asking question	ST1: I don't understand this phrase. What do you mean when you say "at this moment we should resolve this embarrassment?" ST2: Maybe it's my mistake. Let me check that out. ST1: Did I understand this correctly when you say "It is famous for its architecture" you mean the architecture of "the white and carving throughout centuries temple" you are describing right? ST2: Yes, you are correct.
	Clarifying	
	Expressing certainty	ST1: I'm pretty sure the flags displaced at the round-about represent the nationalities of study body in the university. ST2: Not only students but teachers or staff members too.
	Expressing uncertainty	ST1: I don't think this one is a correct counterargument and rebuttal. ST2: I'll read again from the slides the teacher showed us. ST3: I remember that counterargument can be stated in the last paragraph before the conclusion as the teacher said.
	Justifying	ST1: I understand that this term can be used as noun and verb form, and here is a noun if I'm correct. Then it should be in a plural form "designs".
	Rejecting advice	ST1: The word choice you have suggested "in the nutshell" means the same with what I wrote here "to conclude"
	Requesting advice	ST1: Would you give some ideas to add a little more detail on this body paragraph to support the topic sentence? ST2: To me, it sounds okay already.

Note: Texts were directly taken from learners' negotiation on tasks in GD comments.

#### IV. RESULTS

To respond to Research Question 1, the researcher analyzed how members in small groups scaffolded each other in task negotiations while engaging in OCW tasks by calculating their frequency counts of evaluative negotiations concerning scaffolding and non-scaffolding. The percentage of text contributions, scaffolding, and non-scaffolding used are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
PERCENTAGE OF TEXT CONTRIBUTIONS, SCAFFOLDING, AND NON-SCAFFOLDING

Group	Pseudonym	NWC Task1	Task2	PTC Task1	Task2	SCF Task1	Task2	NSCF Task1	Task2
1	Joel	646	780	73	73	23	18	15	17
	Soteal	124	160	14	15	3	5	11	8
	Sanit	115	128	13	12	5	1	12	3
2	Naw Moo	498	757	63	89	16	14	8	10
	Thanh Vu	268	43	34	5	8	5	13	7
	Zhang Chen	24	51	3	6	4	3	6	5
3	Raynold	20	122	2	12	3	5	5	6
	Sophak	803	799	82	79	7	11	3	6
	Farbian	156	91	16	9	1	2	2	3
4	Linda	511	315	59	42	7	9	7	5
	Bella	130	75	15	10	1	3	5	6
	Piyaporn	225	360	26	48	8	6	4	8

Note: NWC = No. of word counts; PTC = Percentage of text contributions; SCF = Scaffolding; NSCF = Non-scaffolding

Evaluative negotiations in the present study are classified as scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues while learners were engaged in OCW tasks in GD. The analysis showed that small groups employed both scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues to jointly construct their essays by giving advice, providing suggestions, responding to questions or requests, asking questions, or clarifying ideas while working on text revision. Based on the evaluative negotiations outlined in Table 2, 168 out of 343 (49%) evaluative negotiations from the two OCW tasks combined were categorized as scaffolding, whereas 175 (51%) evaluative negotiations were non-scaffolding dialogues. Group 1 produced the most scaffolding dialogues (55 tokens or 33%), followed by Group 2 (50 tokens or 30%) and Group 4 (34 tokens or 20%) respectively. The analysis further revealed that learners with higher language proficiency level contributed more texts in

both tasks, and they employed more scaffolding and non-scaffolding strategies to direct their teams in essay construction.

To further analyze small groups' frequency of use of scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues, the researcher investigated GD history archives for each small group and read and reread the comments from GD files where their OCW tasks were located, and coded the scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues as outlined in Table 2. The analysis of small groups' scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations in terms of frequency of use for each type are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4  
FREQUENCY OF USE FOR EACH TYPE OF SCAFFOLDING AND NON-SCAFFOLDING

Group	Pseudonym	Scaffolding						Non-Scaffolding						
		AV	INT	POT	RE	REQ	RER	AQ	CF	EC	EU	JF	RJA	RQA
1	Joel	18	9	7	3	6	3	13	8	5	2	4	0	0
	Soteal	2	2	1	0	3	0	7	3	2	3	1	1	2
	Sanit	0	0	0	1	3	2	8	2	1	3	0	0	1
	Naw Moo	13	6	3	2	4	2	7	3	3	1	3	0	1
2	Thanh Vu	3	2	3	2	2	1	9	3	1	4	1	0	2
	Zhang Chen	0	0	2	1	3	1	5	1	0	2	1	1	1
	Raynold	0	0	2	1	4	1	3	0	0	4	1	1	2
3	Sophak	7	3	2	1	3	2	4	2	1	1	0	0	1
	Farbian	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	1
	Linda	6	4	2	1	2	1	6	1	2	1	1	1	0
4	Bella	0	0	1	1	2	0	4	1	0	2	1	1	2
	Piyaporn	4	3	2	0	4	1	5	2	1	0	0	2	2

Note: AV = Advising; INT = Instructing; POT = Providing Options; RE = Referencing; REQ = Responding to Questions; RER = Responding to Requests; AQ = Asking Questions; CF = Clarifying; EC = Expressing Certainty; EU = Expressing Uncertainty; JF = Justifying; RJA = Rejecting Advice; RQA = Requesting Advice

#### A. Scaffolding Negotiations

Scaffolding negotiations were constructive supports that group members rendered to their partners to widen their cognitive skills and language development by drawing peers' attention to the language related problems, offering suggestions or solutions to improve the quality of writing in both sentence and discourse levels (Hanjani & Li, 2014). The most frequently used of scaffolding dialogues performed by small groups in the present study were "advising" (53 tokens), "responding to questions" (38 tokens), and instructing (29 tokens). Some samples of scaffolding negotiations are illustrated in the following excerpts.

##### (a). Excerpt 1. Advising (Group 1-Task 1)

(1) Joel: We might revise this as "Tourists visit Angkor Wat to see the splendid and meticulous design structures of the Khmer architecture temples (be more descriptive)"

(2) Soteal: Oh, Thank you so much.

(3) Joel: You're welcome.

In Excerpt 1, Soteal attempted to describe why tourists like to visit Angkor Wat in her home country, but her description lacked vivid adjectives. Joel gave advice by altering a sentence incorporating descriptive adjectives. In this scenario, Joel scaffolded his peer in revising the language and sentence structure by incorporating some descriptive adjectives.

##### (b). Excerpt 2. Responding to Questions (Group 1-Task 2)

(1) Soteal: Hi! Is this sentence correct and supporting the topic sentence in this paragraph because I modified it from the website?

(2) Joel: When we adapt or modify any sentence from other sources, particularly a long statement, without giving a proper source or citation, it is still considered plagiarism. Or we simply make it a direct quote and put a source where the text comes from.

(3) Soteal: Get it and thanks a lot.

(4) Joel: Great!

Scaffolding could take place in the form of responding to a question by giving further information to resolve a misconception of a particular issue being discussed. In Excerpt 2, Joel responded to Soteal's inquiry if the way she modified a statement from an online source was considered an act of plagiarism. Joel gave an explanation and offered a solution to Soteal's concern.

##### (c). Excerpt 3. Instructing (Group 2-Task 2)

(1) Naw Moo: If we say a college student should have part-time jobs, we should have legitimate reasons why we think so. We should not be in the middle without solid grounds.

(2) Zhang Chen: Yes, I agree. In this case I was trying to say if a student has economic issues, they can have a part-time job to help them get some pocket money to spend.

(3) Naw Moo: But our reason is not only for the economy. We need three elements in our thesis to argue and advance with evidence.

(4) Thanh Vu: That's right because we need to come up with three things as we learn in class to make our thesis appealing and obvious.

Scaffolding could also come in the form of instructing other peers to improve on threshold concepts that help navigate learners' perception of the subject being discussed. In Excerpt 3, Naw Moo commented on Zhang Chen's viewpoint on a student needing a part-time job to alleviate their financial constraint. Naw Moo thought such a notion was not convincing enough and there must be three other good points to support it. In this scenario, scaffolding can strengthen the thesis statement.

### *B. Non-Scaffolding Negotiations*

Non-scaffolding negotiations are peer interactions or communication that do not directly involve giving further support to improve the quality of writing. Instead, they express or react on scaffolded help initially provide by members in the group. The most frequently used of non-scaffolding negotiations used by small groups include "asking questions" (73 tokens), "clarifying" (26 tokens), and expressing uncertainty (24 tokens). Some samples of non-scaffolding negotiations are demonstrated in the excerpts below.

#### *(a). Excerpt 4. Asking Question (Group 3-Task 2)*

(1) Raynold: Can I add some information about online school in rural areas too, and how it affects students' work during this virus epidemic?

(2) Sophak: Yes, that is also okay with me to include in the discussion.

Asking questions helps the team members to clarify unclear issues or misunderstanding so that they could move on. In Excerpt 4, Raynold was curious if he should include rural schools in the paper since marginal schools also run online classes to assist students during the pandemic. Although this negotiation does not bring language development directly, it supports the team to ponder and consider incorporating the proposed ideas.

#### *(b). Excerpt 5. Clarifying (Group 4-Task 2)*

(1) Piyaporn: This long statement about curfews sounds great to me and I wonder if it is taken from an online source somewhere. If yes, make sure to provide a reference for it.

(2) Bella: I found this from a website, and I will give a source later. Thanks for reminding.

(3) Linda: Yeah, we need to provide proper sources whenever we borrow others' writings. The teacher is strict about this.

Non-scaffolding negotiations could be provided in the form of clarification when members make something clearer. In Excerpt 5, Piyaporn checked if the sentence Bella wrote was borrowed from somewhere else. If yes, a reference must appear to avoid the issue of plagiarism. Her remark was supported by Linda.

#### *(c). Excerpt 6. Expressing Uncertainty (Group 2-Task 2)*

(1) Thanh Vu: I'm not sure if this first sentence can be a good topic sentence for the body paragraph.

(2) Naw Moo: It is fine. You mean part-time jobs prepare students for career opportunity before they enter labor market right. We can add supporting sentences to this topic.

(3) Thanh Vu: Yes, noted.

When a member expresses uncertainty on issues related to a group project, the team can discuss further and draw a conclusion. In this example, Thanh Vu was unsure if a starting sentence can serve as a topic sentence. Naw Moo approved it for the statement can be advanced with supporting details. Thanh Vu took note of it.

These EFL learners were assigned to collaborate on two academic essays using GD spanning three weeks for each task. It was found that each team had a dominant writer who served as a group leader to direct the team, build rapport, and initiate the interactions to accomplish their tasks. It was not surprising that the main writer from each group was the one with higher language proficiency level (see Tables 1 and 3), and their contributions remained stable across both tasks. In the GD history archives, the members in Groups 1 and 2 were more engaged with one another, and invested slightly more time in editing and revising their essays compared to the other two groups.

To address the second research question whether scaffolding strategies used by learners influenced individual writing performance, a pair sample *t*-test was conducted to compare possible changes in the quality of writing observed through pre-test and post-test writing scores produced by learners in small groups. The analysis of the pair-sample *t*-test is shown in Table 5.



TABLE 5  
RESULTS OF LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE

Domain	Writing Test	n	Mean	SD	MD	t	df	p
Overall score	Pre-test	12	67.33	7.40	7.50	-6.01	11	.000**
	Post-test	12	74.83	8.74				
Content	Pre-test	12	20.08	2.50	2.58	-4.88	11	.000**
	Post-test	12	22.66	2.96				
Organization	Pre-test	12	13.83	1.40	1.83	-4.00	11	.002*
	Post-test	12	15.67	1.92				
Vocabulary	Pre-test	12	14.16	1.52	1.25	-5.74	11	.000**
	Post-test	12	15.41	1.72				
Language use	Pre-test	12	15.75	2.30	1.50	-2.46	11	.032*
	Post-test	12	17.25	2.83				
Mechanics	Pre-test	12	3.54	0.54	0.29	-1.73	11	.111
	Post-test	12	3.83	0.83				

Note: \*\*p < .001 (2-tailed); \*p < .005 (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 5, learners engaging in OCW tasks showed significant improvement in the post-test writing in each language domain. The overall average score of the post-test writing increased by 7.50 points: pre-test score ( $M = 67.33$ ,  $SD = 7.40$ ) and post-test score ( $M = 74.83$ ,  $SD = 8.74$ ) for all language domains;  $t(11) = -6.01$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating an increase in individual writing performance. The domain on “content” increased by 2.58 points and 1.83 points for “organization”, and “language use” 1.50 points, whereas the average score for “vocabulary” improved by 1.25 points. To further examine if there was any correlation between learners’ frequency of use of scaffolding strategies on learners’ post-test writing, Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson’s  $r$ ) was used to analyze the data, the results are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6  
CORRELATION BETWEEN POST-TEST SCORE, TEXT CONTRIBUTIONS, SCAFFOLDING AND NON-SCAFFOLDING

Variable	Descriptive Statistics			Correlation				
	N	M	SD	Post-test	PTC_T1	PTC_T2	FSC	FNSC
Post-test	12	74.83	8.74	—	.783**	.786**	.863**	.554
PTC_T1	12	33.33	28.38		—	.880**	.783**	.382
PTC_T2	12	33.33	31.59			—	.806**	.334
FSC	12	14.41	12.44				—	.769**
FNSC	12	14.58	6.99					—

Note: \*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

PTC\_T1 = Percentage of text contribution in Task 1

PTC\_T2 = Percentage of text contribution in Task 2

FSC = Frequency of use of scaffolding negotiations

FNSC = Frequency of use of non-scaffolding negotiations

As shown in Table 6, there were positive correlations between percentages of text contributions and learners’ post-test score in OCW Task 1 ( $r(10) = .783$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and in OCW Task 2 ( $r(10) = .786$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This implies that text contributions during OCW essays had a positive relationship with learners’ post-test writing performance. Furthermore, the analysis also revealed that the frequent use of scaffolding negotiations during OCW processes could encourage learners to construct better texts in their post-test writing ( $r(10) = .863$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The frequent use of scaffolding negotiations had a positive correlation with the use of non-scaffolding negotiations ( $r(10) = .769$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This indicates that learners who produced more scaffolding negotiations were also found to employ more non-scaffolding negotiations while performing group tasks. In other words, members in small groups who contributed more texts in their OCW tasks took initiatives in leading their teams using both scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations. Both scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations showed a positive relationship with the quality of the texts produced.

## V. DISCUSSION

The present study addressed two research questions. The first research question was concerned with how EFL learners with different language and cultural backgrounds scaffold each other while co-constructing essays via GD. The results showed that learners in small groups employed both scaffolding and non-scaffolding strategies during OCW task construction. The ratio of their use of scaffolding negotiations (i.e., advising, responding to questions, instructing, and responding to request) was comparable to the ratio of their use of non-scaffolding negotiations (i.e., asking questions, clarifying, expressing uncertainty, and requesting advice). These findings are congruent with the results of previous studies on students’ interactions while engaging in collaborative tasks (e.g., Hanjani & Li, 2014). These researchers posited that learners working in pairs or small groups employed both scaffolding and non-scaffolding strategies to

accomplish their goals and build social bonds. Group leaders play a significant role in engaging, scaffolding, and guiding their teammates in some way. In the present study, learners' collaborative behavior remained stable despite tasks shift. These results contradict previous studies (e.g., Li & Zhu, 2017; Elabdali & Arnold, 2020) who found that group members changed negotiation patterns and the fluidity of language scaffolding during small group CW could occur across different tasks. Nevertheless, the current findings are consistent with Li and Zhu's (2013) study which reported that small groups exhibited stable interaction patterns in providing language scaffolding in text co-construction – the main contributor in Task 1 also showed a prominent role in Task 2. In the present study the high-skilled partner played a dominant role in stimulating other peers for their collaboration. Lewis (2010) posited that learners from culturally diverse backgrounds would unlikely interact with other international partners unless they are instigated or pushed by a proactive leader to participate in team building activities and get familiar with each other first. In addition to language privilege members held in team collaborations, the roles of individuals, particularly the main author, is vital in shaping the interaction to put forth language scaffolding (Hsu, 2020; Kitjaroonchai & Suppasetsee, 2021a). In contrast, less-skilled writers play a subservient role or even withdraw their participation when they are not supported (Zhang, 2019). Therefore, high-skilled partners need to keep their teammates on task and scaffold less-able partners during text construction (Shooshtari & Mir, 2014).

From the findings, Groups 1 and 2 produced slightly more tokens of scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations due to the supportive role of team leaders as evidenced by the members' reflections. Sanit from Group 1, who had low proficiency level reflected that *"Our group has a supportive leader with great English skills who can always help us when we do our group writing in Google Docs"*. Sanit's claim was supported by Soteal who further wrote, *"My group leader comes with a strong background in English that we can take his advice and follow his suggestions"*. When group members become more familiar with each other despite their language barrier, they could still interact spontaneously in a friendly manner. The findings provide evidence that learners at the same study level, despite culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds would collaborate successfully when they build trust, become more open-minded, and receptive to new perspectives as they interact with each other. This phenomenon gives way for more capable peers to scaffold their lower-skilled partners in essay construction (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) when individuals are willing to build rapport and support each other. In contrast, if a group leader does not exhibit an active role in directing the team into negotiations, chances of scaffolding or peer interactions are unlikely to occur. The lack of scaffolding negotiations among members (which could be due to their language proficiency) kept them from active engagement in discussions at the onset, which in turn reduced their mutual interactions. This was supported by members in Group 3's statement when Raynold reflected, *"I could not help much to my group because I struggle with my English writing and could make mistakes if I write more"*, and Sophak stated, *"I led the team because after waiting for many days nobody started a line. Collaborative writing sounds strange to me for each person has different ideas. It's totally a new experience to work with someone I don't know."* This implies that a member's language proficiency can be a hurdle to contribution when not supported by a team leader.

Although these members in small groups negotiated to some extent, they were inactive in extended engagement with peer's comments on the GD chat window. In other words, their responses to comments were mostly choppy manifesting the form of a dead-end response that leads to no further discussion.

In terms of the second research question whether scaffolding strategies used influenced learners' writing performance, the present findings seem to echo recent studies on CW (e.g., Alghasab et al., 2019; Latifi et al., 2021) which asserted that EFL learners who received CW training could eventually develop essay content and organization and improve their individual writing skills. In other words, the benefits of peer scaffolding negotiations while engaging in OCW tasks could be translated into better quality work when learners construct their own essays. This might be because CW provides ample language opportunities during which learners could negotiate and interact with one another as well as monitor their CW process (Zhang, 2019). The accumulated experience from CW essay construction stimulates them to internalize knowledge gained into their individual writing (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Furthermore, peer scaffolding and positive interactions affect collaborative inquiry that helps navigate learners to internalize knowledge when they happen to construct their own texts. Peer scaffolding and positive interactions during the CW processes assist learners to recognize, rectify, and modify their language acquisition, leading to better writing practices. Therefore, the findings of this study give evidence for writing instructors to stimulate those learners who perceive writing as a personal act by illustrating that scaffolding negotiations during the CW process can support individual writing skills and nurture their language development.

## VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study was designed to investigate Asian EFL learners working in small groups that used scaffolding strategies while they were engaged in two OCW tasks in GD, and if the scaffolding strategies employed had any influence on individual writing performance. The findings showed that learners used both scaffolding and non-scaffolding dialogues to jointly construct their collaborative essays by giving advice, providing suggestions, responding to questions or requests, asking questions, or clarifying ideas while engaging in OCW tasks. It was found that one member (member with higher language proficiency) from each team dominated writing space and guided his/her peers in scaffolding negotiations. Less contribution of texts and scarcity of scaffolding strategies produced were due to

members' low language proficiency. The findings further suggested that members who generated more scaffolding negotiations during OCW processes likely constructed better texts in their individual writing. This implies that learners working collaboratively benefited from both scaffolding and non-scaffolding negotiations as they helped in task revisions while constructing their own texts.

Some implications can be drawn from this study, an important one being that, learners in small groups with cultural diversity and varied language proficiency levels performing OCW tasks scaffold each other and allow their ZPD to emerge. Knowledge is brought out and enhanced through members' interaction and peer supports. Such positive learning experiences assist learners to absorb knowledge for future access, or when they need to take steering control over the task to accomplish their goals. In addition, social interaction and negotiation in academic settings are shaped by both internal and external factors including good rapport, language competence, and social roles individuals hold that urge them to exhibit the actions. Furthermore, this study revealed that learners in an EFL writing context who contributed more texts and actively engaged in scaffolding negotiations, showed a tendency of improvement in their individual text production. This phenomenon informed us that to produce a quality of writing, writers need to endorse an exploratory and recursive writing process, and often peers intervene at several points in text production. Writing instructors need to raise learners' awareness to improve their writing quality by emphasizing that success in academic writing involves active participation in the assigned tasks, positive engagement in social interactions, and willingness to learn from knowledgeable peers. Therefore, preparing EFL learners from culturally diverse backgrounds to collaborate in a multilingual classroom context will equip them for future careers and prepare them to accept challenges in a multicultural world where English is used as a medium for business communication. To better perceive the significant role of peer scaffolding in OCW tasks via a web-based collaborative tool, the influence of scaffolding negotiations on group writing products, as well as on individual writing improvement could constitute an important research direction. Furthermore, cross-cultural collaboration among learners with cultural and linguistic differences in OCW environments deserves further investigation.

However, this study, being a case study in nature, did have its limitations. The study employed an embedded case investigating learners in four small groups engaging in two OCW tasks spanning ten weeks. In future research, a broader range of OCW tasks, prolonged engagement of members, and larger groups should be recruited to enrich data on online scaffolding strategies. Furthermore, this study examined members' scaffolding negotiations in written texts recorded in GD archives. Future research may consider adding records of real time voice-chat while members are engaged in OCW tasks.

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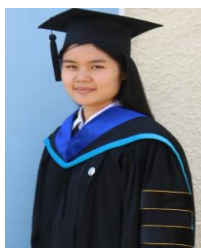
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# Impact of Artificial Intelligence, Bio Terrorism and Corporate Culture in Society: A Post-Modernist Critique on ‘Windup Girl’

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**Abstract**—Bio Terrorism is a form of terrorism in which biological agents such as pathogens, fungi, viruses, and toxins are deliberately unleashed onto the world in order to kill a wide range of humans. Bio punk theory investigates the ramifications that are most commonly associative to the rapid advances made in the field of biotechnology, synthetic biology, and agricultural biotechnology. Bio Punk is the futuristic derivative of cyberpunk theory, subgenre of science fiction. Paolo Bacigalupi's "Windup Girl" depicts the impact of corporate culture and how an advance in biotechnology eventually leads to bioterrorism. This article delves into the topic of Artificial Intelligence, bioterrorism, corporate culture, and its impact on people and society.

**Index Terms**—bioterrorism, corporate culture, Windup Girl, impact, society

## I. INTRODUCTION

Bioterrorism is a heinous crime against humanity. There are numerous scientists working in the field of biotechnology in the modern world. Infectious elements found in nature include viruses, bacteria, and fungi. Nature is the main source of living that humans are primarily dependent on. Nature bestows both good fortune and calamity on to trivial human being. "The bacteria or infections that directly affect people's lives must be killed" is the objective that it commonly follows. In reality, the world is split into numerous separatist nations firmly enclosed within their respective borders. Each country has its own political government ruling its set number of resident such as democratic, republican, autocratic, communist, and so on.

In today's world, even though the government is officially in charge of ruling the respective nations, decisions regarding the nation are extremely dependent on the moods and muses of various corporates and super powers belonging to that nation. On top of which each and every country is not in unity with the other bordering nations. They are most often trying to assert their dominance over the other nations. Within these nations as well, there is not much peace to be found. Most often, the private organisations and mega corporations are always thirsting to make more money and grow into as invincible supreme entity. In order to accomplish this, they are willing to go to any extent. They are ready to buy anything they want in the hopes of reaching their respective end goals.

Mega corporations and private supreme factions utilise biotechnology as a tool to genetically mutate and generate new types of viruses that may be marketed or unleashed as a biological weapon to threaten the government and demonstrate their inbuilt strength in order to make money. Agricultural biotechnology, often known as Agri tech, is a branch of biotechnology that uses scientific tools and techniques to modify tissue culture, genetic engineering, and vaccinations in crops, plants, microbes, and animals. Seeds can be experimentally mutated and genetically modified. Hybrid varieties of crops and plants can be invented and disseminated to farmers at a high cost using Agri tech. This eventually pollutes the various food and water sources which consequently lead to a slew of adverse effects and diseases to spring forth amongst the human population who inadvertently begin consuming the food sources. This type of activity is most often prohibited. Yet there are certain instances within history where certain group of individuals have utilised these biotechnological experimentations as weapon to create a commotion and collapse the very power of the government that is meant to govern a nation. These kinds of advances in agricultural science have been depicted within Paolo Bacigalupi's Windup Girl.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"Windup Girl" is a novel which was written and published in 2009 by the American novelist Paolo Bacigalupi. This book has been known worldwide for the many awards that it has won so far, namely the Hugo Award, the John W Campbell Memorial Award, the Nebula Award, the Seiun Award, the Compton Crook Award, and the Locus Award. This tale is set in Thailand in the 23<sup>rd</sup> century. Thailand closes all of its borders and isolates itself from other countries in order to avoid the 'calorie corporations.' Calorie firms are those that mutate and create hybrid varieties of crops that

can be sold to farmers. Global warming impacts the entire world in the twenty-first century, causing sea levels to rise and major cities to be destroyed. Thailand is one such country that has been affected by this phenomenon. It was constantly under the stress of facing imminent floods due to its surface being below sea level. To save its people and the economy, a high-rise wall and dam were being constructed. Furthermore, the supplies for producing carbon fuel were being rapidly depleted, causing a slew of new issues to spring forth. Natural resources were being depleted as a result of nature's collapse, particularly in the field of producing naturally developed organic seeds, which are entirely worn out. As a result, the field of Agri tech becomes a crucial field of great importance. Food is the most basic requirement for human survival. In agricultural research, mutant pests are also being developed as a source of food using 'genetically hacked seeds.' Due to a lack of alternative sources, private organisations such as calorie companies force farmers to purchase such crops, which in turn give rise to more complicated diseases and sudden deaths. Thailand, on the other hand, chooses to close its borders and carefully regulates calorie enterprises operating within the country.

Within the novel, Thailand is being ruled by a young queen. Somdet Chaopraya acts as the Queen's regent because the child queen is too young. Akkarat is the Trade Minister, and General Pracha is the Environment Minister, both are significant figures in the country. Anderson represents the Agri gen-calorie company in Thailand even though genetically modified seeds are still forbidden in Thailand. As a result of which, he believes that the factory he is charge of is consequently producing the internal combustion engine, which is meant to replace the production of energy resources in the absence of petroleum. Purcal and Red Star are two additional major companies that are active within Thailand as well. Hock Seng is Anderson's helper, a Chinese man with the 'yellow card,' which signifies refugee. He is an astute businessman who attempts to steal the King-Spring design, which is the concept for the new revolutionary model that has yet to be developed. However, he fails in his attempt. Jaidee is the Honourable Head of the White Shirts, who strives for the welfare of the Thai monarchy. He frequently combats unlawful smuggling, import and export. He is a strict man, and as a result of which he ends up destroying a slew of illicit products carrying viruses, genetically transformed crops, and so on. As a result, Anderson and his friend Carlyle demand that Akkarat to take action against Jaidee. With his strength, Akkarat kidnapped Jaidee's wife and threatens him to conceal their flaws and confess as if all the smuggling was being done solely by him. Following which, in the hope of saving his wife, he puts forth a false confession and is subsequently apprehended by the cops. Later, when he discovers the true face of the monsters, he escapes from the jail and attempts to murder Akkarat, but sadly he himself ends up being killed. Meanwhile, when Hock Seng learns of the epidemic spreading in the workplace, he flees. Anderson, who is also aware of this, also chooses to flee the location.

Kanya, who has taken over for Jaidee was once his most notable protege. She finds the new virus and tries to stop it while simultaneously dealing with the psychological guilt of playing the role of Akkarat's spy and of having betrayed Jaidee. She asks Gibbons, the scientist at the centre of the Thai seedbank, for help, but he turns out to be an Agri Gen defector as well. He figures out what the new disease is and gives Kanya hints that eventually lead her to Anderson's factory. Anderson meets Akkarat and Somdet Chaopraya, who is the regent for the young Thai Queen and the most powerful person in Thailand. Anderson offers to give the White Shirts a hard time by giving them a new strain of GM rice and a private army from Agri Gen in exchange for access to the seedbank and a lesser form of trade restrictions. To clinch the deal, he takes Somdet Chaopraya to Emiko's club, knowing her sexual novelty obsessions. Emiko kills Somdet Chaopraya and his group when they make fun of her and move to sexually assaulting her. She runs away and goes to Anderson for help. Akkarat moves on to convey that General Pracha is the one responsible for Somdet Chaopraya's death, and he uses this as a reason to fight against Pracha and the White shirts. Following which there are various fights brewing between different groups within the capital.

After he failed to steal the plans for the kink-springs, Hock Seng tries to kidnap Emiko for money. On the other hand, Anderson works out a deal with him. Agri Gen moves to support Hock Seng, but Emiko chooses to stay with Anderson. In just a few minutes, Pracha and most of the top men in the Ministry of the environment are then consequently murdered. Now that Akkarat is in charge of everything, he anoints his spy Kanya as the Minister of the Environment. He also gives companies that sell calorie crops complete access to Thailand and gives Anderson and Agri Gen access to the seedbank. Kanya pursues the "calorie men" to the seedbank and proceed to betray and murder the Agri Gen team. She then tells the monks at the seedbank to move the seeds to a safe place which she has already chosen. She plans for the levees around Bangkok to break, which would in turn flood the city. She does this by using the hidden military weapons that most often being kept in the seedbank.

The people of Bangkok and the capital are then move to occupy Ayutthaya. Akkarat's power is taken away from him, and is compulsorily made to become a monk. Anderson contracts the infection that started at his factory while in hiding with Emiko. Gibbons finds Emiko and promises to use her DNA to create a new race of fertile individuals, allowing her to live among her own kind. The Windup Girl is a unique and beautiful creature whose name is Emiko. Emiko is not a real person. She is in fact artificial being that has been raised and programmed to fulfil the hedonistic desires of a Kyoto tycoon. Alas she is left abandoned on the streets of Bangkok with no one to care for her. According to the plot of the novel, the rich use the New People as slaves, soldiers, and playthings. Calorie businesses run the world, the oil age is over, and the side effects of bio-engineered plagues are wreaking havoc all over the planet.

### III. DISCUSSION

### A. *Corporate Culture*

“Corporate culture matters. How management chooses to treat its people impacts everything- for better or for worse”  
- Simon Sinek

An organization's corporate culture is a mix of sociability and unity. It can be defined as a company's employees' shared ethics, values, perceptions, atmosphere, practises, attitudes, and beliefs in order to achieve organisational goals and objectives.

The significant aspects, as an individual persona who leads a business stream is to provide the employees complete freedom to speak and make them take responsibilities that help in cherishing their inborn capabilities. In corporate culture, complete guidance and support from the higher authorities like supervisor, manager etc. is very much important which motivates the employees to complete their work in a full fledged way on time in order to accomplish their objectives. The complete organization, irrespective of anyone, including the Management and all level of employees must be goal-oriented and it hardly focuses on their work in order to achieve desired results. Open communication system must be an important aspect which provides more comfort to the employees to express their criticism and disagreement regarding the workspace or organization which helps the authorities in management to solve many problems. The organisational structure of a corporation relates to its level of centralization or decentralization. The work culture of companies is well designed accordingly to fulfil the expectations and futuristic goal. In order to attain it there is a need to enforce very strict monitoring protocol and gain complete control over the employees in a positive way. The strength of the employees must be handled with a degree of patience in order to not topple over the already established work culture in the hopes of leading the company onto a more successful path. Each and every employee in an organization must be recognised for their efforts and hard work towards the completion of work that has been allotted to them. Norms and beliefs of the company must be people oriented. The action taken by the management must not affect the employees in any way. An organization should reward their employees with an appreciative note and monetary rewards should also be awarded most often. In exchange for which the employee will remain loyal towards the organization that they are working for. This in turn creates bigger impact on corporate culture.

In Bacigalupi's windup girl, Mercenary type of corporate culture is being followed where within the needs to fulfil company's objective is set as the primary task of action and the concern of the employees goes unnoticed and unwanted. Anderson's objective is to invent inorganic hybrid variety of seed though rapid innovative experimentation. Such seeds have already been recognised as the leading factor behind the many bio wars that are being fought many other countries which further leads to a global crisis where the basic food and water that they most commonly consume becomes completely hazardous. He expects all his employees to remain loyal to him even if it means the employees end up back stabbing each other. In today's life all the basic needs of human beings are being provided by the private organizations and megacorporation in order to cultivate a chain of needy customers. Most of the corporate elites play politics to fulfil their own wishes by competing with the market and playing strategies successfully to earn more money and so the whole human community become a victim to their schemes and propagandas. Thus, corporate culture acts as a bringer of danger to the human society.

### B. *Artificial Intelligence*

“Artificial intelligence will reach human levels by around 2029. Follow that out further to, say, 2045; we will have multiplied the intelligence, the human biological machine intelligence of our civilization a billion-fold.”

-Ray Kurzweil

Artificial Intelligence is the Reincarnation of human intelligence that is most commonly processed by computers using various programming and technological features such as cybernetics, robots or humanoids. Here, In Windup girl Emiko who has been invented by Japanese scientists is a genetically modified creature that has originated with the help of test tubes. This kind of human invention is created and grown within test tubes following which they undergo special training in order to explicitly obey the commands of their owners. Some of the inventions are easy to recognise as biological machines that appears as “ten-hand” workers, who can work in the fields of Japan, for instance. Some of the inventions are dangerous, as they are being equipped with fighting capacities and made to work for the Military. According to the plot, they also involve themselves in the Vietnam War and other windup attacks. And another type of Emiko like beings is created for the sole purpose of eliciting sexual pleasures of the human race. Emiko belongs to this category where she is used to satisfy the sexual pleasure of men. She is genetically encoded with the specifications such as serving and obeying the orders given by the concerned person who owns her. Well-known business men from Japan bought and taught her to not be afraid and obey his commands as it is. Later he makes her accompany him on his trip to Thailand. Due to the hike in travel expenses the business man chooses to abandon her in Thailand and return to Japan. But, the situation for wind up's in Thailand is different from Japan. Here the perspective of the society is that they are not given due respect and deemed as inferior different from other normal human beings.

Also, in Thailand people explicitly brand and mark the artificial robotic beings as a hybrid variety of humans and ill treat them. Bacigalupi created Emiko, as a sweet girl, who behave nice to everyone. Due to which she is constantly in the fear of the society, always afraid of people misusing and ill-treating her. She finds her survival within in a hotel taking on the role of a prostitute where people especially men pay decent amount of money as they watch her being



raped and beaten by other prostitutes. She is expected to perform the same act every night in Thailand. She is paid more when someone decides to sleep with her.

Even though, Emiko is the genetically modified hybrid variety of human being; she is also encoded with the ability to feel, exert emotions and make use of the five senses which humans also experience. Emiko suffers every day from the way in which she is treated by others and her only wish is to live with the group of people belonging to her same type. When Emiko is manufactured, she is instructed that her body cannot be owned by her and she must obey all the orders given by the person one who own her. Physically she looks alike normal human being. She is programmed genetically as a beautiful girl. Also, she can orgasm and have the ability to indulge in all kind of sexual activity like normal humans. Even then she is forcefully ordered to involve herself in sexual activity onstage in order to satisfy others. She is programmed to feel pain and express her feeling through crying and shedding tears. Her skin looks clear and smooth without any open pores. Hence, due to the absence of any open pores, she never sweats. On the whole, she is similar to human beings who are able to eat, think, feel, shit etc. The people of Thailand believe that Emiko is not similar to normal human being and that she doesn't have a soul. In spite of all the beliefs, Paolo Bacigalupi in *Windup Girl*, moves to depicting the inner feelings, emotions, thoughts and wants of Emiko as she moves to fight against discriminations. Except for her physical body, nothing differentiates her from normal human being.

It is ambiguous as to whether Emiko represents human form or lesser than human form. She is created by human being as a machine adorning human. She does not have any freedom of action to fall back on. Rather she always tries to express her hidden emotions in order to raise her voice against being treated like a slave and would prefer to live with the community of people who are similar to her. She feels the need to hurt people who hurt others yet the artificial intelligent programming that governs her every single movement restricts her movement and if she moves to break away from the set coding it makes her hurt herself.

Thus, Emiko the *Windup girl* is a hybrid variety of human being who suffers because of fellow human kind who did not respect her feelings and emotions. The brutal treatment that she faces at their hands is a projection of the discriminative mentality of human being which has the power to bring forth the complete destruction of the entire human community.

### C. *Bio Punk*

"This is what it meant to be you, to have. To be genetically cultivated as a perfect human specimen before birth—vaccinated and fortified, calibrated and optimized."

-Cindy Pon, 'Want'

Biopunk is a subgenre of science fiction that has a lot in common with cyberpunk. It looks at the near-future effects of bio-engineered technological revolution that is seemingly said to have started with the very discovery of the recombinant DNA. Biopunk stories are generally associated with the everyday problematic scenarios faced by people or groups who are often the end results of human experimentations. These stories are most often set in a dystopian world where biotechnologies are widely used for social control and profit. They are often produced by totalitarian governments and mega corporations. It is not based on information technology such as what is being done in cyberpunk; hear everything has to do with biology. Instead of cyber-ware, as in post-cyberpunk fiction, people are often changed and improved as result of subtle manipulations of their inborn genes. A common part of Biopunk fiction is the "black clinic," a lab, clinic, or hospital where illegal, unregulated, or morally questionable biological engineering and modification procedures are most commonly undertaken. William Gibson's *Neuromancer*, commonly recognised as the first cyberpunk novels, can be anointed as the precursor to how a proper Biopunk fiction is to be written.

The main focus of Biopunk is on *nova*, a concept which is driven by biology, especially genetic engineering. Since the late 1990s, genetics has been the place where science has changed the most, with successes like food genetic manipulation and patenting (like the *Flavr Savr* tomato in 1994), cloning (like *Dolly*, the cloned sheep in 1997), transgenic experimentation (like Dr. Vacanti's "earmouse" in 1995 or Dr. Randy Lewis' spider/goat splice in 2010), and gene editing (cf. Ness 336, 351). This change in how people talk about science is reflected in biopunk, which is a creative way of looking at not only the technological potential of further progress that can be made in the field of genetics, but also the environmental and social effects that these advances may actually bring forth. For example, genetic engineering and the social cost of transgenic experiments are talked about in Atwood's *Madd Addam* trilogy. Paolo Bacigalupi's book *The Windup Girl* is also a novel that addresses concepts such as the genetic patenting and the terrible effects of eating foods that are most commonly genetically engineered.

In Bacigalupi's *windup girl*, bio punk theory plays a vital role. Here in this book, the latest elements of bio technology is exploited. The formula for the hybrid seed is most commonly referred within the novel as new *kink* spring seeds are being created which result in the development of a new form of a plague which has the power to eradicate the whole human race. Also *windup girl* in itself is a human creation with the help of DNA recombination. The government of Thailand tries to ban the manufacturing of genetically created seeds which causes drastic harmful repercussions and it is later deemed toxic to the human body. Even today, in midst of the real world the market sells a wide variety of hybrid fruits and vegetable which could be deemed harmful to the human body. They could create irreversible long lasting effect on the human body. Some of those impacts are known to act against the very immunity that is built within the human race. It is known to have the power to affect certain parts of our body such as the liver or the kidney,

changing the composition of blood cells, affecting the DNA and so on which could result in giving birth to children who are mentally disordered or handicapped.

Bacigalupi builds a fictional storyline showcasing the possible immediate effect that can rise out of consuming genetically modified foods in his novel *wind up girl*. The government takes appropriate measures to prevent the spread of genetically modified seeds, while private firms and megacorporations serve as a supreme authority with the power to control those within Thailand. The supreme powers manage to manufacture and supply their bio-engineered hybrid products without any form of approval begotten from the local government body. Also due to global warming and climatic change, all the natural resources are erased from existence and in its place more man made or artificially created products are being sold and utilised. These give rise to the origin or establishment of many seed manufacturing conglomerates. These industries believe that by genetically modifying seeds they can prevent certain allergies and diseases from existing. They simply believe that by removing the basic ingredients that cause these diseases and allergies, the society would become completely utopic. They also believe that the growth of these seeds will be faster and easier when compared to naturally grown seeds. Also these seeds can easily grow in any climatic conditions. Generally crops are known to grow in specific climatic conditions but genetically engineered crops have the ability to grow under any climatic conditions and also it gives more productive yield. But these shortcuts that has to do with the production of seeds also contain a lot of side effects and tend to be harmful to human health.

Bacigalupi's *wind up girl* is set in a timeline that is yet to come. In this particular timeline, only genetically modified fruits and vegetables are available. Calorie companies are the ones who occupy the food sector all over the world. Due to global warming and various climatic conditions, no organic crops or seed or food is available anywhere. To avoid the scarcity of food, technological enhancements contribute a lot to the increase in the production of artificially engineered crops. Thus, in future being healthy becomes a question mark to everyone.

#### *D. Post Modernism*

Postmodernism is a broad term that belongs to the field of social and cultural studies. It is a change in viewpoint that has drastically affected different disciplines such as humanities and social sciences, language and literature, art and architecture, fashion and communication, technology and so on. Most people agree that the shift to a postmodern way of thought process began at the very end of 1950s and is being continued on even in the present contemporary age. Postmodernism has majorly contributed to the major shifts in power and the resultant dehumanising activities that took place at the very end of World War II, not to forget the rise and fall of consumer capitalism. Postmodernism seems to have something to do with Modernism just by its name. Modernism is an earlier style that had been popular in the first few decades of the 20th century. Postmodernism is the expansion of modernism which observes differences and difficulties that were being faced during the particular movement and it enhance them.

Modernism and postmodernism are very much similar in most aspects. Both encounter different schools of literature that disagree with the idea of dissimilarities to be found between maximum and minimum levels of art. Even more, postmodernism becomes chaotic when it collapses in the context of maximum and minimum levels of art, the past literature with the futuristic one, or one genre with another on purpose. Postmodernism uses light hearted parody, which Modernism also did, by putting together things that don't go together. Pastiche, which is copying someone else's style, was used by both of these schools. In Modernism and postmodernism, works often belong to the genre of pastiche, parody and self-reflexivity. These significantly mean that literary works that contain parody, pastiche, stress and remind the viewer or reader about the work which is not "real," but made up. Modernist and postmodernist based literary works are all mostly fragmented which makes it difficult for the readers to understand. The writers want their respective works to be vague and open for interpretation. They refuse to fix their works to insinuate a certain fixed meaning or ideology. The characters or subjects shown in these works are often dehumanised and stripped of a central goal or meaning in life. Like Tiresias in "The Waste Land," the protagonists lose their unique qualities and become a stand-in for an age or civilization.

Modernism and Postmodernism encompasses threat and chaos that majorly contributed to the fragmented reality of the 20th century. In the 20th century, the western world begins to recognise their in-depth feelings of insecurity as it lost its built up alliances in the face of Third World war. It also critically targets the gathered sufferings that tore the lives of those who took part in the two major World Wars.

In postmodernism, being broken up and confused in literature is not seen as an act of sadness and despair. It is not necessarily dreadful. Postmodernism parallelly embraces the way things are shattered. It thinks that being fragmented is the only way to live and doesn't try to get away from these circumstances. From a Derridian point of view, the main focus is always shifting toward the corners, and the corners are always moving toward the important centre. In other words, the main part of focus i.e. centre, where power is being held, is not under the control of humanity. It gradually makes those in power to tumble down, while those who are not in power keep trying to gain some. So, one could say that there is no set reality. It is all interchangeable and that there is always more than one set reality. "Derrida called this delay of the centre becoming powerful or keeping its place "difference". As a result, Postmodernism commemorates fragmentation which relies on the trust in difference and a notion that integration; intelligibility, progression, and explication are always being put off" [1].

Thus, Bacigalupi's book *wind up girl* is an extract of Post Modernism because it deconstructs the human belief that the new version of human that are being created with the help of technological advancements in bio technology are

superior in many ways. When such creation becomes unacceptable and failure, human beings become the cause behind their own devastations.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Thus, in Paolo Bacigalupi's windup girl, Bio terrorism in corporate culture has been analysed from a postmodern perspective. Human intelligence itself leads to the devastation of the complete human society. Artificial fragmentation of biotechnology becomes a major significant reason behind the sufferings of people. This research article explores many aspects of bioterrorism and defects in the corporate culture from a postmodern perspective in order to create awareness for the sake of humanity.

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# The Rhizomatic Arab American Identity in Laila Halaby's *West of the Jordan*

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**Abstract**—This paper is an exploration of Arab American identity in Laila Halaby's novel *West of the Jordan* in relation to postcolonialism. The purpose of this paper is to trace Arab American identity development *West of the Jordan* and to negotiate how the Arab American identity manifested itself in the diaspora to create a rhizomatic identity whose multiplicity denies singularity. The process of identity negotiation for bicultural individuals is psychologically challenging. Arab Americans in particular deal with this process in an environment where they are continuously viewed as "The Other." Using the concepts of Homi Bhabha, Edward Said, and Stuart Hall in relation to the postcolonial theory, as well as Gilles Deleuze and Felix Guattari's concepts of the rhizomatic identity, the study analyzes how Arab American identities are represented in the work of Halaby.

**Index Terms**—Arab American identity, identity negotiation, diaspora, post-colonialism, rhizomes

## I. INTRODUCTION

Contemporary American literature has explored the construction of the Arab American culture, giving way, in turn, to a solid platform for a literature that pertains to this minor group. Lisa Majaj, in her article, "Arab-American Ethnicity: Locations, Coalitions, and Cultural Negotiations," explains how the prosperity of Arab-American literary production in the past years reflects "the shifting historical, social, and political contexts that have pushed Arab-Americans to the foreground, creating both new spaces for their voices and new urgencies of expression, as well as the flourishing creativity of these writers" (1999, p. 65). This flourishing is a product of writers who found themselves immersed in a heavily assimilated American context; a cultural milieu where they, eventually, integrate with using their original culture and creating cultural hybridity. Thus, when reading most of their writings, readers can see their suggested psychological mechanisms of responding to the pressure of maintaining their Arab identity while still preserving their steady paces to assimilate to various cultural, political, and racial backgrounds.

*West of the Jordan* by Laila Halaby is an expressive novel by a female writer who is both Arab and American. Halaby is the daughter of a Jordanian father and an American mother and is currently living in Tucson, Arizona with her family. In an interview, when she was asked about what inspired her to write about women coming of age in both Palestine and America, Halaby answered:

Mostly because these were the people in my world, but also because I was intrigued by the perception, or misperception, of Arab women versus the reality of Arab women. So often I would hear words like "submissive," and yet the Arab women I knew were among the strongest women I'd met. I am also interested in the effect that occupation, and exile, whether self-imposed or not, has on an otherwise intact family set-up. (Beacon Press, 2003)

Through the chronicles of four young cousins narrated in 1<sup>st</sup> person singular, Halaby engages her readers in the lives, relationships, and love stories of girls seeking their national, cultural, and gender identities in *West of the Jordan*. Mawal is the steadiest one, as her life and identity are secured in the Palestinian traditions of the West Bank. Hala is wavering between two opposing worlds—Jordan and America. Khadija is petrified by the sexual freedom of her American friends, and mutilated, physically and mentally, by her abusive father. Soraya is misled while trying to copy life in a foreign land, and inept in coping with the fast culture of California youth. Intertwining their stories, Halaby grants us the chance to see each cousin from multiple points of view.

In *West of The Jordan*, Halaby creates an original story, eye-opening into the rich and intricate Arab world. Henceforth, this paper is concerned with presenting an overview of the novel and approaching the protagonists from the theoretical angle of hybridity and rhizomatic identity. The aim of this paper is to scrutinize the characters, their life experiences, and their surroundings. The typical image of a rhizome seems to render itself as either explicit and verified, or, demolished and obscure in the characters, their life experiences, and the surroundings. The process of analysis targets mainly: Hala, Mawal, Soraya, and Khadija.

## II. DISCUSSION

The analysis begins with the place as a rhizomatic entity. Most significant of all places is the village "Nawara," Mawal's hometown, as it crystallizes the rhizome theory. In describing the rhizome, Deleuze and Guattari (2004) state that in its planar movement the rhizome defies organization, "instead favoring a nomadic system of growth and propagation" applying the same description to culture, they argue:

In this model, culture spreads like the surface of a body of water, spreading towards available spaces or trickling downwards towards new spaces through fissures and gaps, eroding what is in its way. The surface can be interrupted and moved, but these disturbances leave no trace, as the water is charged with pressure and the potential to always seek its equilibrium, and thereby establish smooth space. (p. 25)

Therefore, the rhizomatic character is almost always flexible and resists molds of categorization. Correspondingly, some places have their very special marks, while other places are just blunted with no distinct traits, "daytime normal with an occasional scary night, too thick silence, or a shrill scream to jazz them out of dusty boring" (Halaby, 2003). Through Mawal's person-first narrative, every place is marked with a special scent, and a special feeling: "you can talk about a place by the feeling you get from it, like the creepy feeling place." A significant place is just a character; i.e., every distinct place has its own character, atypical of stereotyping, filled with its own special memories, spreading scents and feelings, that are unique and incomparable, just like an indefinite-shaped rhizome. The word "Nawara," means flowers or blossoms, and Halaby remarks that when Nawara is mentioned, "a hillside small white flowers comes to mind, or the fragrant new blossoms on an orange or an almond tree" (p. 14).

Mawal goes on to describe her village as "an island," that is "famous for beautiful embroidered dresses" although the other villages that surround it, "do not embroider at all" (p. 15). The embroidery is reminiscent of the fingerprints which precisely distinguish one person from the other, and this is also suggestive of the fourth characteristic of rhizomes mentioned in the introduction: "cartography and decalomania." Again, decalomania is the process of transforming designs from paper onto glass or porcelain; yet, the designs here are transformed on cloth.

Deleuze and Guattari point out, "The rhizome operates by variation, expansion, conquest, capture [and] offshoots" (p. 79); the same is the embroidery in Nawara, Mawal says:

"The complicated embroidery on our Rozsa –with both Palestinian and western stitches and patterns—capture the spirit of Nawara, which sits at the top of the West Bank, [...] far enough away from both of these places to be a peaceful village that only every so often releases an avalanche of stones and fire. This is something that happens more often as the Israelis take parts of our village to build their settlements." (p. 15)

The idea of expansion, conquest, variations, and offshoots are apparent. There are always variations, movements, and maneuvers until stability and equilibrium prevail. Indeed, the metaphor of the embroidery builds up the perfect rhizome.

Another point remains in the analogy between Nawara and the rhizome, which is the ability to be reconstructed after rupture, to replicate and rebuild itself again. This same idea is mentioned about Nawara when Mawal says, "Nawara could have a smaller version of herself in the United States, which is like an army calling all able-bodied young men away and then never returning the bodies" (p. 15). Mawal believes that Nawara could have been replicated in the States, and the States is likened to an army that grabs the powerful youth and never sends them back; that is to say, something is being ruptured here, the whole is no longer a whole. In other words, the rhizome is being ripped, but this time the rebuilding fails.

Concerning time, Deleuze and Guattari point out that the rhizome can change our conception of history as being linear, or moving onward over time. Different histories move at different speeds, sometimes progressing in some ways and sometimes freezing. There are also aspects of chance, which govern the manner in which the rhizome might branch out in a non-hierarchical way. In this sense, the rhizome is most similar to the process of thinking, since thoughts shoot off rhizomatically in different directions, and since memory is also thinking; thus, memory is a rhizome. Memory is but combining past and present in a non-linear structure; in a way, memories are different personal histories going forward at some points and freezing at others. When memory goes ahead of its present time and when it freezes, it is linked to the past and to places and people. This idea of the irregular fusion of time, place, people, and memories is presented in Halaby's *West of The Jordan*:

The house tells stories of courage and sadness and joy in every season, and now they come back to you at the wrong time, at the right time, at times that make you hate where you live, or love it more than you can make your words describe. (p. 2)

The rhizomatic characteristic of memory and time is obvious in being a movement forward and backward in time with no linearity in different directions as a memory pops up illogically and unreasonably. Moreover, Hala in the first part says that her father can see the memories of her mother in her eyes; i.e., from a multiplicity of disturbed emotions, memory emerged in a concrete sense, "I loved your mother," Hala's father says, then Hala adds, "perhaps seeing my memory"; "the memory comes in my eyes, burning like the sun that is setting" (p. 13).

The episodic structure of the novel aims at highlighting the individuality of experience in each character. Each single story remarkably highlights the dilemma of the identity of the four females within an Arab and Arab American cultural milieu. Mawal comments on her villagers saying, "but mostly everyone one else is like rice without enough salt, who you only remember because you see them every day, and not like the hot pepper ones, who you remember because of the burn they leave" (p. 22); i.e., the villagers share the common birthplace, community teachings and tradition; only

some minority tend to develop special individualistic traits that distinguish them from the rest; those minorities are the rhizomatic characters.

The first voice that the reader hears in the novel is Hala's. The four female characters of *West of The Jordan* are equally substantial in their pursuit of gender, exile and diaspora issues in novel. Through their relationships, especially maternal ones, they all uncover several features of the diasporic experience in America. However, Hala is the most successful of all as she managed to maintain a balanced standpoint between the two poles of her existence. She could be rightly categorized as true a hybrid individual; in other words, she is actually both Arab and American equally. However, some personal arenas where Hala was unable to attain perfect balance remain because she was primarily displaced and somehow tortured by the death of her mother.

After the passing of her mother and upon her return home, Hala finds it difficult to authenticate her Arab American identity as she faces her father who informs her that he does not wish her to return back to America to pursue her university degree there. Hala declares that, "[w]hile she [Hala's mother] was alive, my father respected her wishes, but not even two days into my mourning her death, he made it clear that he was going to be the one to make the decisions about my life from then on." On his repeated saying, "Hala, it is time for you to be with your family, I'm sure you understand. You must think about your life now, and plan to put your roots here as a woman." Hala begins to imagine her existence in Jordan as "to rot"-- the very term her late mother described her own existence. Latifa, Hala's eldest sister, thought "I was to replace my mother with a husband. I was to stay in Jordan forever. Marry [...]. Have children. Be someone else's burden." This decision would force her to stay in Jordan and follow the conventional Arab codes of feminine role; however, Hala rebels. At this point, Hala's American identity prevails: "Maybe I spoke because I had learned to move my tongue like an American. Maybe it was just my grief that made me lose control. Or anger. I am going back with Hamdi and Fay' "(p. 45). Hala's father also witnesses a drastic change in his attitudes: instead of being a traditional Arab father who is merely anxious about his family's honor, to being a new understanding father caring about the wishes of his daughter, as he acquiesced in his daughter's desire and let her go.

This is typically reminiscent of *The Second Sex* by Simone de Beauvoir (2009). The book is preoccupied with the recognition of the vast differences between the interests of the two sexes and its attack on men's biological, economic, and psychological discrimination against women. Simone de Beauvoir mentions how male domination is not inherent or fated but conditioned at every stage of development. She claims that "Man learns his power." Hala's father is exemplary of the males referred to by de Beauvoir; he experiences a shift of power and domination as his daughter experiences empowerment and gains a voice. Hala could voice out her desires out of anger or out of sadness; yet, she found a voice for herself.

In his book, Stuart Hall (1996) investigates how important it is for an individual to question, understand, and adopt his identity. He provides theoretical and substantive insights into the human identity contemporary manifestations. Without privileging anyone's approach to problems accompanying the formation of identity, Hall raises a number of significant questions and offers insights into different approaches to understanding identity. In doing so, he both illuminates and advances debates about identity. In this context, Hall's concepts provide a better understanding of Arab Americans as a cluster of identities with different cultural backgrounds; one can never tell which side of identity will take over and when. When Hala spoke out of anger, the ability to express anger means power. In this case, her American identity took over in the sense she was able to fight for her rights much against the will of her father. But if she spoke out of sadness and despair, this could have been her Arab identity coming to the surface. In other words, if Hala felt defeated and desperate and she spoke out of her hopelessness, she still advocates a weaker perspective of herself as she was not able to perceive that it was her right to say "no." However, in due course, she was able to find a voice.

The second character is Mawal; she is the cousin of Hala, Soraya, and Khadija. "Mawal has never left her motherland; Palestine, yet, she feels alienated by the pressure of political and intellectual occupation of Palestine by the Jewish forces" observes Zbidi, 2014,p.450). In *West of the Jordan*, there are thirty-seven stories: only seven of which are recounted by Mawal. Those stories communicate significant sequences in the lives of the characters as well as other Palestinians. 'Nawara,' in part one, introduces her Palestinian heritage underlining the significance of places in one's identity. The reader becomes acquainted with facts about Mawal's village through the detailed visual descriptions she provides. She even employs transliteration in order to make it easier for non-Arabic speakers to comprehend the context she is relating (Zbidi, 2014, p. 451). Mawal says "our village is called Nawara, which means flowers or blossoms. When you say it, Nawa-waara..." (p. 15). Through her depiction "of the lives of different generations of Palestinian women including, her mother and her grandmother, Mawal creates a mosaic echoing the diversity and the richness of cultural and social history surrounding Palestinian women" (Zbidi, 2014, p. 451).

The stories Mawal narrates in her narratives are selected from her memory. She contextualizes striking personal moments that exemplify and embody a plain depiction of the intolerable history of Palestinians women. However, those peculiar stories also reproduce Mawal's own emotional state of anxiety and dislocation, even in her very homeland. Those stories depict tormented women enduring various kinds of physical, social, and political subjugations and detentions (Zbidi, 2014, p. 451). Among the stories told by the female narrators is "Crossing" where she recounts the story of a Palestinian woman who had been living in Puerto Rico and then chose to return to her homeland Jenin because she doubts "how [she] can let her children grow up in a place where girls are women at eleven years old" (p.

52). Mawal claims, that as life under the Israeli occupation gets harder," fathers are willing to release their daughters to a different world," Farah was one of these "released daughters." In describing Farah, Mawal says, "her voice is thick as she spills her sadness..." (p. 47); Farah's misery climaxes in the scene where she was inspected before crossing the boundaries into her hometown: "Women guards poked around with rubber gloves and Farah felt nothing—no anger, nothing more than tiredness" (p. 49).

Investigating Mawal's stories, we understand the antiquity of Palestinian women. It is essential to distinguish that the history of the suppression of Arab women still marks the lives of those women who inhabit the Arab world. Undeniably, Mawal's sense of displacement and un-belonging is mostly because of the severe social, historical and political conditions of women in Palestine. The fact that their own territories are occupied by the Israelis had turned their lives into distasteful, restrained, and under everlasting hazard. Halaby's novel, *West of the Jordan* does not depict a full portrait of Mawal's character and individuality, with regard to the other three character/narrators in the story. However, she sustains a central mission as the storytelling of the other women's dislocation.

In *Fragmented Selves: Temporality and Identity in Borderline Personality Disorder*, Thomas Fuchs asserts how the subject is unable to hold an experience or stable sense of self when impacted by past experiences. Fuchs's *Fragmentation* may be hypothesized as a lack of "narrative identity" which implies a continuity of the personal past, present and future. This is typical of Halaby's Mawal: "The human identity is essentially based on the capacity of persons to integrate contradictory aspects and tendencies into a coherent, overarching sense and view of themselves for one's self" (Fuchs, 2007, p. 179). In other words, although she does not possess a distinct identity of herself, in her projection of the Other, her identity is partly formed.

The third cousin is Soraya who lives in Los Angeles and is aware of her condition as one who does not entirely belong in either culture. Her father does not seem to have control over his family. His mere source of power comes from the money he earns from his business. Soraya declares: "[m]y mother is the strong one in our house and people would probably make fun of my father if it weren't for all the money he has . . . So men respect him because of his success" (p. 26).

As Zbidi (2014) observes, Soraya's father could be considered as representative of the transformation in the established deep-rooted Arab ideals for immigrants in America. He represents a vast alteration from the conservative worth of fatherhood that is pervasive in the Arab world. Instead, he has achieved the American dream of financial success, yet, he has abandoned his Arab father's duties leaving his daughter to the unethical practices of Western society (Zbidi, 2014, p. 449).

Soraya experiences a course of self-inflicted sense of dislocation, in the sense that she is unable to locate herself in any of her heritages (the Arab or the American one). She is torn between her desire to follow her own wishes and to express herself in her own way, on the one hand. On the other hand, she challenges her parent's conservative ethics and yearns for the American way of self-assertion and independence. In this sense, she finds pleasure away from the chains and restraints forced on her at home. Soraya embarks on a deep sense of displacement. She exists within two disparate cultures and fails to establish herself as a component of either one. Soraya leads a double life where she has no distinct space of her own.

In this sense, Edward Said (1978) began studying the cultural struggles of Arab people in exile; he explored the relationship between the Enlightenment, which reinforced much of western high culture and philosophy, and colonialism. This led to the publication of his most influential book, *Orientalism*, which enticed the western world to reexamine their perception of the Islamic world. In Halaby's novel, much of what the second-generation knew of their heritage was focused on village life and its folklore. The majority of the immigrants knew little about the great-Arab Islamic contributions to civilization. Accordingly, second and third generations of Arab Americans exhibited minor attention to their ethnic backgrounds. In this sense, Zbidi (2014) observes that "Soraya abhors compliance and communicates her offense and rebellion against her mother and her Arab culture through the act of dancing-- something that her family often criticizes her for as they only care for the family image. Soraya employs dancing to release her unfulfilled aspirations and to escape from her displacement in a world of cultural clashes" (p.450). In other words, while struggling to achieve her own desires in a land of freedom, Soraya has to obey her parents' traditions; she often disgraces them and satisfies her desires opposite to what Arab ethics dictate. In her story "Fire," she admits:

This year I told my family a thousand and one lies and went to disco and danced for a beautiful man who came to love me, love me so much that I carried his credit card, wore his jewelry, and had lunch with him until I satisfied him in every way. (pp. 28-29)

Soraya fully admits the unethical conduct of her practices and that it is completely denounced in her mother's culture, yet she resorts to it in a sense of self-revenge; she both hates herself for doing so and then tortures herself again by committing it perpetually. In this respect, Hall offers his deconstructionist approach; it is a re-conceptualization of identity as a dynamic process of continual identification. Hall believes that identification is always either an over-appropriation or an under-appropriation, never a complete appropriation; this is Soraya's case; she is never fully appropriated to the same American society, which on a surface level, she seems to adore.

The fourth narrator is Khadija, the cousin of Hala, Mawal and Soraya. Her first story "Sand and Fire" introduces some of the outlines that form Khadija's manners and inform her awareness of the world around her. As Zbidi (2014) notes, Khadija starts by providing a positive comment on the origin of her name by penetrating into its Islamic roots.

She says, "in Islam, Khadija was the Prophet Muhammad's wife. She was much older than he was and had a lot of money. He was said to have loved her very much." She accentuates the extent of reverence and love that encircled the life of the prophet's wife. However, Khadija, then, underlines the ugly reality of her Arabic name in America: "In America my name sounds like someone throwing up or falling off a bicycle. If they can get the first part of it right, the Kha' part, it comes out like clearing your throat after eating ice cream" (p. 36).

Zbidi (2014) further argues that Khadija is aware of the misinterpretation that the contrast between her Arabic name and her white features are likely to prompt in the minds of her American friends and teachers. She mainly has to withstand her father's offensiveness and irresponsibility, which he attributes to his unsuccessful American dream (p.447). Khadija remarks that her father "has many dreams that have been filled with sand. That's what he tells me: 'This country has taken my dreams that used to float like those giant balloons, and filled them with sand. Now they don't float, and you can't even see what they are anymore.'" Khadija's father, who works as a part-time mechanic, is an alcoholic. He believes that the majority of immigrants who immigrate to global cities are disturbed and that their ability to support themselves and their families is so inadequate in their homeland that they may resort to migration as the only resolution. Khadija's father is infrequently physically abusive to her; however, in a way, he is not a stable character, he wavers between being aggressive and being kind; as Khadija says: "sometimes my father loves my mother –and the rest of us– so much that he becomes a kissing and hugging machine. Sometimes, though, he is an angry machine that sees suspicious moves in every breath" (p. 37).

Therefore, Zbidi (2014) concludes that the behavior of Khadija's father is associated with his depression and his nostalgia for his homeland (p. 447). Khadija argues: "[m]y ache comes from losing my home," my father tells us a lot" (p. 39), and "[t]hat evening my father started talking about the sand that filled his dreams again. 'How could you not be a little crazy when you have watched your dreams be buried the way I have?'" Khadija describes her grandfather saying: "Siddi has been staying with us for a while. He is very old and sometimes smells of going to the bathroom" (p. 192). While heavily drunk, Khadija's father's offensiveness culminates, when he harassed both his father and baby son. Khadija narrates:

Baba sets on fire and I'm in the kitchen trying to be invisible and slap Sidi slap and the baby cries, so I go to see and Hamouda's arm is in my father's teeth and blood and then Siddi comes up to hold my father or take the baby from him, and my father hits him hard, his own father, and knocks him to the floor and then goes back to the baby who is just crying and crying and crying. (p. 207)

Khadija was brave enough to act: "I do what I have never done. I run to the phone and dial 911 like they say to do in school" (p. 207). The moment Khadija remembers what they say in school, she is being American; i.e., she is identifying with her own American side; this act of identification quickly saved the situation. Once the police came to find the father lying over the baby son, the fire was put out; the father's anger washed away: "my father's fire just goes away, like it started raining inside him and he lets them take him" says Khadija. Khadija starts to remember her double identity, asking herself what would happen when the mother came home to find Khadija responsible for arresting her father. However, instantly, Khadija returns to her quietness, she narrates, "I close my eyes tight and imagine she's here. 'It's okay, little cucumber, ' I whisper in English in Hamouda's ear. 'We'll be okay. We'll be okay, God willing'" (p. 208). The last sentences epitomize her hybridity: she comforts her baby brother, and herself before him, that they will be okay, but never forgot to proceed her self-assertion statements with "God Willing."

The fathers of the four female narrators play a crucial role in the narrative as well. In her article, "The Representation of fatherhood by the Arab Diaspora in the United States," Marta Bosch (2008) argues that "in Laila Halaby's *West of the Jordan* there is a varied account of fathers, from strict and abusive, through careless, to a father that starts being traditional but learns to open his mind" (p. 101). She terms Arab masculinity as an "especially hybrid and contradictory type of masculinity". While Arab masculinity mainly refers to conventional patriarchal values, it also "allows liberal practices that contradict those traditional discourses". Daniel Monterescu asserts that, as a result of these ambivalences, Arab masculinity is a "situational masculinity" which is an outcome of a mixture of discourses and so it is in a liminal position. He perceives Arab masculinity as a "location which lies between Islamic masculinity (characterized by its conservatism) and the liberal-secular masculinity that is also developing in the Arab world (characterized by its tendencies toward modernity and Westernism)" (2006, p. 123).

The argument exemplifies Homi Bhabha's view in his *Location of Culture* (2004), where he proposes that the individual can employ a mixture of cultures to construct his identity. Bhabha points out that society operates as a mirror capable of showing the subject images of "selves" that it deems respectable (p. 102). Bhabha uses concepts such as mimicry, interstice, hybridity and liminality, which are all influenced by semiotics and Lacanian psychoanalysis; emphasizing that "cultural production is always most productive where it is most ambivalent" (p. 23). Bhabha's view perfectly matches what Monterescu calls "situational masculinity" where the hybrid man occupies the liminal space between his traditional ancestors and the culture of the new world. He is being showed "images of himself" by the society each at a time according to the urgency of the situation (p. 124).

In light of the ambivalent position of fathers in the land of exile, Hala's father stands in uniqueness as a perfect example of "situational masculinity," being able to shape and reshape according to the necessity of the situation. An example is when he changed his mind concerning Hala's desire to pursue her education, yielding to the desire of his daughter. Hala's father undertakes a massive change as the story develops, from being an old-fashioned father only



concerned about his family's reputation and not her daughter's desires, to being open-minded, and understanding of his daughter's needs. By the end of the novel, when Hala returns to the United States, she has acknowledged the importance of her ancestries, and decides to wear a roza, the typical Jordanian embroidered dress; in the meantime, her father realizes the existence of other modern cultures that entails that she wears jeans (p. 203).

Khadija's father is set in clear contrast to Hala's father. He is the drunkard who justifies his aggressive attitude to the failure of achieving his dreams: "This country has taken my dreams that used to float like those giant balloons, and filled them with sand. Now they don't float, and you can't even see what they are anymore." However, he is not a flat character, but is labeled as existing in an "ambivalent" position, where he can be both good and bad; in other words, he is exemplary to "situational masculinity." As Khadija says, "[s]ometimes my father loves my mother –and the rest of us– [...] Sometimes, though, he is an angry machine that sees suspicious moves in every breath. But most of the time he is sad, his thoughts somewhere I cannot visit" (p. 37). Occupying the liminal space of ambivalence alongside a natural tendency towards depression and frustration, Khadija's father becomes a character fluctuating between good and bad and almost always resorts to aggression.

As Soraya is the opposite of Khadija, her father is the exact opposite of Khadija's father. Soraya's father is a disempowered man, who does not hold responsibility for his family and whose only power comes from money, as Soraya puts it: "Money is his favorite thing, like somewhere along the way he decided he could only focus on one thing and he thought better money than family, less headaches. So, men respect him because of his success" (p. 26). Soraya's father has altered traditional Arab standards for traditional American ideals... Khadija's father was primarily concerned with her behavior and reputation and was a failure in making money; Soraya's father was successful in money-making indifferent to Arab traditions and morals. In short, the "situational masculinity" has been altered for both, i.e., they both are exposed to the same ambivalence, but they chose to react differently in two opposite ways.

Finally, Mawal's father is hardly visible in the text, but in the few occurrences where he shows up, he seems a gentle father. Mawal lives in Nawara, Palestine with her family, and she is very involved with them and their customs, and so there are no clashes between Mawal and her father. Mawal wants to become a teacher in Palestine if her parents agree. She is sheltered in her traditional life, and her father understands her needs. Neither Mawal nor her father is exposed to the ambivalent space; they are flat stereotypes.

In an interview with Laila Halaby, she was asked about what her four main characters have learned by the end of the novel and how they have they grown throughout the course of their narratives. Halaby answered:

Each one has had to deal with a blow to her security blanket, which has in turn launched her into adulthood or at least into accepting responsibility, or ownership, for where she is in life. Each one has learned about herself and her history and has had to come to terms with it a bit more. (Beacon Press, 2003)

Each of the four main characters has to come of age in a different way, accepting herself and her surroundings, and in this very development of characters emerges the rhizomatic factors. In response to the question of which character their creator favors, Halaby says that she does not favor one over the other, "They each have such a handful to deal with and have to react to circumstances beyond their control rather than creating the circumstances themselves." Halaby adds that Soraya is aware of herself sexually and does not think that Soraya tries to rebel because she is "just different fundamentally, straight from the factory." Halaby goes on to say that she sees Mawal as contented with her life which is by far safer than the experiences of her cousins. Halaby remarks that it is very "important to understand that in spite of occupation, in spite of all the problems, she is secure in herself and her family and her life. She sees her family functioning in a traditional, predictable way; she will not deviate from that because there is no reason to. Halaby expresses her view of Khadija saying that she is caught between "what is awaited of her by her family, and by her school world." Unlike Soraya, however, "she is not proud of who she is, cannot relate on a fundamental level, and is therefore alienated." Finally, Halaby adds, Hala has the greatest ability to manage her life. "Like Soraya and Khadija, Hala is something of an "other," and she too comes to terms with that over the course of the book" (Beacon Press, 2003).

### III. CONCLUSION

The four main characters have been investigated in terms of their adaptability to their circumstances; Hala, Mawal, Soraya and Khadija have proved to exhibit variable degrees of the rhizomatic characteristics. Thus, according to Bhabha (2004), "the theoretical recognition of the split- space of enunciation may open the way to conceptualizing an international culture based not on the exoticism of culturalism and multiculturalism or the diversity of cultures, but rather on the inscription and articulation of culture's hybridity" (p. 57). The international rhizomatic cultural identity is one that comes from the full integration and embracement of hybridity. Applying Bhabha's previous concepts to the four protagonists, it fair to conclude that Hala is highly rhizomatic in managing to keep both her Arab and American identity reconciled in her; each side of her identity seems to take over, one at a time when necessity arises. Hala and her father are rhizomatic characters who are able to act according to the necessity of the situation; hence, they are flexible and re-shapeable just like rhizomes. Hala and her father fulfill the aspects of efficiency in the rhizome, employing the aspects of chance which governs the manner in which the rhizome might branch out in a non-hierarchical fashion. In this sense, the rhizome becomes most akin to the process of thinking, since thoughts shoot off rhizomatically in different directions, and this is also verified by the father and his daughter.

Mawal, on the other hand, is not rhizomatic at all; she is deeply integrated into her motherland traditions as she has never been away from her homeland either physically or even intellectually. Mawal, like her father, are stereotypes of flat characters linked to their hometown, and hence, centered and hierarchical, whereas rhizomatic characters are mainly decentered and non-hierarchical.

Soraya and Khadija are both partly rhizomatic in the sense that full reconciliation has not been accomplished within their inner self. In other words, although Soraya seems to represent the liberal woman affected by her American context, deep inside she is not satisfied with what she is doing, and in being not heartily satisfied, she is linked to her center-- to her Arab origin. On the other hand, Soraya's father is highly rhizomatic; he has come up with a totally different identity from his ancestors, altering their morals and ideals and adopting a new system of beliefs. Apart from being non-hierarchical and decentered, Soraya's father has altered his aboriginal history: he conforms to the rhizomatic character that can replace our conception of history as being linear and singular, or moving forward or upward across time; he is manipulative and ready to scheme the surface of society in whatever ways which allow him to survive.

Finally, Khadija has exhibited a new birth of identity at a critical time, favoring the general welfare of the family over the traditional subjugated attitude she used to take in, for the fear that she might outrage the beliefs of her people. Thus, the rhizomatic transformation has taken part at this very final act of Khadija. Critics have emphasized the utility of intuition and immediate experience as the prime faculties through which we should aim at understanding the world. It is important that one should ontologically anchor himself or herself in a transcendent principle or idea, preferably one that can allow us to perceive our existence as fluid and constantly evolving. Khadija's final courageous act is proof of this. She was able to employ the "utility of intuition" when she called the police for her father. She was able to save her grandfather and her baby brother by acting according to the demands of the immediate situation. However, it is hard to categorize the fluctuating character of her father, who is, most of the time, abusive and aggressive to his family attributing his aggression to despair and disappointment. Yet, at other times, he becomes a loving father and a caring husband.

Hala and Khadija are dynamic rhizomatic characters capable of molding themselves and manipulating their circumstances. Soraya, on the other hand, has grown quite away from her roots; although she kept an eye on them, she is very different; passive and static; she knows she has done wrong and blames her own self, but never is willing to change. Mawal is a positive non-rhizomatic character; although she is incapable of change, she remains an ideal indigenous character preserving her native identity and securing it. Indeed, Halaby's characters are true to life examples of the Arab American characters who are striving to locate themselves within the American culture.

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# Translation of Conceptual Metaphor in Chinese Diplomatic Discourse: Based on CRP Model

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**Abstract**—As a way of thinking and experiencing the world, conceptual metaphor plays a vital role in creating realities. The use of conceptual metaphor in diplomatic discourse is an indispensable discursive mode and strategy of publicizing diplomatic concepts and notions. With the aid of MIPVU, conceptual metaphors employed in Chinese diplomatic discourse are identified and classified minutely in this paper. Translation problems of the conceptual metaphors are figured out according to the model of comprehension and translation model constructed under the guidance of Cognitive Reference Point (CRP). Meanwhile, BNC and COCA are also utilized to judge whether the translation is appropriate or not. Finally, feasible translation strategies and methods in diplomatic discourse are put forward based on the CRP translation model, and illustrated with authentic examples.

**Index Terms**—conceptual metaphor, cognitive reference point, translation models, diplomatic discourse

## I. INTRODUCTION

No aspect of human interactions is immune to metaphorical thinking and diplomatic discourse is definitely replete with them. Thompson (1996, p.185) holds that “politics without metaphors is like a fish without water”, demonstrating the close connection between metaphors and diplomatic discourses.

The proposal and promotion of some far-reaching strategic diplomatic and economic initiatives has made China's concepts of governance and diplomatic notions greatly draw the international community's attention; therefore, it is important to deliver these notions effectively and precisely. However, the construction and propagation of Chinese diplomatic discourse which serves as a critical instrument to fulfill this mission are far from satisfactory (Xi & Wang, 2017). Apart from the prejudice and divergent ideological stances, the primary reasons lie in the inadequate discourse interpretation, lack of audience awareness, and the lagging of propagation respectively (Ye, 2012; Xi & Wang, 2017); Thus, it is urgent to ponder how to deliver China's diplomatic notions and stances precisely and properly.

Unfortunately, the efforts in this regard are not made adequately. Firstly, previous researches have concentrated on the translation of metaphors in literal texts, which cannot be applied to the translation of metaphors in diplomatic discourse directly due to the particular features of diplomatic discourse. Yang and Zhao (2020) have proposed the principle of Political Equivalence + Aesthetic Re-presentation (PEAR), but given the complexity and particularity of diplomatic discourses, no consensus has been reached among scholars. Secondly, the researchers mainly summarize the translation strategies or methods of metaphors from the traditional perspective, and they rarely delve into the cognitive process of conceptual metaphor that play a significant role in translation, so the translation problems cannot be resolved systemically and pointedly; Thirdly, most researchers only deal with the translation of conceptual metaphor by picking up some typical examples, which is not persuasive and systematical enough.

Recently, the new norm of merging translation studies and Cognitive Linguistics contributes to elucidating the cognitive process of translation and offering a theoretical basis for resolving translation difficulties, providing insights to the translation of conceptual metaphors (Wen, 2018; Wu & Yang, 2020). This paper tends to explore the translation of conceptual metaphors in diplomatic discourse by constructing CRP models, and aims to answer three questions: (1) What types of conceptual metaphors are employed in diplomatic discourse? (2) What are the problems concerning the translation of conceptual metaphors in diplomatic discourse? (3) What translation strategies and methods can be adopted to the translation of conceptual metaphors in diplomatic discourse?

## II. COGNITIVE REFERENCE POINT AND CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR

### A. Rationale of CRP Perspective to Conceptual Metaphor

Cognitive reference point (CRP) is introduced by Langacker (1991) to Cognitive Grammar (CG). As the basic cognitive ability of human beings, CRP is the source power of almost every cognitive activity. “Virtually, any sort of conceptual content affords the possibility of construing one entity as a reference point for locating another” (Langacker

1991, pp. 169-171).

Conceptual metaphors involve conceptualizing one entity in source domain which is abstract or less prominent with reference to another entity in target domain which is concrete and prominent based on the similarities, which allow two domains to be placed in the same domain. This projecting process logically echoes with the process of conceptualizing the target with reference to the cognitive reference point though certain mental path. Both characterize dynamicity and unidirectionality. On one hand, for conceptual metaphors, distinct but related source domains can form a chain by a narrowing scope, analogues to the chain of reference points formed by a narrowing scope (nested-locative) or by approaching to it along an attention path (chained-locative) (Langacker, 1999). Besides, the same target domain can be comprehended through different source domains. Similarly, people may choose different entities as the cognitive reference points to construe the same target. Additionally, the same source domain can also be used to conceptualize different target domains as long as they share the similarities allowing them to form the conceptual mapping. Similarly, different targets can be invoked by the same cognitive reference point. On the other hand, regardless of how source domains or reference points vary, the direction of the mental path of conceptualizers is fixed. Besides, both conceptual metaphors and cognitive reference point are embodied, and they are closely associated with the interactions between human bodies and the objective world.

What have been discussed above fully proves the feasibility of investigating conceptual metaphors based on the process of cognitive reference point, laying solid foundation for building the comprehension and translation models to conceptual metaphors respectively.

#### B. CRP Model to Comprehension of Conceptual Metaphor

The operational mechanism of conceptual metaphor comprehension includes the generation mechanism of the speaker or writer and the interpretation mechanism of the hearer or reader. However, the former is expression-driven whereas the latter is comprehension-driven. With regard to conceptual metaphors, in order to conceptualize some abstract and complicated entities, the speaker or writer takes the concrete and easily accessed entities as his or her cognitive reference point. While conceptualizing the source domains, the speaker or writer takes them as the cognitive reference points to comprehend the target domains via the mental contacts between them. The meaning delivered by the conceptual metaphors is constructed during this process.

According to Langacker (2004), specific properties of the mental contacts between the cognitive reference point and the target are uncertain, and the operative process from R to T is arbitrary, and mainly depends on the contexts and the common knowledge. However, Wu and Wen (2010) reckon that this idea is too general to explain the specific language phenomenon clearly. They refine the mental process from R to T, and argue that the process from R to T can be interpreted as the dynamic meaning construction process. In this process, the ontological meaning of the reference point is the basis and limited by the intra-sentential context and discourse context. Particularly speaking, the ontological meaning of the cognitive reference point initially provides the information for conceptualizers to understand the target, and when the reference point is positioned in a certain context, the domain invoked is further narrowed down so as to help conceptualizers to reach the mental address precisely, allowing the conceptualizers to grasp the meaning clearly and correctly. From this perspective, when the reader or the listener interacts with the source domain which serves as the cognitive reference point, everything associated with it may be invoked and enter their minds, providing the raw material for the reader or the listener to understand the target domain. Then, the sentential and contextual contexts can assist in understanding which features or properties are projected onto the target domain so as to understand it correctly. This process can be presented in the cognitive model below (See Figure 1).

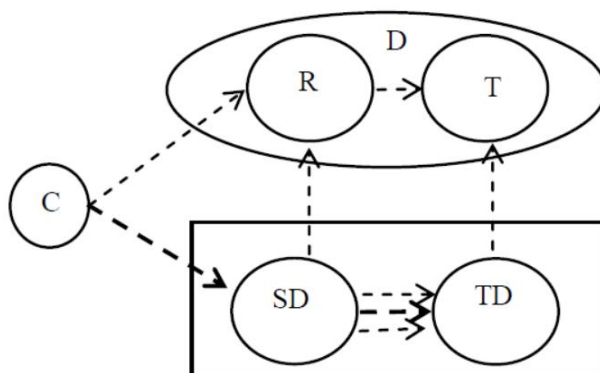


Figure 1 Mechanism of the Generation/Interpretation of Conceptual Metaphor

In Figure 1, C circled by the small ellipse represents conceptualizers. SD and TD circled by two ellipses in the rectangle refer to the source domain and the target domain of conceptual metaphors respectively. The two thinner dotted arrows between SD and TD represent the mappings between them. The thicker dotted arrows from C to SD and TD symbolize the mental path through which conceptualizers understand the target domain from the source domain. R and



which is the refined and extended version of MIP (Metaphor Identification Procedure) and after a time- and effort-consuming process, 1135 metaphors are extracted from the bilingual parallel corpus. These metaphors are categorized into structural metaphors, orientational metaphors and ontological metaphors firstly, and then they are sub-categorized into different types of conceptual metaphors based on their source domains (see Table 1). The other types mainly consist of some famous sayings, idioms, some lines in ancient poetry. Their distributions and key metaphorical expressions are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN THE CORPUS

Types of Conceptual Metaphors	Metaphorical Expressions	Frequency	Percentage
Human metaphors	携手, 长臂管辖, 大秀肌肉.....	427	37.62
War metaphors	前线, 战胜, 战役.....	196	17.26
Object metaphors	甩锅, 总钥匙, 旗帜.....	105	9.25
Journey metaphors	道路, 路径, 进程, 赛跑.....	83	7.31
Construction metaphors	基础, 建设, 走廊, 筑牢.....	65	5.73
Plant metaphors	成果, 硕果累累.....	53	4.67
Natural metaphors	风云, 大循环, 降温, 肆虐.....	41	3.61
Machine metaphors	重启, 助推器, 压舱石.....	41	3.61
Oriental metaphors	深化, 下行, 高质量, 加深.....	40	3.52
Family metaphors	大家庭, 铁杆兄弟, 天下一家.....	20	1.76
Game metaphors	出局, (零和) 博弈.....	19	1.67
Others	岂曰无衣, 与子同袍, 布丁不好吃, 吃了才知道, 对症下药.....	45	3.96
总计		1135	100

### B. Problems of Conceptual Metaphor Translation

After exhaustively evaluating the translation of conceptual metaphors in Chinese diplomatic discourse based on the translation model and with the aid of BNC and COCA, three distinct types of translation problems (undertranslation, overtranslation and mistranslation) are identified.

#### (a). Undertranslation

Undertranslation refers to the phenomenon that the meaning encoded by the metaphors in the source language is not translated adequately, resulting in the loss of some information throughout the translation. Based on the translation model built in Part 2, the source domain is the cognitive reference point adopted by the source language users and the readers to conceptualize the target. The prerequisite to render the conceptual metaphors correctly is to identify the cognitive reference points adopted by the source language users and to interpret their meanings precisely. If the translator fails to identify the original cognitive reference points clearly and understand the meanings adequately, some information may be lost, and undertranslation occurs.

##### Example 1:

SL: 携手抗击疫情, 深化金砖合作。(2020/4/28)

TL: Deepening BRICS Cooperation to Combat COVID-19.

##### Example 2:

SL: 国际司法或仲裁机构行使管辖权, 须以当事国同意为基础。(2020/9/2)

TL: In exercising their jurisdiction, the international judicial or arbitrary bodies must seek the consent of the countries concerned.

In Example 1 and 2, the metaphorical images “携手” and “基础” in the source language are omitted in the target language. In Example 1, the speaker takes “携手” as his cognitive reference point to conceptualize the notion that different countries work together to combat the fatal disease, which shows China’s diplomatic stance toward epidemic response. However, the translator deletes it in the target language, and the contexts cannot help the target language readers to get the same conceptual meaning conveyed by the speaker, so this translation neither conveys the meaning of working together adequately nor shows China’s attitude towards fighting against COVID-19. In Example 2, “基础” originally refers to the foundation of buildings which plays a vital part in supporting the buildings; here, it is adopted by the speaker to conceptualize the necessity and importance of seeking for the consent of the countries concerned for the international judicial or arbitrary bodies to exercise their jurisdiction. However, the translator deletes this conceptual metaphor, resulting in the inadequate delivery of the original conceptual meaning conveyed by the speaker. It is because the translator doesn’t fully interpret the conceptual meanings encoded by the cognitive reference points adopted by the speaker, or at least doesn’t pay enough attention to them that he or she chooses to exclude conceptual metaphors in the target language.

##### Example 3:

SL: 第二, 坚持同舟共济, 携手战胜疫情。(2020/4/28)

TL: Second, we should come together in the spirit of partnership to jointly combat COVID-19.

In Example 3, “同舟共济” originally refers to the situation where people take the same boat when they get across the river, and then it metaphorically extends to the meaning of joining hands to tide over the difficulties. Here, the speaker uses it as his or her cognitive reference point to conceptualize the situation where all the countries in the world work together with mutual assistance to handle the fatal disease, and what “同舟共济” emphasizes is both cooperation and mutual help; therefore, rendering it into “come together in the spirit of partnership” does not convey the meaning of mutual help adequately. Since there are no corresponding conceptual mappings in the target language, and at the same time it is hard to find the source domain in the target language which can express the same or similar meaning, the translator has to choose to paraphrase the conceptual metaphor. But the translator does not fully deliver the conceptual meaning.

(b). *Mistranslation*

Mistranslation occurs when the translator renders conceptual metaphors incorrectly. This typically happens when the translator doesn't grasp the meaning of the source domains or when the translator does not deal with it correctly in the target language. In other words, the translator does not construe the cognitive reference points adopted by the source language user precisely, or the translator is unable to choose the appropriate cognitive reference point in the target language.

Example 4:

SL: 巴基斯坦作为中国的铁杆兄弟, 送来了自己储备的几乎全部口罩。(2020/2/15)

TL: Pakistan, our iron-clad brother, sent us virtually all the masks in its stock.

The speaker takes “铁杆兄弟” as his cognitive reference point to conceptualize the fact that China and Pakistan have very close relationships, and they are just like brothers. “铁杆” means that their relationships are strong and unbreakable, which is just like a “iron pole”. Here, the translator renders it into “iron-clad” directly which means something that is “inflexibly entrenched and unchangeable”. However, according to the research results of BNC and COCA, it can be found that it is rarely used to modify the strong relationships among people; therefore, it is wrong to translate “铁杆兄弟” into “iron-clad” literally, which may make the target language readers feel puzzled. This mistranslation is mainly because the translator does not deal with the cognitive reference point in the target language correctly due to his or her lack of the language proficiency.

Example 5:

SL: 让中国以更坚实的步伐, 实现全面小康, 摆脱绝对贫困, 迈向中华民族的伟大复兴。(2020/2/15)

TL: Our country will march on in more determined strides to usher in moderate prosperity in all respects, to eradicate absolute poverty, and to realize the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation.

In Example 5, “迈向” is used metaphorically. The speaker takes the action of human beings' walk as the cognitive reference point to conceptualize the development of China's rejuvenation. It is translated into “march on” which means to “walk through the streets in a large group in order to protest about something”, and it is always associated with demonstration or protest; therefore, the connotative meaning of “march on” is totally different from that of “迈向”. This translation may lead to the misunderstanding of the target language readers, which has negative influences on the China's national image because one of the important functions of conceptual metaphors in diplomatic discourse is to build the positive national image, so this translation is totally wrong. While the translator recognizes or determines the speaker's cognitive reference point and exactly interprets the conceptual meaning, due to a lack of language proficiency, he or she does not manage it effectively in the target language.

(c). *Overtranslation*

Overtranslation refers to the phenomenon that the meaning encoded by the target language is broader than the meaning encoded by the source language. When the translator overinterprets the conceptual meanings conveyed by the source domains of the conceptual metaphors in the source language out of various reasons, that is, the translator interprets the conceptual meanings of the cognitive reference points too broadly, or chooses the inappropriate metaphorical images as his or her cognitive reference points, it is easy for the translator to overtranslate the conceptual metaphors of the source language.

Example 6:

SL: 美国现在要做的是, 停止政治操弄, 摒弃将病毒标签化、政治化的做法, 同国际社会一道抗击疫情, 而不是推卸责任, 抹黑别人。(2020/9/23)

TL: What the US needs to do now is stop the political manipulation, stop labeling or politicizing the virus, and join the rest of the international community in this common fight, rather than scapegoat or smear others.

In Example 6, a human metaphor is employed and the US is compared to a person who refuses to take responsibilities of his own. The speaker takes human being's behavior as his or her cognitive reference point to conceptualize the actions the US takes. “推卸责任” here can be translated into “shift responsibilities”. However, the translator renders “推卸责任” into “scapegoat”, which is definitely overtranslated because the word “scapegoat” refers to a person who is blamed for the wrongdoings, mistakes, or faults of others, especially for reasons of expediency; therefore, the meaning encoded by “scapegoat” is more than what “推卸责任” conveys.



#### IV. STRATEGIES AND METHODS OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS TRANSLATION BASED ON CRP MODEL

Before delving into the strategies and methods for translating conceptual metaphors, it is necessary to establish a clear distinction between translation strategy and translation method, which have long been muddled and are sometimes used interchangeably. Translation strategy refers to a set of principles upon which translators base their translation activities in order to achieve specific translation purposes, and it refers to the macro-level plan; on the other hand, translation method refers to the concrete means or steps adopted by the translator in translation in accordance with specific translation strategies (Xiong, 2014). Indeed, the former serves as a general guidance for the latter. This section will first propose metaphor translation strategies in diplomatic discourse, guided by CRP model, on the basis of which specific translation methods will be proposed.

##### A. Translation Strategies

The translation model established above contributes to proposing the translation strategies and the corresponding methods in an idealized situation. However, conceptual metaphors are always employed in certain contexts or discourses, so their translation is by no means isolated from the types of the discourse which have significant influences on the functions of conceptual metaphors (Snell-Hornby, 2001). According to the text typology proposed by Reiss (2004), diplomatic discourse, as a subset of political discourse, falls under the category of typical informative texts whose primary function is to convey information and knowledge; consequently, the conceptual metaphors used in diplomatic discourses are endowed with diplomatic characteristics and functions (Yang, 2018), which greatly affect the translator's selection of cognitive reference points in the process of metaphors' translation.

##### (a). Cognitive Reference Point Maintenance

Cognitive reference point maintenance refers to the process of preserving the source domains of conceptual metaphors in the source language entirely in the target language. On one hand, conceptual metaphors, as a kind of thinking mode, are deeply rooted in people's experience. Although people in the world have different language systems and diverse cultural backgrounds, living in the same planet, they share same physiological structures, sensory organs and cognitive abilities, and they share certain similar practical experiences and process of social development; as a result, they share some non-cultural knowledge in terms of some objective events and have similar cognitive abilities (Xiao, 2005; Zhang & Xue, 2009). As a consequence, there are several similar conceptual metaphors in both source language and target language, allowing the translator to preserve the cognitive reference points adopted in the source language. On the other hand, as a special type of expressive text which is highly politically sensitive, the diplomatic discourse aims to deliver one nation's diplomatic notions, policies and attitudes, which is the solemn promise made by the government of one country to other countries or to the international community to some extent; thus, the primary criteria of translating diplomatic discourse is faithfulness, which means that the translator needs to convey what the diplomatic subjects have said or written precisely and completely so as to guarantee the consistency of the source language and the target language, and tries to maintain the flavor of the source language as well (Gao, 2014). Any inadvertent changes or deletions may impair the precise delivery of diplomatic stances or attitudes; thus, it is necessary to attempt to preserve the cognitive reference points of the diplomatic subjects; correspondingly, the specific method of literal translation is always used under the auspices of this strategy.

##### (b). Cognitive Reference Point Shift

Cognitive reference point shift means that the translator no longer adopts the source domains of the conceptual metaphors in the source language to construe the target domains in the process of translation.

On one hand, the generation of metaphorical concepts is affected by cognitive structure, cultural patterns and relevant background knowledge; hence, its interpretation and translation are also inextricably associated with the culture and cognitive models of the source language as well as the target language. Naturally, the translation of conceptual metaphors is not a straightforward language transfer, but a complicated process of psychology and cognition transfer. Thus, the translation of conceptual metaphors is the transfer of cognition represented by the source language to that represented by the target language. Cognition is closely related to experience. While there is considerable universality in people's life experiences, different countries and nations have distinct natural, geographical, and social environments that profoundly influence people's way of thinking and conceptualizing the world, so it is highly likely that the same event will be conceptualized differently by people from different countries or will elicit diverse, even diametrically opposed connotative meanings. Similarly, explicitly dealing with some conceptual metaphors may impair the target language users' comprehension, or even result in some unwanted misunderstandings that should be avoided at all costs while translating diplomatic discourse. Additionally, in order to persuade target language users or the audience to accept a nation's diplomatic concepts and notions, the diplomatic discourse and its translation must be persuasive; one of the most effective methods is to use conventional expressions that the audience or target language users understand (Zhong & Fan, 2018). Under such circumstances, the translator's ideal choice for accurately and appropriately conveying the content of diplomatic discourses is to convert the source language's original cognitive reference points into those that are understandable to target language users.

##### (c). Cognitive Reference Point Omission

Certain conceptual metaphors are extremely culture-loaded and culture-specific and no metaphorical expressions bearing the similar conceptual meaning exist in the target language. Rendering these conceptual metaphors directly will hinder the understanding of the target language users. However, conveying the meaning precisely and clearly is of great significance in translating diplomatic discourses. Given this situation, the translator has to discard the original cognitive reference points, and attempts to explain the metaphorical meaning as plainly as possible so as to convey the diplomatic concepts and policies effectively.

## B. Translation Methods

### (a). Literal Translation

The specific method to maintain cognitive reference points is to render the conceptual metaphors of the source language directly into the target language. Specifically, the literal translation approach is adopted. There are typically two situations in which a translator can render conceptual metaphors literally: on one hand, when the conceptual metaphors are universal to both the source language and target language users, the translator tend to choose a literal translation method; on the other hand, even some metaphors are culture-specific, they can be understood by the target language users with the help of the contexts.

#### Example 7:

SL: 美国介入南海事务, 目的是绑架地区国家, 在中国和东盟国家之间打楔子、搞分裂, 逼迫东盟国家选边站队。(2020/9/2)

TL: By interfering in issue, the US is trying to hijack regional countries. It tries to undermine and divide China and ASEAN countries, forcing them to take sides.

In Example 7, “绑架” is used metaphorically, which originally means “to take somebody away illegally and keep them as a prison, especially in order to get money or something else for return”. Here, the speaker takes this illegal action as his cognitive reference point to construe the fact that the US. is just like a kidnapper intent on manipulating the regional countries surrounding the South China Sea so as to benefit from it, and this human metaphor demonstrates China’s hostility toward blatant behavior. In the target language, it is rendered into “hijack” which some one uses violence or threats to take control a vehicle, especially a plane, in order to force it to travel to a different place or to demand something from a government. On one hand, both the source language users and the target language users are familiar with the concepts of kidnapping or hijacking; on the other hand, it is known that the hijacking happened in 9.11 Event has great impression on people of the whole world, especially on American people; therefore, translating “绑架” into “hijack”, which can be regarded as a subcategory of kidnapping, can convey the meaning precisely. It accurately conveys not just the original metaphorical feature of the source language, but also China’s diplomatic attitude and stance.

#### Example 8:

SL: 日本友好团体在送往中国的物资上写了一句中国古诗: “岂曰无衣, 与子同裳”, 表达一衣带水邻邦与中国人民的感同身受。(2020/2/15)

TL: In the toughest times of the fight, people around the world are standing firmly by our side. Japanese groups sent assistance supplies to China, attached with ancient Chinese poetic lines: “Fear not the want of armor, for mine is also yours to wear”, conveying a touching message of empathy from a close neighbor.

“岂曰无衣, 与子同裳”, from *The Book of Songs*, is used to encourage the soldiers; here the speaker takes it as the cognitive reference point to conceptualize the help and encouragement from the friendly Japanese groups. Although the target readers may not share this metaphorical image, it is not difficult for them to grasp the meaning through the following contexts, as the sentence following the poetic line clarifies. As a result, it can be translated directly, which benefits not only the spread of Chinese culture.

### (b). Transformation

Transformation refers to the replacement of the metaphorical images of metaphors adopted in the source language for other ones with identical or similar meanings in the target language. Transformation involves two types. Firstly, the metaphors are transformed into distinct categories. Metaphors which are translated in this way are always language-specific and culture-loaded. In this case, the target language users do not conceptualize the targets with reference to the source domains in the source language, or the source domains of the source language have different connotative meanings in the target language. In other words, the connotative meanings implied by the cognitive reference points adopted by the speaker in the source language cannot be activated in the minds of the target language users easily. Secondly, the metaphors are transformed into other metaphors which nevertheless belong to the same category with the original metaphors. This always occurs when the target language users have different cognitive preferences, though the target language users and the source language users share the same conceptual systems.

#### Example 9:

SL: 当然, 如果我们能妥善处理这一问题, 双边关系会更上层楼。(2020/9/2)

TL: Of course, if we could manage the issue well, it will make the bilateral picture shine.

“更上层楼” is derived from the poem of Climbing White Stork Tower written by a renowned Chinese poet in Tang

Dynasty. Its original meaning is “to see a thousand miles; one should ascend another story”, indicating that if one desires a grander sight, he or she needs to ascent another flight of stairs. It acts as the cognitive reference point of the speaker to conceptualize that if the problems can be effectively addressed, the bilateral relations will continue to improve in the future; otherwise, negative repercussions would be produced. However, the connotative meaning implied by this poetic line cannot be activated in the minds of the target language users who are lack of this cultural background knowledge if it is translated directly; consequently, the source domain of the source language should be converted, which indicates that the translator cannot adopt the cognitive reference point of the source language to conceptualize the target domain in translation. Here, it is converted into a pictorial image that users of the target language can readily comprehend. By doing so, the cognitive reference point adopted by the speaker to conceptualize the alterations of the bilateral relationships is also shifted from the building to the picture. Dealing with this metaphor in this manner facilitates the communication of China’s diplomatic stance on bilateral partnerships.

Example 10:

SL: 面对不分国界、不论民族的全球性挑战，全球治理的重要性不是下降而是上升了。(2020/4/28)

TL: A challenge that respects no border and makes no distinction of ethnicity has only made global governance more important, not less.

In Example 10, the UP-DOWN orientational metaphors are employed as the cognitive reference point of the speaker to conceptualize the degree of the importance of global governance. Although human beings have the similar body structure and embodied experiences and have the similar space cognition, the ways of representing the orientational metaphors are affected by the cultural models and cognitive preferences (Liu & Liu, 2020). The western people tend to measure the importance with reference to MORE-LESS metaphors. Therefore, the translator changes the cognitive reference point adopted in the source language so as to make the translation conform to the conventional expression of the target language, and deliver the meaning more clearly.

#### (c). *Paraphrase*

Some conceptual metaphors are highly culture-loaded, so they cannot be rendered literally and at the same time, there are no corresponding expressions bearing the similar meanings in the target language. In this case, the translator has to give up adopting specific metaphorical images to serve as the cognitive reference points to conceptualize the target domains. This translation strategy permits the use of two translation methods: paraphrasing and deletion.

Paraphrasing refers to translating the conceptual metaphors of the source language into non-metaphorical expression in the target language (van de Broeck, 1981). Those metaphors are always culture specific. Due to the wide differences between the source language and the target language aroused by cultures and cognition, some conceptual metaphors are specific to certain language or culture. Besides, there are no metaphorical expressions in the target language which can express the similar metaphorical meanings, and meanwhile, the contexts surrounding these conceptual metaphors cannot aid the target language users to reason the metaphorical meaning easily. Under such circumstances, given the priority of the precise and clear delivery of the diplomatic notions and concepts, the translator has to abandon the metaphorical image of the source language. In other words, when the “conflicts” between preserving the metaphorical images and delivering the meaning clearly occur and no compromise is possible to be made between them, the latter enjoys the priority so as to achieve the political equivalence (Yang, 2020). In addition, sometimes, in order to make the sentences concise and conform to the conventional expression of the target language, some metaphors also need to be paraphrased.

Example 11:

SL: 俄罗斯、白俄罗斯、韩国等国雪中送炭，迅速派专机将急需的医疗物资送抵武汉。巴基斯坦作为中国的铁杆兄弟，送来了自己储备的几乎全部口罩。(2020/2/15)

TL: Russia, Belarus and the ROK swiftly delivered badly needed medical supplies to Wuhan through chartered flights. Pakistan, our iron-clad brother, sent us virtually all the masks in its stock.

“雪中送炭” is a Chinese idiom. It is a story that the Emperor Taizong of Song Dynasty ordered his officials to send charcoal to the impoverished in snowy weather to keep the cold at bay. Gradually, it means “to help people in their hour of distress”. In this example, it serves as the cognitive reference point of the speaker to conceptualize the fact that when China struggles with the fatal COVID-19, Russia, Belarus and the ROK provide the emergency suppliers for China in time and this metaphorical expression shows China’s sincere gratitude to these countries. However, the target language users who know little about this Chinese idiom cannot fully grasp the meaning if it is translated directly; therefore, the translator has to give up preserving the metaphorical features of the source language, and paraphrases it so as to deliver the metaphorical meaning precisely. Translating it in this manner signifies that the translator conceptualizes the target domain of the source language directly without utilizing any specific metaphorical image as the cognitive reference point.

#### (d). *Deletion*

Strunk and White (1979) proposed that there should contain no unnecessary words and unnecessary sentences in the sentences and paragraphs, which emphasizes the importance of conciseness. This is also the requirement of “Plain English” which emphasizes clarity and brevity, and tries to avoid some redundant structures (Liu & Zhou, 2019). More

importantly, conciseness is one of the essential features of diplomatic discourse. Some metaphors, however, are highly culture loaded and cannot acquire the counterparts in the target language. Additionally, the discrepancies of the language systems between the source language and the target language make it difficult or impossible to paraphrase the metaphors in the target language concisely. Given this situation, omitting the metaphors should be given the priority. But this translation method can only be adopted on the condition that the functions of metaphors are fulfilled elsewhere in the text (Newmark, 2001) and it is also the last choice for the translator to employ, especially in diplomatic discourse, translation of which needs to be as faithful as possible.

#### Example 12:

SL: 中国坚决反对美国的霸凌行径和强权政治, 愿本着不冲突不对抗、相互尊重、合作共赢精神, 与美方共同建设以协调、合作、稳定为基调的中美关系。(2020/8/10)

TL: China firmly rejects the US hegemonic bullying and power politics and remains prepared to work with the US in the spirit of no conflict or confrontation, mutual respect and win-win cooperation and build a relationship based on coordination, cooperation and stability. We must stand firm by multilateralism, by the UN-centered international system, and by the purposes and principles of the UN Charter.

In Example 12, “行径” is used metaphorically. It originally refers to “the path that people walk”, and then it acquires the meaning of “the action or behavior of people”. Here, it is employed as the cognitive reference point of the speaker to conceptualize the disgraceful or bad action of America. In the source language, “行径” is the apposition of “霸凌”. The translator does not render it in the target language. In other words, the translator gives up adopting the image concerning paths as the cognitive reference to the behavior or action of “霸凌”, which is appropriate. This translation makes this sentence more concise. More importantly, it will not impede the transmission of essential and vital information.

### V. CONCLUSION

The research has conducted a comprehensive investigation on the conceptual metaphors in Chinese diplomatic discourse. Various categories of conceptual metaphors are identified, but variations exist in the preferential selection. Several problems concerning the translation of conceptual metaphor in Chinese diplomatic discourse are also figured out and presented systematically. These problems are primarily comprised of undertranslation, overtranslation and mistranslation, which are closely associated with the inappropriate interpretation and selection of the cognitive reference points. According to the CRP model to the translation of conceptual metaphor, three translation strategies (CRP maintenance, CRP shift and CRP omission) are proposed; and under the instruction of the three translation strategies, four translation methods including literal translation, transformation, paraphrasing and deletion are put forward, which can assist the translator in dealing with the translation of conceptual metaphors appropriately not only in diplomatic discourse, but also in other types of discourses.

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# Objectifying Science: Impersonalization in English Research Articles From Different Disciplines

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**Abstract**—English academic writing has often been characterized as being direct, accurate, and objective. One way of achieving objectivity is through the use of a communicative strategy called impersonalization. The present research examines linguistic devices that academic writers have at their disposal to avoid explicit reference, especially to themselves, and to detach themselves from the information they convey. It also addresses the question of whether this impersonalization strategy is expressed differently across different disciplines. For these purposes, a corpus of 45 primary empirical research articles from the fields of linguistics, medicine, and natural sciences were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively with the help of corpus linguistic method. The results of the research showed that impersonalization in English research articles could be expressed through the use of agentless passive constructions and impersonal constructions. The results indicate that English academic discourse is marked by the use of agentless passive constructions (199.17 tokens per 10.000 words) to express impersonalization, which was primarily used to serve as writer-oriented hedging functions. The study also revealed highly significant differences in the use of impersonalization in linguistics, medicine and natural sciences. This seems to suggest that impersonalization in English academic discourse is expressed differently in different fields of study.

**Index Terms**—academic discourse, disciplinary variation, impersonalization, personification, agentless passive

## I. INTRODUCTION

English academic writing has often been characterized as a type of writing which expresses directness, accuracy, and objectivity (Alley, 1987; Bolsky, 1988; Hacker, 2008; Hedge, 1994; Lipson, 2005; Manser, 2006; Strunk Jr. & White, 2000; Taylor, 2005). While Alley (1987) views precision as the ultimate goal of academic writing, Hedge (1994) argues that academic writing is characterized, especially by objectivity. One important communicative strategy that writers of academic writing commonly adopt to express such objectivity in academic writing is what is commonly called impersonalization (Luukka & Markkanen, 1997), depersonalization (Martín-Martín, 2008; Namsaraev, 1997), or impersonality (Siewierska, 2008a). Luukka and Markkanen (1997) consider this strategy part of a broader communicative strategy known as hedging, which they view as a super strategy, and impersonalization as a sub-strategy. As a communicative strategy, impersonalization is understood as “the avoidance of explicit reference to persons” (Luukka & Markkanen, 1997, p. 168) or the use of impersonal constructions (Malchukov & Siewierska, 2011; Siewierska, 2008a, 2008b). Furthermore, Martín Arrese (2002) defines impersonalization in terms of “the degree of mystification of the role of agency” (p. 3).

As impersonalization is a strategy used to avoid direct reference to persons, it can contribute to the objectivity of academic discourse by foregrounding information and, at the same time, backgrounding agency, especially the writer(s). This strategy puts more emphasis on the discourse message than on the persons involved in the discourse. Thus, it plays a very important role in objectifying academic writing.

Previous studies have shown that impersonalization has been viewed primarily from two different theoretical perspectives: structural (e.g., Blevins, 2003; Kitagawa & Lehrer, 1990) and functional (Luukka & Markkanen, 1997; Malchukov & Ogawa, 2011; Martín Arrese, 2002; Siewierska, 2008a) (for other approaches, see Malchukov & Siewierska, 2011). The structural characterization is closely related to “the lack of a canonical subject,” whereas the functional characterization to “agent defocusing” (Siewierska, 2008a, p. 2). While theoretical accounts of impersonality abound (see, e.g., the collection of papers in Lyngfelt & Solstad, 2006 and in Malchukov & Siewierska, 2011), empirical research on impersonalization, especially in English academic discourse, is rare (but see Luukka & Markkanen, 1997; Martín Arrese, 2002) and none seems to have investigated disciplinary variation in the use of impersonalization in English research articles. Most previous studies have focused on individual linguistic realizations

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of impersonalization, often without direct reference to it, such as agentless passive constructions (Banks, 1996, 2008; Conrad, 2018; Hinkel, 2004a; Lachowicz, 1981; Rundblad, 2007, 2008; Tarone et al., 1998), *it*-clauses (Hewings & Hewings, 2002; Larsson, 2017; Zhang, 2015), and personification or metonymy (Banks, 1996; Master, 1991; Rundblad, 2007, 2008). The present research is a corpus-based attempt to explore not only the available linguistic resources to express impersonalization in English academic discourse but also the possible pragmatic functions of such resources in English research articles. Furthermore, it also attempts to examine impersonalization in English research articles in different disciplines. More specifically, it addresses the following questions: a) What linguistic forms are used to express impersonalization? b) Is impersonalization expressed significantly differently in different disciplines? c) What pragmatic functions do they serve in English research articles (RAs)?

In line with the above research questions, this research aims to examine the linguistic features of impersonalization used in English academic writing. More specifically, it attempts to uncover the use of linguistic realizations of impersonalization in English research articles, their possible disciplinary variation, and their pragmatic functions.

Results obtained from this research contribute to a better understanding of the various linguistic forms and functions used to express impersonalization in English academic discourse. This will help non-native writers write research articles in English with an appropriate degree of detachment, focusing more on the informational content of the message they put forward than their involvement in the research activities they have carried out.

## II. METHODOLOGY

This research used a descriptive comparative method (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011) because it attempts to describe and explain objectively linguistic phenomena related to impersonalization as a communicative strategy in English research articles. Moreover, it also attempts to examine and compare the use of this strategy across different disciplines. To achieve these objectives, both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis were employed to analyze the data. Qualitative methods were used especially to uncover not only the various linguistic forms that are available in English for RA writers to use in their articles to express impersonalization but also the possible pragmatic functions that these forms serve in English RAs. In addition, quantitative methods were also used especially to obtain results that are generalizable (Biber & Jones, 2009) and to detect the frequency and distribution of the use of impersonalization across different disciplines. A chi-squared test was run using Minitab 18 (Minitab, 2017) to test the degree of significance of the use of impersonalization in the research articles across the disciplines under investigation. The *p* or *α* value was set at 0.05 to indicate significance, as is commonly adopted in linguistics (Gomez, 2002, p. 244; McEnery & Wilson, 2001, p. 85) and social sciences (Larson-Hall, 2010; Sanjaya, 2013).

This research is corpus-based (Lee, 2008), in the sense that linguistic analyses were carried out with the aid of “banks of computerized text and certain computer techniques” (p. 87). This corpus-based study rests on the principle that “the more material the analysis is based on, the safer the conclusions drawn will be, and the more generalizable the results will be” (Ädel, 2006, p. 8). What is meant by the term corpus here is “a collection of texts or parts of texts upon which some general linguistic analysis can be conducted” (Meyer, 2004).

The data for this research were obtained from a corpus of empirical research articles in English published in a number of reputable international journals, all indexed in Scopus (see Appendix). Empirical research articles were selected because of the important role they play in the manufacture of scientific knowledge (Hyland, 2000; Knorr-Cetina, 1981; Swales, 1990, 2004). Furthermore, they serve as an important means of communication between scientists, whose goal in such communication is not only “the discovery of scientific knowledge and the verification of such discovery” (deBakey, 1976, p. 1) but also “rites de passage astride the road to professional advancement and promotion” (Swales, 1983, p. 189).

All the research articles selected met the following criteria: for an article to be included in the corpus, (a) it must be a primary research article reporting empirical research results, (b) it must be indexed in Scopus, Elsevier’s abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature (<https://www.scopus.com>). On the basis of these two criteria, altogether 45 research articles, 15 each from linguistics (L), medicine (M), and natural sciences (N), were selected. Table 1 below presents the number of articles and words from each field. Because of the different lengths of articles in the three disciplines, forms of impersonalization were normalized (Biber & Jones, 2009, p. 1299) per 10,000 words (p10kw). In addition, concordances were run using WordSmith Tools version 5 (Scott, 2008).

TABLE 1  
CORPUS SIZE IN WORDS

No.	Field	Number of Articles	Number of Words	Mean
1.	Linguistics	15	120,509	8,034
2.	Medicine	15	57,814	3,854
3.	Natural Sciences	15	75,078	5,005
<b>Total</b>		<b>45</b>	<b>253,401</b>	<b>5,631</b>

The data for this research take the form of utterances containing impersonal constructions used to express impersonalization. As defined earlier, impersonalization refers to the avoidance of explicit reference to persons. This means that writers have a choice of referring either explicitly or implicitly to themselves as writers and/or researchers,

the readers, or other sources of information. Choosing implicit reference means that they detach themselves from what they say; they do not want to take responsibility and do not want to use direct reference to the source of information. On the contrary, choosing explicit references means involving themselves in what they express, thus being accountable for what they say. Both types of constructions contain personal references, either implicitly or explicitly. They differ from purely impersonal constructions which contain no personal reference. Impersonalization here refers to the use of constructions containing implicit reference. Therefore, the data collected for this research were utterances containing such implicit personal references.

As mentioned earlier, according to Siewierska (Siewierska, 2008a), impersonal constructions can be viewed from two different perspectives, i.e., structural and functional perspectives. Structurally, impersonalization is closely related to constructions that lack canonical subjects. A canonical subject is “one realized by a verbal argument which is fully referential and manifests the morpho-syntactic properties of subjects in a language” (Siewierska, 2008a, p. 2). These impersonal constructions include constructions (a) whose subjects are not fully referential, (b) whose subjects do not display canonical subject properties, (c) whose subjects are not verbal arguments but only functional fillers having no semantic or referential properties (such subjects are commonly called expletive or existential subjects), and (d) with no overt subjects at all. From a communicative-functional perspective, impersonalization is related to constructions with agent defocusing, which include those (a) whose actors, initiators, or instigators are not or under elaborated, (b) whose actors, initiators, or instigators are demoted from their prototypical subjects and topic functions, or (c) both (a) and (b). In addition, Malchukov and Siewierska (2011, p. 2) argue that also belonging to the functional group of impersonal constructions are constructions “in which an argument other than the agent has been selected for subject in preference to the agent such as personal passives (*The manuscript was sold for 100.000 pounds (by an unknown collector)*) and locative subject clauses (e.g., *The garden is swarming with bees*).” They also argue that the agent defocusing approach views impersonalization more widely “as involving speaker choice with respect to the construal of an event and is regarded as sensitive to the effects of discourse” (p. 2). Furthermore, they claim that because agent defocusing can only be observed in a wider discourse-pragmatic context, this approach is more suitable for discourse-based investigations. As this research is discourse-based, therefore it adopts this functional approach. More specifically, constructions containing implicit reference here include such constructions as agentless passives, *it*-clauses (Hewings & Hewings, 2002, p. 368), personification (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 25), and impersonal or general personal pronouns. These constructions can be subsumed under two broad categories of impersonal constructions, which include impersonal pronouns, *it*-clauses and personification, and passive constructions.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section reports the results of the data analysis in answer to the research questions, i.e., what linguistic forms are used to express impersonalization in English research articles (RAs), whether impersonalization is linguistically expressed differently in different disciplines, and what functions impersonalization serves in English RAs.

#### A. Linguistic Realizations of Impersonalization

Table 2 shows the frequency of the two broad categories of constructions, i.e., impersonal and agentless passive constructions, used to linguistically express impersonalization as a communicative strategy in English research articles under investigation in terms of tokens per 10,000 words (p10kw).

TABLE 2  
FREQUENCY OF LINGUISTIC REALIZATIONS OF IMPERSONALIZATION IN THE CORPUS

No	Construction	F	p10kw	%
1	Impersonal	1,153	45.50	18.60
2	Passive	5,047	199.17	81.40
<b>Total</b>		<b>6,200</b>	<b>244.67</b>	<b>100.00</b>

The table indicates that impersonalization was very common in English research articles (244.67 p10kw). It was much more commonly expressed through the use of agentless passive constructions than impersonal constructions ( $\chi^2_{(1)} = 95.5469$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). As a means of expressing impersonalization in written academic discourse, which is part of hedging (see, e.g., Hyland, 1996, 1998), passive constructions (199.17 p10kw) are also much more commonly used than epistemic lexical verbs (42.23 p10kw) (Vass, 2017). This seems to suggest that impersonalization in English RAs is clearly marked by the use of passive constructions. This result runs counter to the advice given in a number of academic writing style guides, which encourage the use of active rather than passive constructions (see, e.g., Matthews & Matthews, 2008; Penrose & Katz, 2003; Sheen, 1982; Strunk Jr. & White, 2000). On the other hand, it supports previous research (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Hyland, 1998; Johns, 1997; Swales, 1990), which suggests that in English written academic discourse, uses of the passive constructions are generally expected as they can create an impersonal style of an objective view in discourse. The passive voice, Lachowicz (1981, p. 113) argues, “allows for the author to be more open to other possibilities of interpretation.” It also allows authors not to be fully committed to what they say and to detach themselves from their propositions (Hyland, 1998, p. 77). Hyland (1998, p. 122) further argues that passive



constructions are often used “to hedge a responsibility to statements by appearing more objective and distanced.” Furthermore, they can be used to protect authors from any potential criticism. Because of its high incidence, the discussion in the following sub-sections begins with the passive constructions.

#### (a). *Passive Constructions*

In the English voice system, which is “a system where the contrasting forms differ in the way semantic roles are aligned with syntactic functions, normally with some concomitant marking on the verb” (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1427), passive constructions are syntactically different from active constructions in at least four different ways (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1428): (a) the subject of an active construction appears in the passive as the complement of the preposition *by*, (b) the object of an active construction appears as the subject of the passive, (c) the verb of an active construction appears in the passive in the past participle form, (d) a passive construction contains an extra verb, the auxiliary *be*.

Not all passive constructions can be used to express impersonalization in English. Only passive constructions where the agents are not explicitly specified can be used to express impersonalization. These constructions are commonly called agentless passive constructions or ‘short passives’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1428). They differ from the ‘long passives’ where the *by*-phrase agents are explicitly specified in the sentence. Agentless passive constructions, Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1446) argue, “serve to avoid making explicit reference to the writer, and this is widely believed to give the writing a more objective flavour than is found in texts with 1st person references.”

Furthermore, passive constructions can be categorized on the basis of the finiteness of the verb into passive constructions with finite and non-finite verbs. Passive constructions with finite verbs can further be classified into present passive constructions, past passive constructions, and modalized passive constructions. Table 3 below shows the frequency and distribution of the three sub-classes of agentless passive constructions. As shown in the table, passives in the past tense substantially outnumber modalized passives and only slightly those in the present tense ( $\chi^2_{(1)} = 28.33, p < 0.001$ ). This tendency might be attributable to the common use of the past passives in the methods section (Swales & Feak, 2012). It is interesting to note that most agentless passive constructions were used without any aspectual markers, i.e., in their simple forms.

TABLE 3  
FREQUENCY OF AGENTLESS PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN THE CORPUS

No.	Tense	Token	p10kw	%
1.	Present	1,794	70.80	35.55
2.	Past	2,403	94.83	47.61
3.	Modal	850	33.54	16.84
	<b>Total</b>	<b>5,047</b>	<b>199.17</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Out of the 1,794 occurrences of agentless present passives, most (88%) were used without any aspectual marker. Examples (1)-(2) below illustrate the use of simple present passives in the corpus (in all the examples below, the number following the letter L (linguistics), M (medicine), or N (natural science) indicates the number of the article from which the clause or sentence was taken). Only a small number (11%) of agentless present passives were used with a perfective aspect (3).

- (1) Similar findings *are reported* for requests in Pinto (in press) (...) (L04).
- (2) Clearly, systemic corticosteroids *are associated* with insulin resistance and hyperglycemia (M03).
- (3) The role of metal oxide surface charge *has recently been implicated* as a potent player in hemostatis (...) (N05).

Like the agentless present passives, almost all agentless past passives (99%) were used without any aspectual marker, as shown in examples (4)-(5). Likewise, most modalized agentless passives were also used without any aspectual marker, as in examples (6)-(7).

- (4) Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale. (L01)
- (5) Caesarean delivery is associated with a higher requirement for neonatal care, a link which was also observed in the present study (...) (M15).
- (6) Further guidance is now required from driving authorities as to how these data should be interpreted (M07).
- (7) Below the threshold, dense connections are formed among a significant number of interfaces in the structural space, which may be considered as continuous (N14).

The predominance of passive constructions in the corpus has provided further support to the findings of previous studies (Hinkel, 2004a, 2004b; Swales, 1990). The passive has been reported to be pervasive in academic discourse from various disciplines (Amdur et al., 2010; Atkinson, 1996; Hinkel, 2004a, 2004b; Hyland, 1998; Johns, 1997; Rodman, 1994). Hinkel (2004b, p. 161) argues that this predominance is dictated to a large extent by academic discourse conventions.

#### (b). *Impersonal Constructions*

Siewierska (2008a, 2008b) argues that impersonalization is functionally related to agent-defocusing, agent being understood as “the causal participant of an event, and is also referred to as the actor, instigator or initiator” (2008a, p. 7), while defocusing meaning “diminishing the prominence or salience from what is assumed to be the norm” (2008a, p. 7). Siewierska further argues that agent-defocusing means that (a) the agent is not (fully) specified, (b) the agent is

downgraded from its prototypical subject or topic function, or both (a) and (b). Impersonal constructions are here viewed as linguistic realizations used to express agent-defocusing, i.e., avoidance of the mention, especially of the author (see, e.g., Givón, 1994; Hyland, 1996, 1998; Marín Aresse, 2002). Impersonal constructions include (a) impersonal pronouns, i.e., personal pronouns “used impersonally, to refer to an unspecified human agent,” (b) ‘*it*-clause’ (Hewings & Hewings, 2002), a clause that begins with *it* as a non-referential, anticipatory subject of the clause (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 155, 332; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1391), and (c) personification (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; van Aertselaer, 2002), ‘abstract rhetors’ (Halloran, 1984), metaphors (Banks, 1996), or metonymy (Rundblad, 2008), i.e., constructions whose subjects are inanimate but the verbs are active (Master, 1991). Banks (1996) argues that such constructions require human agents as the verbs are in the active form. The subjects, therefore, must have an agentive role. Yet, the subjects are inanimate. Thus there is a mismatch between the inanimate subjects and the active verbs. Such a mismatch is called ‘untypical animacy’ (Berry, 1975, as quoted in Banks, 1996, p. 17). The use of such constructions implies that writers avoid any responsibility for the truth of their proposition. Their responsibility is transferred to the inanimate subjects, which then become the source of their claim (Hyland, 1996, p. 444). Table 4 below presents the frequency and distribution of the three impersonal constructions in the English RAs under investigation.

Table 4 shows that, by far, personification is much more commonly used as linguistic manifestations of impersonalization in English written academic discourse than both *it*-clauses and impersonal pronominal constructions ( $\chi^2_{(1)} = 34.2174$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This seems to suggest that academic authors commonly make use of inanimate subjects vested with human agentivity to depersonalize their claim. This is probably because, as Lakoff & Johnson (2003) argue, personification constructions “allow us to make sense of phenomena in the world in human terms—terms that we can understand on the basis of our own motivations, goals, actions, and characteristics” (p. 34). In addition, the relatively high frequency of personification lends support to Halloran’s claim for its “increasing frequency in academic writing across the disciplines” (1984, p. 74).

TABLE 4  
FREQUENCY IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS IN THE CORPUS

No.	Constructions	Token	p10kw	%
1.	Pronouns	115	4.54	9.97
2.	<i>It</i> -clause	178	7.02	15.44
3.	Personification	860	33.94	74.59
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,153</b>	<b>45.50</b>	<b>100.00</b>

As mentioned previously, personification allows academic authors to avoid mentioning themselves as agents; hence they attribute responsibility to inanimate subjects. These subjects include such commonly abstract nouns as “concepts, processes, methods, diseases, behaviours, measurements, programs, predictions and all other manifestations of the nonconcrete” (Master, 1991, p. 24). Abstract nouns which commonly fill the subject function include *study*, *result*, *analysis*, *data*, and *research*. Below are two examples illustrating the use of personification in the corpus.

(8) Our research supports the axioms of mental health promotion and protection (M04).

(9) These results suggest that (...) the N-peptide function is restricted to an early initiation stage of the fusion reaction (N13).

As for the active verbs that go with the inanimate subjects, most belong to verbs indicating mental processes “through which we organize our mental contact with the world” (Downing, 2015, p. 171; Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 139). Mental process verbs that were commonly used in personification are *show*, *suggest*, and *indicate*. This seems to support Banks (1996, p. 19), who also found common uses of these three mental process verbs to express impersonalization. Examples (10)-(11) below illustrate the use of such verbs in the corpus.

(10) The results from a series of t-tests showed that there were no significant acoustic differences (...) (L09).

(11) The study indicated that the flow characteristics could be controlled for a favourable fibre separation by selectively choosing particular roughness geometry (N09).

Turning now to the less frequently used impersonal constructions, the *it*-clause constructions can formally be realized by clauses with the pattern *It + is + adjective + that*. The adjectives that commonly fill in this pattern include *possible*, *likely*, and *clear*. Below are two examples.

(12) It is clear that failed humor is a significant issue, both theoretically for humor research, but practically for L2 learners (...) (L03).

(13) (...) it is likely that fortified foods such as breakfast cereals (...) may be influencing dietary folate (M14).

Another pattern involves the use of the linking verbs *appear* and *seem*, as shown below.

(14) Therefore, it appears that fish oil fatty acids could influence both endothelial-dependent (ACh) and endothelial-independent (SNP) vasodilatory mechanisms (M13).

(15) It seems that the ratio of average TMP fibre length to bead diameter (3mm) is a critical issue (N07).

Finally, the least commonly used impersonal constructions involve the generic use of personal pronouns such as *one* and *we* (including *us*). These personal pronouns can be used impersonally to refer to unspecified human agents. *One*, which means “people in general” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 353), was slightly more commonly used for impersonalization than *we*. Below are some examples illustrating the use of *one* (16) and *we* as well as *us* (17)-(18) to express impersonalization in English written academic discourse.

(16) For example, one cannot understand a joke if one cannot hear it being told (...) (L03).

(17) We should note that the slot velocity is significantly different from the suction velocity (...) (N09).

(18) Most of us can recall a time when we responded seriously, failing to recognize a speaker's humorous intent (...) (L03).

### B. Disciplinary Variation of Impersonalization

In answer to the question of whether impersonalization is used differently in different fields, the results indicate that there is a significant difference ( $\chi^2_{(2)} = 17.7097, p < 0.001$ ) in the use of impersonalization across the three fields under investigation. This communicative strategy was more commonly used in natural sciences (302.22 p10kw) than in both linguistics (218.49 p10kw) and medicine (225.41 p10kw). Figure 1 below presents the frequency of impersonalization devices used in the three disciplines.

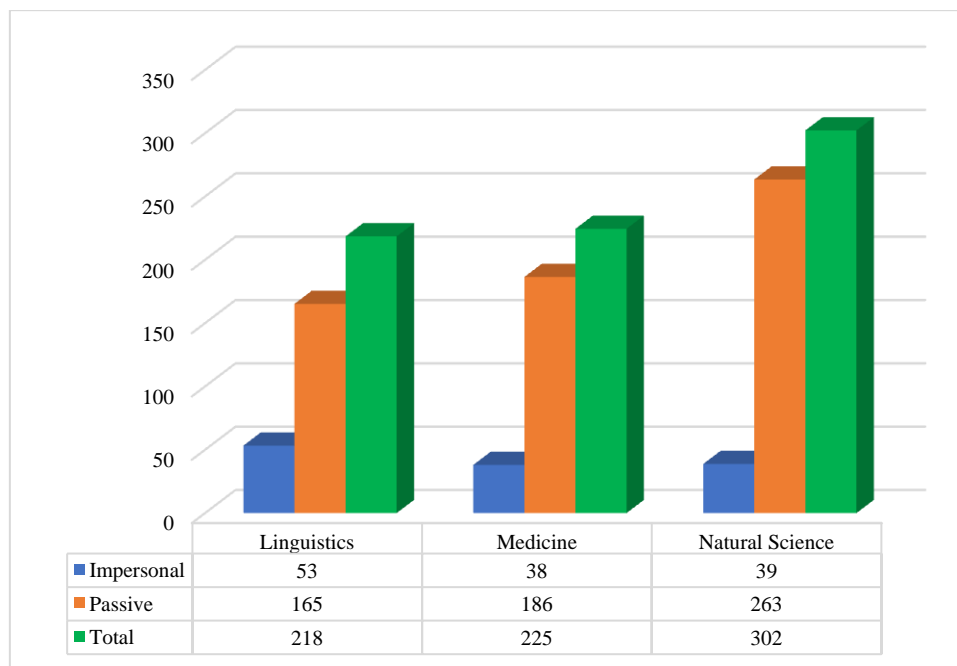


Figure 1 Frequency of Impersonalization Devices in Linguistics, Medicine and Natural Sciences (p10kw)

The figure shows that there is a significant difference in the use of impersonal and passive constructions across the three fields of study under investigation ( $\chi^2_{(2)} = 11.464, p = 0.003$ ). Passive constructions seem to be the preferred means of expressing impersonalization in comparison to impersonal constructions. Passive constructions were more frequently used to express impersonalization in natural sciences (263 p10kw) than in linguistics (165 p10kw) and medicine (186 p10kw). However, impersonal constructions were more commonly used in linguistics (53 p10kw) than in medicine (38 p10kw) and natural sciences (39 p10kw). This seems to suggest that overall the use of passive constructions is much more dominant across the three fields of study to express objectivity and detachment.

Figure 2 below presents the frequency of impersonal constructions across the three fields of study. The figure shows that personification constructions (34 p10kw) are by far more commonly used as impersonal constructions to express impersonalization in all three fields than *it*-clauses (7 p10kw) and generic pronouns (5 p10kw). Personification, *it*-clauses, and generic impersonal pronouns were used much more frequently in linguistics (53 p10kw) than in medicine (38 p10kw) and natural sciences (39 p10kw). However, there does not seem to be any significant difference in the use of the three types of impersonal constructions across the three fields ( $\chi^2_{(4)} = 3.574, p = 0.467$ ).

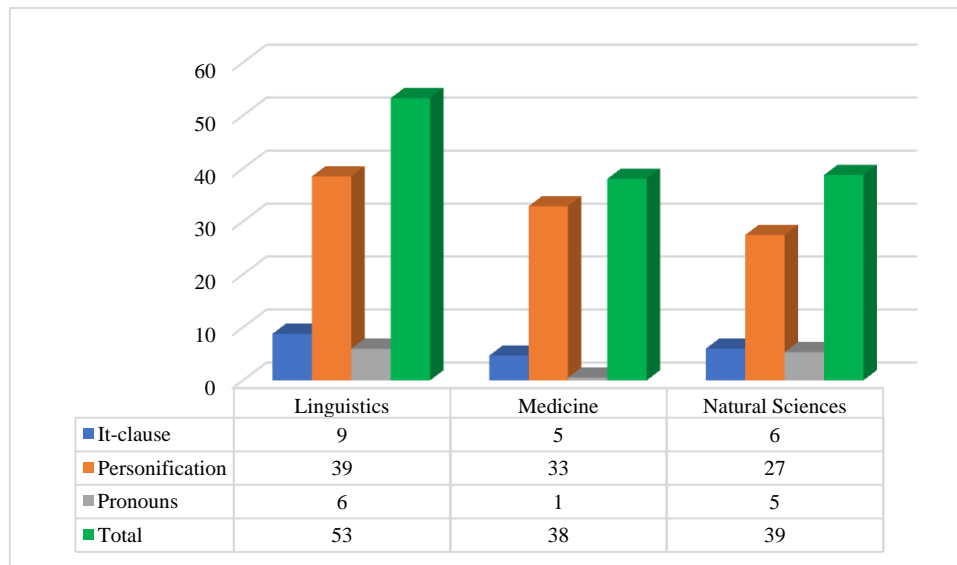


Figure 2 Frequency of Impersonal Constructions in Linguistics, Medicine and Natural Sciences (p10kw)

Turning now to passive constructions, Figure 3 below shows the frequency of agentless passive constructions across the three fields of study under investigation. The use of these three constructions shows a highly significant difference across the three disciplines ( $\chi^2_{(4)} = 39.220$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). It is interesting to observe that while in medicine and natural sciences, the past passives were much more dominant than the other two categories, in linguistics, the present passives were slightly more common, especially than the past passives. This might be attributable to the more common use of past passives in the methods section in both medicine and natural sciences.

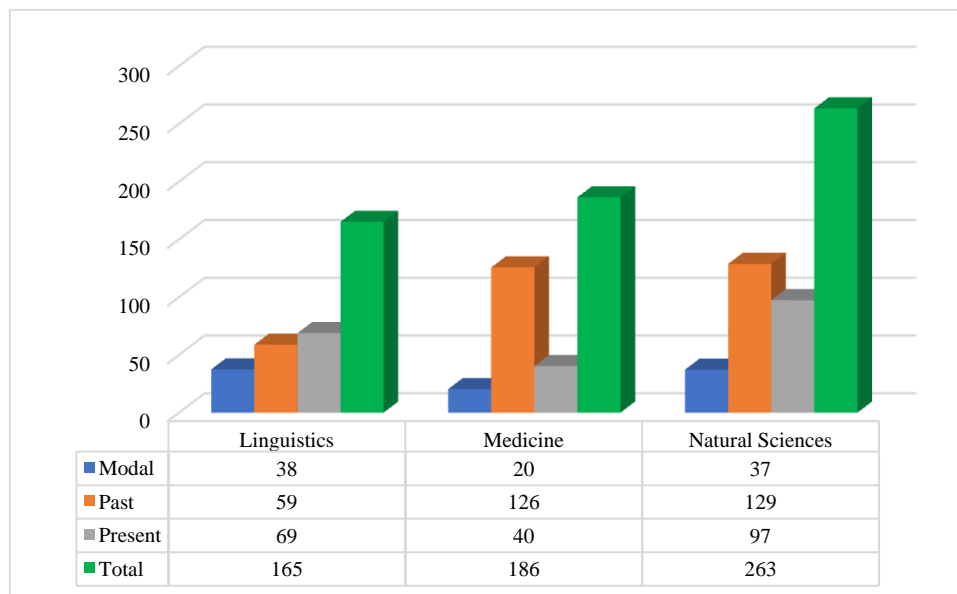


Figure 3 Frequency of Passive Constructions in Linguistics, Medicine and Natural Sciences (p10kw)

The findings of the present research suggest that there is significant disciplinary variation in the use of impersonalization in English research articles. Writers in natural sciences employed impersonalization devices significantly more frequently than their counterparts in both linguistics and medicine. In other words, scholars in natural sciences tend to detach themselves from the claims they make in their research articles, while those in linguistics and medicine tend to be more committed to their claims. This disciplinary variation seems to conform to previous studies (Hyland, 2005, 2006, 2008; Varttala, 2001). Hyland (2005) reported that writers, especially in the humanities and social sciences, are more involved than those in the sciences and engineering fields. Likewise, Varttala (2001) also reported that scholars from the fields of economics, engineering, and medicine display variable practices in the use of hedging devices, including impersonal constructions. This disciplinary variation, Hyland (2005, 2006) argues, resides in the fundamental ontological differences between hard and soft knowledge domains, which have distinct effects on rhetorical practices. Scholars in the hard sciences “tend to see their goal as producing public knowledge able to withstand the rigours of falsifiability and developed through relatively steady cumulative growth,” whereas those in the soft sciences “are more interpretative and less abstract, producing discourses which often recast knowledge as

sympathetic understanding, promoting tolerance in readers through an ethical rather than cognitive progression” (Hyland, 2005, p. 187). Such disciplinary differences find further support from Bondi (2005), Bondi and Silver (2004), Busà (2005), and Charles (2003).

It is interesting to note, however, that some studies do not seem to corroborate such disciplinary variation (Sanjaya, 2015; Vold, 2006). Sanjaya (2015), for example, argues that scholars are not always affected by the disciplines they are affiliated with in the use of rhetorical features in their research articles. This means that disciplines may not be the only factor affecting the differing practices of scholars in the use of hedging devices in general and impersonalization devices in particular. Sanjaya (2015) further argues that “rhetorical characteristics (...) of a research article might be significantly determined by the cultural models (...) espoused by the author” (p. 125). However, this does not seem to be the case in the present research.

### C. Pragmatic Functions of Impersonalization

As mentioned earlier, impersonalization can be viewed as a sub-strategy of hedging (Luukka & Markkanen, 1997). In answer to the question of what pragmatic functions impersonalization is used to serve, the data in the present research were analyzed using Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model of hedging. In this model, the strategy of hedging can be realized by linguistic devices which are “both polysemous and polypragmatic” (p. 156). These linguistic devices, or hedges, can be interpreted differently by different users in different contexts. They can be used for different pragmatic purposes. As a polypragmatic strategy, hedging can be regarded as multifunctional in that particular interpretations cannot be directly made to specific hedging devices. In other words, a specific hedging form can be used to serve several different functions at once. This is precisely because, as Hyland (1998) argues, such forms “are virtually always indeterminate, each containing traces of meaning conveyed by the other” (pp. 158-159).

On the basis of the above arguments, Hyland (1998) distinguished in general between content-oriented hedges and writer-oriented hedges. Content-oriented hedges focus more on the mitigation of “the relationship between propositional content and a representation of reality; they hedge the correspondence between what the writer says about the world and what the world is thought to be like” (p. 162). They are further subdivided into accuracy-oriented hedges, which are used primarily for “reducing the risk of negation on objective grounds” (p. 162), and writer-oriented hedges, which serve “to shield the writer from the possible consequence of negatability by limiting personal commitment” (p. 170). Unlike content-oriented hedges, reader-oriented hedges focus more on the social relationship between the writer and reader. They serve as “conformity to research community expectations concerning deference due to colleagues in presenting information” (p. 178).

Based on the model above and acknowledging the indeterminate nature of hedging functions, the data were analyzed for possible prototypical pragmatic functions that impersonalization, as part of the hedging strategy, serves in the corpus. It was found that impersonalization was primarily used as writer-oriented hedging, as a protective strategy. This sub-strategy was used primarily to avoid full responsibility for an assertion that the writer makes. This is especially evident in the use of agentless passives, as shown in the following two examples. In these examples, the writers avoid taking full responsibility for what they say. In other words, they limit their personal commitment to what they assert. Hyland (1998) argues that this lack of writer agentivity is a distinctive characteristic of writer-oriented hedging.

(19) The nativization patterns found in Australia (...), for instance, *might be assumed* to resemble that of Southern British English (...) (L13).

(20) Alternatively, our multivariable analyses *might be used* to justify a decision to prevent subgroups (...) (M07).

This avoidance strategy is closely related to the concept of detachment (Chafe & Danielewicz, 1987; Vassileva, 2001). This is commonly used to distance the writers from the claim they make, as seen below, where the writers made their data speak for them. The inanimate subject here is vested with agentivity other than the writers.

(21) *These data suggest* Schiff base formation with one AP site accelerates reaction with a second lesion (...) (N15).

The avoidance of full responsibility and the detachment from propositions are motivated by the writers’ desire to save their face for possible criticism by the audience. In the following example, the writers avoid direct reference to themselves for politeness purposes through the use of a passive construction. The use of this construction indicates the writers’ awareness that the coinage of a new term or labelling a phenomenon with a new term can threaten the face of the esoteric audience and/or the exoteric audience (Myers, 1989, p. 16). Thus, the writers hedge this face-threatening act (FTA) by using the passive.

(22) As shown in Figure 2b, the roughness width includes a flat land at the trailing edge, which *is called* crest (N09).

Another possible motivation for impersonalization is the writers’ desire to save the readers’ face. Avoidance of explicit authorial reference can be used to indicate that the writers do not want to impinge on the readers (Brown & Levinson, 1987). On the other hand, avoidance of explicit reference to the readers can be regarded as a means of saving the readers’ face. In the following example, the passive is used to avoid direct reference to the readers. The writers’ consideration and awareness of the readers’ negative face increase the acceptability of their arguments by the readers, thus the possibility of their arguments being ratified by the readers.

(23) *As can be seen*, the profile of each national dataset is broadly similar (L01).

Impersonalization also allows the writers to depersonalize opinions. It can present opinions as objective, distanced from the writers, thus making them less open to negotiation (Martin et al., 1997). In other words, impersonalization can

be used to increase the objectivity of the writers' arguments, which in turn enhances the readers' recognition of their knowledge claims. This is evident in the following example.

(24) But *it seems* quite likely that many households around the world share such experiences (...) (L08).

Another characteristic function of impersonalization is attribution, in which the writers "may refer to wider bodies of knowledge in the literature when moving away from what can be confidently implied by their results or methods" (Hyland, 1998, p. 174). Such attribution, Hyland (1998) further argues, is "at the heart of writer-oriented uses" (p.174).

(25) NPCs share sequence similarities with a bacterial PC-PLC that *has been characterized* in microbial systems (Wang, 2001) (N12).

The discussion above has shown that impersonalization as a sub-strategy of the much broader communicative strategy of hedging may be employed for a variety of purposes. However, it is primarily used to serve as writer-oriented hedging functions. It is interesting to note that, in terms of the degree of FTA minimalization as an indication of the deference to the scientific community, impersonalization was found to be highest in minimalizing FTAs, thus clearly showing the writer's deference to the scientific community (Martín-Martín, 2008; Namsaraev, 1997). Further, Hyland (1998) argues that this strategy is commonly used to hedge higher-level claims.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This study has shown that impersonalization in English written academic discourse can be expressed through a number of linguistic constructions, i.e., agentless passive constructions, impersonal general pronouns, *it*-clauses, and personification. It has also been shown that out of this small number of constructions, the agentless passive is by far the most commonly used construction. This provides further evidence that passive constructions in general are very common in English academic discourse (Biber et al., 1999) and have thus become highly conventionalized (Hyland, 1998; Swales, 1990, 2004).

Another common construction commonly used in English academic discourse to express impersonalization is personification, which transfers agentivity to inanimate, abstract nouns. This is also a common means of agent defocusing, in which authors transfer responsibility to inanimate subjects such as *tables*, *figures*, and *papers*. The relatively high incidence of this construction provides further support to Banks' (1996) argument that together with the passive, it is a feature of English academic discourse that is "related to the avoidance of reference to human agents" (p. 21). The study has also shown that impersonalization was primarily used as a writer-oriented hedging strategy serving the primary pragmatic function of protecting the writer from possible criticism from the reader.

The study also revealed highly significant disciplinary variation in the use of impersonalization in the English research articles under investigation. Impersonalization is far more common in natural sciences than in linguistics or medicine, especially in the use of passive constructions. However, in the use of impersonal constructions, linguistics is more dominant than medicine and natural sciences.

Overall, the study seems to suggest that because of its relatively high frequency across the disciplines, impersonalization seems to be a major feature of academic writing in English. As a sub-strategy of a much broader hedging strategy, impersonalization plays an important role not only in avoiding direct reference to human agents to reflect objectivity, but also in providing protection to authors against any criticism of their claims (Hyland, 1998). Such a strategy protects "the writer from the possible consequences of negatibility by limiting personal commitment" (Hyland, 1998, p. 170). Finally, impersonalization in English academic writing may be viewed as a means of conforming to established writing style.

#### APPENDIX. LIST OF SELECTED JOURNALS

##### LINGUISTICS

L01-05 Intercultural Pragmatics (<https://www.degruyter.com/journal/key/iprg/html?lang=en>)

L06-10 Journal of Sociolinguistics (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/14679841>)

L11-15 Language Variation and Change (<https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/language-variation-and-change>)

##### MEDICINE

01-05 The American Journal of Medicine (<https://www.amjmed.com/>)

06-10 British Medical Journal (<https://www.bmj.com/>)

11-15 The British Journal of Nutrition (<https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/british-journal-of-nutrition>)

##### NATURAL SCIENCES

01-05 Applied Physics A (<https://www.springer.com/journal/339>)

06-10 The Canadian Journal of Chemical Engineering (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/1939019x>)

11-15 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (<https://www.pnas.org/>)

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# The Postcolonial Subsumption of Lacan's o/Other Embedded in *The American Granddaughter*

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**Abstract**—With the advent of the 21st century, the world witnessed the US invasion of Iraq by which a new facet of colonialism protruded. A form of relationship between the US colonizer and the Iraqi colonized is overlooked. This study examines a theoretical concept central to postcolonial theory, Lacan's o/Otherness which relates to a colonized Iraqi subject formation as portrayed in *The American Granddaughter* by Inaam Kachachi. This study aims to emphasize the aftermath effects of US colonization and to put together how the postcolonial Iraqi author is thinking about the problems of the colonized Iraqis. The reader will be introduced to the narrative that establishes the Iraqi postcolonial subjectivity. Concentrating on the internal and external conflicts of the protagonist garners a deeper understanding of the o/Otherness in the Iraqi case through analyzing the development of the protagonist's growth and change.

**Index Terms**—The American Granddaughter, o/Other, postcolonialism, democracy

## I. INTRODUCTION

This study is organized around the emerging Iraqi subjects' formation after the US invasion. 2003 was a turning moment in Iraqi history, ushering in an era of American colonization. This incident resulted in Iraq's instability and devastation, and it was a catalysis for creative writers in general, particularly for Iraqi novelists. As with the country, the role of novels as a vehicle for expressing the new reality created by the 2003 invasion has evolved substantially in terms of technique, focus, and narration. Identity formation, cultural change, perpetual violence, murder, and corruption are the main concerns of Iraqi postcolonial literature (Hamedawi, 2017; Al-Rabaa, 2019).

The purpose of this study is to focus on revolutionizing the thinking of a specific context that relates to the Iraqi subjectivity that is formed after 2003 and the impact of the US discourse as depicted in *The American Granddaughter* by the author Inaam Kachachi, in terms of o/Otherness.

*The American Granddaughter* is a war novel that portrays the first scenes of the US troops approaching Iraq through the eyes of an Iraqi girl who was born in Iraq and raised in America and now returns to Iraq as an interpreter for the US army, she must reconcile her contradictory identities and loyalties. What follows is a critique of the protagonist (Zeina) internal and external conflict as she battles between American ideals and the reality she is surrounded by. She witnesses the consequences of the war.

*The American Granddaughter* was originally written in Arabic in 2008. It was nominated for the 2009 International Prize for Arabic Fiction (IPAF) shortlist. Since being shortlisted for (IPAF), it has been translated into other languages including, an English edition through the Bloomsbury Qatar Foundation in 2010 and the second edition published by Interlink Books in 2020 which will be the primary source of our data collection in this article.

Kachachi's first literary production was the novel *Sawaqi al-Quloob* (Streams of Hearts) in 2005, followed in 2008 by writing the selected novel for this article *Al-Hafeeda al-Amreekiya* (The American Granddaughter). Kachachi rose to prominence as one of the Arab world's most inventive and important writers of fiction. She wrote many other novels, including *Tashari* (2013) and *Annabitha* (the outcast) 2017 where both have also been shortlisted for the 2014 and 2019 (IPAF) respectively (<https://www.arabicfiction.org/en/inaam-kachachi>).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As a key concept in the postcolonial theory *Otherness* categorizes the world into mutually excluding opposites. If the Self (colonizer) is ordered, rational, masculine, and good, then the Other (colonized) is chaotic, irrational, feminine, and evil. This construction of the other is a process of demonization, which in itself expresses the "ambivalence at the very heart of authority" (Ashcroft et al., 2002, p.3). According to Said (1978) Orientalists' knowledge about the East was

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adopted through their biased perspective. He adds that there is no objectivity regarding the study of the Orient, but a political vision of reality whose structure promoted the difference between the familiar and the strange in other words the transcendence and superiority of Europe, the West, and us to the Orient, the East, and them. European colonialist thought created the othering of vast numbers of people. They constructed the non-European as backward and inferior, depending upon what JanMohamed (1985) calls the "Manichean allegory", in which an implacable discursive opposition between races is produced. These oppositions are decisive for creating stereotypical images of non-Europeans and structuring a European self (JanMohamed, 1985). The original goal of postcolonial theory was to address the reading and production of literature produced in nations that have been or are now under colonial rule. Whether seen from the colonizer's or colonized's perspective, postcolonialism is about people and their feelings of powerlessness and displacement. Thus, the idea of *Otherness* is central to postcolonial thought (Al-Saidi, 2014).

Loomba (2005) opines that two overlapping contexts must be considered to discuss colonialism and its aftermath. The first one is the history of decolonization itself and intellectuals' role in decolonizing the minds. The second context is the revolution in thinking on issues such as; "language and how it articulates experience, how ideologies work, how human subjectivities are formed, and what we might mean by culture" (p. 23). Chifane and Chifane (2018) claimed that as a result of the twofold O/other's deception, Africans had failed miserably. The postcolonial issue of the O/other helps readers get over the maze of culturally particular rituals and spot a behavioral pattern that all colonized people have in common by drawing on Lacan's tripartite orders of worlds. The tragic results of the act of misrepresentation, which are brought on by the colonized Nigerian people's rigid adherence to one kind of Symbolic Order and their refusal to acknowledge the existence of the Real, which transcends all human ideologies, are the result of the dual construction of the O/other. As Vijayasekaran and Alan (2022) refer to the importance of the analysis of the fiction written by the colonized writers "to highlight the potential problems that the aboriginal people are going to face in the future" (p. 1664). Yahya et al. (2022) referred to one of the byproducts of conventional colonization in establishing human communities, later known as the Diaspora. Hitherto, those communities have issues with their identity in terms of belonging. In a way to awaken the consciousness of the colonized who may be "devoid of power and self-determination; and they could not cope with the dominant postcolonial hegemony" (Farhan et al., 2022, p.910).

The most difficult battle faced by postcolonial scholars, urges Marzec (2011), is a general neglect of the role that fictions play in the construction of reality. He blames policymakers and the general public for not paying attention to literary scholarship in the academy today. The idea that literary works, or at least excellent literature, has anything to do with politics has long been rejected by humanist literary studies because the former is either too subjective, private, and personal, or else too universal and transcendent to be thus polluted (Loomba, 2005). Accordingly, literary criticism did not deal with the relationship between colonialism and literature until recently. Today, the situation seems to be rapidly reversing itself, with many, "if not a majority of, analysts of colonial discourse coming from a training in, or professional affiliation with, literary studies" (Loomba, 2005, p.63).

From the description stated above, it may be suggested that most of the previous studies have established stereotypical images of the colonizer /colonized relationships in terms of self/other in different parts of colonies around the world, particularly in Africa, India, and the Caribbean. In the present article, the American/Iraqi relationship will be highlighted as a new place and case by utilizing Lacan's *o/Other* that is subsumed in the postcolonial analysis. As such, this study is an attempt to fill this gap and add more knowledge to the domain of postcolonial studies.

### III. THE POSTCOLONIAL SUBSUMPTION OF LACAN'S *O/OTHER*

Postcolonialism, like many schools of criticism, uses a variety of approaches to textual analysis. Researchers who engage in postcolonial theory move beyond the bounds of traditional literary studies and investigate social, political, and economic concerns of the colonized and the colonizer (Bressler, 2011). No matter which methodology a postcolonial researcher may choose, it matters greatly whether or not the researcher has been a colonial subject. The existence of others is crucial in defining what is normal and in locating one's place in the world. Ashcroft et.al (2007) define the term other as "anyone who is separate from one's self" (p.154). The other had a significant role in the development of self-awareness and identity conceptions in existential philosophy. Sartre used it most famously in *Being and Nothingness* to explain the relationships between the Self and the Other. The term other in the postcolonial theory as it is currently used has its roots in the Freudian and post-Freudian analyses of the creation of subjectivity, most notably in the work of Jacques Lacan's cultural and psychoanalysis (Ashcroft et al., 2007).

#### A. *Lacan's o/Other*

In the mid of 20th century, Lacan drew segregation between the little 'other' and the big 'Other'. The segregation swirls central throughout the rest of his work. Thereafter, in Lacanian algebra, the little other is designated a (lower case italicized, for French *autre*), and the big *Other* is designated A (upper case, for French *Autre*). Lacan contends that an awareness of this segregation is substantial to analytic practice. Any analyst should be scrupulously saturated with the difference between a and A so that he can situate himself in the place of *other*, and not of the *Other*.

According to Lacan's perspective, Evans (2006) referred to the definitions of each term *o/Other*. The *other* with a small 'o' is an ego projection of the *other*, who is not the *other* at all. He is both the counterpart and the specular image at the same time. As a result, Lacan's Imaginary Order is completely engraved with the small *other*. The big *Other*, on

the other hand, cannot be absorbed by identification, it denotes profound alterity, an *otherness* that exceeds the fictitious otherness of the imagination. Lacan compares this radical alterity to language and the law; as a result, the enormous Other is written in the Symbolic Order. Insofar as it is customized for each subject, the big Other is metaphorical. Thus, the *Other* is a different subject in his radical difference and incomparable uniqueness and the Symbolic Order that serves as a bridge between the *other* and *Other*.

#### B. The Postcolonial o/Other

Lacan's *o/Other* was subsumed and assimilated within the postcolonial theory and became a key concept that enriches the analysis of the colonized subjectivity formulation. Ashcroft et al. (2007) interpreted Lacan's the *other* -with a small 'o' into, (i) The colonized *others* who are stigmatized by colonial discourse and can be distinguished from the center by their differences (ii) Most importantly, the colonized become the focus of colonial ego's anticipated mastery, and (iii) as if the *other* resembles the child who discovers himself/herself when he/she looks in the mirror and realizes himself/herself as a separate being. When the child, who is an uncoordinated tangle of limbs and emotions, sees his/her reflection in the mirror, that image must resemble the child sufficiently to be recognized while still being distinct enough to support the child's expectation of an anticipated mastery. This imaginary sense of mastery will serve as the colonized ego's foundation.

On the flip side, the big *Other*, is compared to the imperial discourse, imperial center, or the empire itself, in different ways (Ashcroft et al., 2007). According to the postcolonial perspective, the *Other* is characterized by certain hallmarks, as such (i) The *Other* offers concepts through which the colonized subject develops a feeling of himself/herself as an in some way dependent *other*. (ii) the *Other* becomes the conceptual framework in which the colonized subject may come to see the world through the absolute pole of the address represented by the *Other*, and (iii) the *Other* makes colonized subjects interpellate by the ideology of the maternal or parental and nurturing function of the colonizing power, concurring with descriptions such as 'Mother or Father England' and 'Home'.

#### IV. O/OTHERNESS IN THE IRAQI CASE

Undoubtedly, the *other* is a key concept in any conventional colonial discourse to dominate and reshape the colonized subjects. The US mindset does not differ much from those who occupied and colonized other countries throughout history, using certain colonial discourses. The objective circumstances and the nature of colonization remain of paramount importance to those colonial forces. The main common factor in the colonial mindset is how the colonizers impose their hegemony and reconstruct the colonized subjects to the extent that secures the permanence of control.

*The American Granddaughter* (2020) delineates the relationship that occurred between the American discourse being a colonial power and its impact on the Iraqi subject formation after 2003. Kachachi's fiction tackled the notion of Iraqi *otherness* from the colonized perspectives who were highly affected by the repercussions of the US invasion and its aftermath. Concentrating on the internal and external conflicts of the protagonist garners a deeper understanding of the o/otherness in the Iraqi case through narrating the development of the protagonist's growth and change. Kachachi presented her protagonist Zeina at age of thirty. She was raised by an educated Iraqi parent. Her life was cleft into two parts, 15 years in Iraq and the rest in the US. Kachachi portrayed sequences of events before Zeina's family reluctantly emigrated from Iraq and lived in America before 2003. Kachachi intentionally referred to Zeina's father as a TV presenter who was arrested and tortured for an unworthy reason, "his crime being that he'd protested about the news bulletins being too long" (p.69) as a symbol of the free speech restrictions and how he or any other Iraqi could be treated if he/she objects or tries to raise his/her voice criticizing the policy of the Baath party regime. That was a sufficient perception of the regime's dictatorship and its arbitrariness towards citizens and the restriction of their freedoms. It was ruled by a one-party system without political pluralism or guaranteeing freedoms.

The 9/11 event was a turning point and the real beginning of the formation of Zeina's character in terms of identity and belonging. When the US administration decided to invade Afghanistan and then Iraq, regarding Iraq, the US media adopted a discourse that eased its mission. Democratizing Iraq was the main discourse the US administration stuck to it. Zeina was driven by the US media, so she hailed the decision of the US administration to free Iraq from the dictatorship of Saddam's regime and establish a democratic ruling system, therefore she decided to apply for a translating job with the American army as part of her patriotism, "I repeated after Fox News that I was going on a patriotic mission. I was a soldier stepping forward to help my government, my people and my army, our American army that would bring down Saddam and liberate a nation from its suffering" (p.10). Furthermore, Zeina supposed undoubtedly that the alternative for her home country's people in Iraq would be better than Saddam's regime. She desired that the experience of the American democracy would be practiced in Iraq, so the Iraqi would have a better life. Her people would reach the point that they would not believe their eyes in terms of the promising justice, freedom, dignity, and rights, "The poor people of Iraq. They won't believe their eyes when they finally open onto freedom. Even old men will become boys again when they sup from the milk of democracy and taste of the life I lead here" (p. 10).

Zeina was exemplified by the author as a case representing Iraqis who desired to be free from the dictatorship and oppression of Saddam's regime, so she hailed the discourse of democracy to be alternative. And this was only achieved through the occupation of Iraq by the United States. Iraqis whom Zeina represents in this novel in the early stages

welcomed the American project but they entered into an internal psychological conflict. This conflict was summed up in that people wanted to get rid of the injustice and oppression, but they have to accept being occupied by a power that claims to provide them with the causes of justice and ends up the oppression. Democracy in this sense was not the choice of the indigenous people, but rather the choice of the colonizer, who sees it as the best for the colonized people. This conflict was experienced by most Iraqis before 2003, especially those who were directly affected by Saddam's regime, such as executions, displacement, exile, or even the stifling of freedom of expression. Kachachi's *The American Granddaughter* portrayed the condition of those people by presenting the character of the heroine who went through these situations. The occupation became de facto, Zina referred to this in a sense of sarcasm, "... the war started without me. I heard on the news that the president had secured the support of Congress. Who cared about the United Nations? What nations anyway, and what bullshit?" (p. 15). The acceleration of events cast a shadow over Zeina's way of thinking because she was sure that the alternative to Saddam's dictatorial regime would be better, but officially her original country was occupied. Zina had a sense of a psychological inner conflict for the first time. That kind of conflict was related to identifying her identity, loyalty, and belonging. Zeina started looking at herself as the *other*,

Why couldn't I sit still for five minutes? I told the other who was also me that there were terrified children and innocent civilians dying in Baghdad. I told her those children could be the children of your classmate from school, and the dead civilians could be the sons of your uncles or the daughters of your aunts (p.15).

From a postcolonial perspective, Kachachi focused on the post-invasion phase to visualize the condition of the Iraqi people whom Zeina represents while they were being occupied. The moment of the real conflict between wishes and desires to get rid of injustice and oppression under Saddam's rule, and between accepting the reality that was led by the war, which leaves traces of killing and injustice as well. To absorb the shock of the occupied country and the consequences of this war, the US leaders had to work on a discourse that would help them in facilitating their mission, and the discourse was democracy. Iraqi Zeina became a colonized *other* who was marginalized by the US discourse of democracy, identified by the colonized difference from the center, where they were ruled by the dictatorship of Saddam's regime. That construed why Zeina uttered a hyperbolic expression to describe the state of astonishment that will afflict the Iraqis, "They won't believe their eyes" (p. 10).

Being a colonial power, the US adopted the discourse of democracy that crucially made the Iraqi people become the focus of anticipated mastery by its colonial 'ego'. To impose its colonial domination, the United States came up with the discourse of democracy to oppose autocracy. The US discourse saw the self (democracy) as ordered, rational, and good, then the other (autocracy) as chaotic, irrational, and evil. The US occupiers in *The American Granddaughter* created a representation of autocracy based on a colonial discourse, using binary oppositions to categorize human belief into one term or another not both. Hence, autocratic Iraq is the opposite or the *other* with a small 'o' to democratic America. This type of superiority was one of the most important features of colonial discourse which look down on the inferiority of the colonized. Iraqi Zeina was a colonized *other* who was marginalized by the US colonial discourse adopted by the (American) Zeina to identify Iraqi Zeina's difference from the center which is represented by American democracy. Iraqi Zeina crucially became the focus of anticipated mastery by the American Zeina's ego. Iraqi Zeina was the *other* – with the small 'o'- resembles the American Zeina, like the child discovers when it looks in the mirror and becomes aware of itself as a separate being. Iraqi Zeina was an uncoordinated mass of limbs and feelings sees her image in the mirror, that image must bear sufficient resemblance to herself to be recognized, but she must also be separate enough to ground her hope for an anticipated mastery.

For Lacan, Zeina entered the looking-glass or mirror stage. In this stage, she saw herself in a mirror while metaphorically seeing herself in her American image. Observing this mirror image permitted her to perceive images that have discrete boundaries, allowing her to become aware of herself as an independent being who is separate from her mother (America). This mirror image of herself as a whole and complete being is ideal, an illusion because unlike the actual mirror image, she was not in full control of herself, "Why couldn't I sit still for five minutes?" (p.15).

On the other hand, the relationship between the US colonizer and the colonized Zeina was determined by the discourse of democracy. The big *Other*, in this sense, is compared to the US discourse of democracy. Zeina gained a sense of her identity as somehow dependent on *other* because she desired to get rid of the oppression she and her family faced during Saddam's regime. Democracy became the absolute pole of address, the ideological framework in which Zeina came to understand the world, as she expressed her framed attitude, "They won't believe their eyes ... when they sup from the milk of democracy and taste of the life I lead here" (p. 10). Her subject was interpellated by the ideology of the maternal and nurturing function of the colonizing power, concurring with descriptions such as 'father America and 'Home'.

According to Lacan, the big *Other* might be either the father or the mother, whose *Otherness* places the subject in the Symbolic order and whose detachment from the subject places her as the initial target of desire. In the symbolic order, the father dominates this phase. For Zeina, the American discourse of democracy and freeing Iraq from the dictatorship represented the location of a father. Zeina started leaned the actual language of the US discourse that mastered her. It was the language that shaped her identity as a separate being and mold her psyche. In the symbolic order, Zeina learned that her father (the US discourse) came to represent cultural norms and laws.

Remarkably, the American choice of such a discourse of democracy in Iraq was for two objective reasons. The first one was the historical preference of the US policy for being known as the superpower of neocolonialism. What sets the

US occupation apart from other lands, Osterhammel (1995/1997) believes that "the United States is a case of imperialism without a strong colonial empire." (p.22). Young (2016) opines that the development of US imperialism put the United States in its category. Its type of imperialism can be accurately motivated by economic issues, which subsequently it "preferred forms of indirect rule and influence to direct colonial control" (p.42). The second reason was the nature of the colonized country itself. The US colonizers could not deliver a discourse related to issues such as religion, race, and culture like the Britishers did previously in African countries. Iraqi people, by nature, are not black and the majority of them follow monotheistic religions such as Islam and Christianity. Constructing a discourse related to these issues would be impracticable, therefore, the colonizers resorted to a better discourse for control and domination which related mostly to politics. This colonial attitude was asserted by president Georg W Bush when he tried to call for the US allies to take part in the Iraq war, "Gog and Magog are at work in the Middle East. Biblical prophecies are being fulfilled. This confrontation is willed by God, who wants to use this conflict to erase His people's enemies before a new age begins." (Volker, 2016).

## V. DEMONIZING THE COLONIZED OTHER

Based on the stereotypical images of the *otherness* that sees the world as divided into mutually excluding opposites, if the self (Colonizer) is ordered, rational, masculine, and good, then the other (Colonized) is chaotic, irrational, feminine, and evil. The colonized, in this sense, were demonized to reconstruct his/her identity in a way to keep the colonial domination. Kachachi portrayed the legacy of the US occupation of Iraqis being colonized *other*. The Iraqis represented by Zeina in the selected novel were under the perspective of imperialist logic. Demonizing the colonized others in the Iraqi case resulted in the distortion of the national identity through their inability to belong to anything even their names.

The author recounted several occasions on which Zeina appeared to be demonized. From the moment the American occupation of Iraq began, the conflict of belonging and identity commenced with Zina. She demonized herself being a traitor because she hailed the decision of occupation, "Despite my enthusiasm for the war, I experienced a strange kind of pain that was hard to define. Was I a hypocrite, a two-faced American? A dormant Iraqi" (p. 15). Zeina's reunion with her passionately nationalistic, anti-American maternal grandmother, Rahma, caused her to reassess her split loyalties and possessions. Rahma demonized her granddaughter and considered her a stepdaughter of the occupation. Additionally, Rahma wanted to bring Zeina up from scratch, "We will bring her up from scratch, this ignorant girl... We won't leave her to her ill manners." (p. 64).

Furthermore, and being a postcolonial fiction, the author demonized Zeina through the title of the novel. The title of a literary work is quite important, which is why authors should choose it carefully. A novel's title is significant because it encapsulates the spirit of the work. To capture the attention of the reader, the title must be appealing. The first impression of a novel is its title. Titles of novels resemble the appearance of a person, where people establish an initial impression based on his/her look, clothing, and body language. It is done with a title in stories. The importance of titles cannot be overstated. A title may arouse sentiments of interest and expectation, or it may arouse feelings of indifference. Often, whether or not someone will read a narrative depends on its title. The title of Kachachi's *The American Granddaughter* helped to structure the reader's understanding of the content. Though Zeina was born and raised by her Iraqi parents, she was referred to be an American granddaughter by the author. Choosing such a title has a clear indication of the upcoming US project for Iraq after the occupation. Adding this new nationality to this character distorted her original national identity in a way to shed the light on those *other* who are demonized by the colonizers' ventures.

Zeina's attitude engendered by the status quo was revealed in her opinions of the existing reality referred to above. All these spiritual and physical pressures that Zina received for being a demon because she was the colonized *other* led to deform her identity as well as to her inability to belong to anything even her name. Zeina lamented her belief in the US rhetoric of democracy at the novel's conclusion "I was naive to have imagined democracy to be like candy floss, colorful sugar wrapped around thin sticks that we could go around distributing to the kids." (p.164). Eventually, she got sucked into a vortex of the namelessness or the identitilessness that gave rise to rootless of her own, when she returned to Detroit couldn't belong to anything anymore, not even to her name "I couldn't belong to anything anymore, not even to my own name" (p.178). Belonging to one's name is the first sign of belonging to his/her identity. The personality theorist Gordon Allport (1961) contends that one's name is "The focal point upon which self-identity is organized over the course of an individual's life" (p.61).

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper encompasses a broad study of Inaam Kachachi's *The American Granddaughter* in which the ultimate objective was to tackle the Iraqi subject formation being colonized after the US invasion in 2003. The study conducts an examination of the theoretical concept central to postcolonial theory, Lacan's o/Otherness. Throughout the analysis of Zeina's character in the novel, we find that she has no choice but to be demonized because of her rudimentary advocacy of the US discourse of democracy. As a result, the colonized Zeina has a vortex of the namelessness or the identitilessness that gave rise to rootless of the Iraqi *other* colonized. This study also specified why the United States

chose this kind of discourse. The legacies of colonialism are thus varied and multiple even as they share some important features. As a postcolonial study, shedding light on the Iraqi colonized subject formation is part of the wider context. Having a nuanced understanding of US colonialism and its aftermath further studies could unveil other issues related to language, ideology, and culture in the Iraqi context.

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# Music, Songs, and Dances in Friel's Plays: A Cultural Perspective

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**Abstract**—The study aims to highlight Brian Friel's employment of non-verbal communication methods to present the major themes in his plays. Friel applied music, song, and dances as nonverbal language. Unlike other dramatists who applied these elements as a way for entertainment, or as marginal theatrical aids. However, this study attempted to reveal how these nonverbal elements played a very important function in expressing the inexpressible. They function at moments when language breaks, and are unable to express the characters' motives, inner feelings, or even repressed wishes and desires. The plays that are selected for this study are *Dancing at Lughnasa* (1990), and *The Faith Healer* (1979). The study will use cultural materialism as a critical approach that helps in shedding light on the historic events that shaped Friel's vision. The study concluded that music, song, and dance were employed as a language that revealed repressed desires, and hidden secrets.

**Index Terms**—Brian Friel, *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Irish Dances and songs, *The Faith Healer*, music and art, Northern Irish Theatre

## I. INTRODUCTION

Brian Friel was born in Northern Ireland, on January 9, 1929. He is considered one of the greatest Northern Irish dramatists. In 1980, with the collaboration with Stephen Rea, Friel, founded a new theatre in Northern Ireland which is known as Field Day Theater Company. Friel's importance is in his attempts to provide Irish dramatists with a new theatre to present plays of social and political significance. The study aims to present a re-reading of Friel's plays in this line of criticism to shed light on Irish culture and his efforts to present an Irish national identity. This study is an attempt to illuminate the main argument concerning Friel's nationalism as well as his endeavors to introduce the culturally independent Irish identity. Therefore, a cultural perspective of Friel's national efforts is particularly adopted concerning two of his plays: *Dancing at Lughnasa* (1990), and *The Faith Healer* (1979). In other words, this study will attempt to answer the following questions:

First, to what extent was the Irish political, and historical reality reflected in Brian Friel's works?

Second, to what extent was Brian Friel influenced by the Irish national movement?

Finally, the study will draw upon the dramatic texts of Friel to trace his sense of nationalism and his endeavors to find an outlet for the Northern Irish identity crisis. The plays that are selected for this study are *Dancing at Lughnasa* (1990), and *The Faith Healer* (1979). These plays have been selected among Friel's plays since they are relevant to the topic of this study.

In this study, the researcher will explore how music and dances are considered a language for they share many elements with language. In other words, they could be seen as symbols and meanings that we feel relatively confident to be shared with others. A major feature of music and dances is their subjectivity; they are seen as a medium to express people's experiences. About the major feature of music, the study focuses on its "subjectivity" because it has the power to urge individuals not to be contented that their musical taste is something personal and so it is a rare experience not to be shared by others. This has resulted in the attempt to decode music into words or to express musical phenomena in words, to express this sensuous experience (Dorian, 1992, p. 2). Music, song, and dance could be considered one of the most effective arts. They play a very important role in theatrical production. They are used as new ways of visual expression in theatrical performances and main forms for many fine artists of Impressionism and Post Impressionism (Thomas, [HTTP: //rupkatha. Com/dance -in-impressionism](http://rupkatha.com/dance-in-impressionism)).

Dances became the most imperative art movement especially in France with the appearance of a movement called "the fin de siècle", this event steered a dance to the greatest theatrical development of Modern Art in the twentieth century (ibid). In this regard, the study aims at highlighting the treatment of dance in Friel's *Dancing at Lughnasa* as an example of dance as a language. Of all Friel's plays, *Dancing at Lughnasa* is regarded as his most popular play. In this play, the dance becomes an essential element in the action, even more, important than the action itself. Dance is considered a language that could express repression, desires, and even aspirations.

## II. METHODS

Taking historical facts into consideration, Friel attempts to embody Northern Ireland's hopes, fears, and expectations. Therefore, the study will make use of cultural materialism as a critical approach that helps in increasing the



understanding of the great historic events that shaped Friel's vision. According to this theory, "the primary task of anthropology is to give causal explanations for the differences and similarities in thoughts and behaviors of human groups" (Harris, 1997, p.13). According to Harris, there is also an interaction between the individual of a specific society and his environment because he, "sees people and environment in interaction from one system" (p.12). Thus, in this light culture is a "system of the different aspects of religious politics, kinship as having interaction" (p.12), and these different cultural aspects as "more interrelated forming a system" (p.12). In other words, applying cultural materialism as a method of examining Friel's interest in culture and his role in its revival to be presented in a modern context. No doubt then, cultural materialism gives the study a chance to investigate the interaction between the cultural, political, and economic forces that had a great influence on Brian Friel's drama in particular.

Fine arts, music, and dance are distinguished cultural markers. Hence, the study investigates Friel's dances and music as typical artistic cultural forms. The study adopts multi-culturalism as a method of investigating the cultural representation of dance. What is worth noting is that Friel introduces various kinds of dance- sermons such as the pagan Celtic dance of Lughnasa, the African dance of the "Ryangans" celebrating the African goddess "Obi" and finally the implicitly Catholic dance rituals. The study aims to prove that Friel's unfolding of the dances and songs is a part of post-modern dramaturgical modernism. Michael who is the main character and the narrator describes the incident when his mother, as well as his aunts, participated in this dance with the influence of the music coming from their "Marconi" wireless radio. In this sense, Friel links music and dance with time to give a further dimension of nostalgia. In other words, Friel's experimentation with the form should be highlighted since he is revealed as a "post-modern" dramatist. As Andrews argues, Friel's linking of the music and dance enables him to address "the postmodern agenda", by using an assortment of self-reflexive methods, a fact which enables him to go through revealing the discrete perception of individuality and history and unmasking the veiled misrepresentation of the accredited manners (Andrews, 2005, p. 72).

Friel's employment of music in *Dancing at Lughnasa* is of great significance, it functions as a "coordination between man and time" (Stravinsky, 2020, p.91). The study tries to prove that Music is not an additional element, on the contrary, it plays an important key role in expressing people's feelings, to translating dramatic situations into a sensuous experience. Music is used to transmit man's experience in different times and places. Hence, in *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Friel's treatment of music, song, and dance was a source of cultural markers that reflect human moments of happiness and distress, fears, hopes, and inner consciousness. The play shows different cultures, instead of presenting a direct reference to the differences between cultures: he uses dances to attract the audience's attention to these cultures: the pagan Celtic dance of Lughnasa, the African dance of the "Ryangans" celebrating the African goddess "Obi" and finally the implicitly Catholic dance rituals. In this context, dance and music become unifying factors, blending different cultures.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Friel's interest in music and dance is to be noted for he was careful in modernizing his theatre and presented a revolutionary development of the traditional drama. Highlighting Friel's achievements in this respect, Friel is entirely willing to adapt to the modern theatrical production experience. What the study realizes then, is Friel's unfolding of the dances and songs as a part of this post-modern dramaturgical lesson. Thus, dance can "illuminate a script and consequently, provide an audience with a "range of signals which can add to the pleasure of the evening in the theatre" (Dowling, 2003, p. 187).

#### A. Dances as Cultural Markers

Culture throughout history has constantly subjugated the probability of linking the artistic function of dances with the cultural aspects. Dances can reflect popular culture by reflecting their attitude and reaction to the issue of dances themselves. Every culture has its way of dance, a fact which could be shared among all cultures of different backgrounds including the highly developed cultures to the most primitive cultures. In other words, one can state that dance is a universal human art, one of the most popular art forms that humanity practices.

Culture varied in their employment of dances in their life; some of them merely used it as an expression of their emotional state regarding certain events such as marriage ceremonies, or even death rituals. Dance is not merely physical, rather it has a spiritual function. Dance was the main element in the sacred and secular rituals of all cultures throughout history. Perhaps a plain example is the ritual of pilgrimage that is found in different cultures. This religious tradition includes in some parts of it a kind of rhythmic ritual of body movement with the purpose of its praise and worship to its creator. We can't frankly call these religious rituals "dance", but they shared dances with that regular rhythmic pattern of body movement. The same is said regarding prayers, many cultures employed dance as an important element in performing their prayers. In other words, dances have been a chief part of ceremonials, rites, and festivities for amusement from the ancient eras of human history. For instance, archaeological discoveries carved on rocks that dance is an ancient art referring to "prehistoric times, dating back as far as 10 000 years ago. Such as in the cave paintings in the rock shelters of Bhimbetka which depict the powerful vitality of primitive dances"(Senza, 2020, p.1).

If we trace the employment of dance as a means of worshipping, we will find many examples, starting from the primitive and pagan cultures to the religious and believers in different religions such as Islam and Christianity and Buddhism, and others. The study will present just some examples to confirm the idea that dance is found in pagan and

religious cultures, and played an important function. Regarding primitive culture, the study presents shamanic civilizations as examples, in this type of dance happiness pursues the "unnatural". The supernatural power is exclusive to the magician or shaman. (ibid)

For the Greeks, there was a special form of dance which was called "Chorea ". In Christianity, dance was used as a part of liturgical rituals. As stated by Senza, especially for the early congregations of Christians, a form of "ecstatic" dance was accomplished to bring the spiritual experience to its supreme and most complete means of their spiritual practice" (Senza, 2022, p.1). Moreover, for Hindus, the whole Cosmos come to being as a display of the dance of the great dancer, "Nataraja". (Ibid) Also, in Judaism, dance has also been used as a way of revealing delight in the perceptiveness of god, thus; it functions an essential role in religious performance. Perhaps both "Ashkenazi" and "Sephardi" are also other forms of dance that are associated with significant occasions such as weddings or ritual festivities (Senza, p.1). In Islam, on the other hand, the revolving "Dervishes" are actual men who belong to the Sufi movement; they follow mystical unification with Allah, the only One God, by performing a certain practice of dance, in which they twizzle around on themselves until they became dazed. In conclusion, dance is used not only as a way of entertainment but also as a part of religious rituals.

In *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Friel introduced many varied types of dances. Dancing replaced language and body movement replaced words or even language itself. Even more, dances are considered a ceremony where rhythmical body movement worked because language no longer has a positive function. After all, words were unnecessary. In other words, dances dominate where language leaves off, where spoken words are transformed into dance. Dances should not only be regarded as a means of entertainment, they also revealed complex actions that or even actions failed to convey. Friel used this aspect of dance as an essential part of the religious festivals revealing different religions, but dance was a common thing in all of them where the characters join this dance together. For example, in *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Kate, the schoolteacher, criticized the pagan dance in County Donegal, which is a Catholic community: "Savages. That's what they are! And what pagan practices they have are of no concerns of ours—none whatever! It's a sorry day to hear talk like that in a Christian home. A Catholic home" (Friel, *Dancing at Lughnasa*, 1992, p. 35).

In Friel's *Dancing at Lughnasa*, a major part of the play's events is presented through dances, and "most exciting visual and theatrical possibilities" could be seen in the frenzied dancing customs". However, the stage directions presented a "detailed realism" against the domestic common details of the daily life that the sisters had (Dowling, p.187). Besides, there are other indirect inferences of the uses of music and dance in psychiatric therapy, and as a way of rectification faith in its power to affect human activities (Epperson, 2021, p.1). Thus, among the psychotherapy "signals" of the dance's function is the intensification of the moment with reality, in which time neither stops, nor history is ignored. On the other hand, both of them can be molded and give us the enjoyable combination of music and dance" (O' Toole, 213). This combination of both dance and music can augment an adversative vision of history and society. This mixture of these audio and kinetic elements is seen, as a way of remembering the past and transforming the present (White, 553). By presenting a nostalgic dimension, Friel attempted to give his play a "sentimental tone" (Krause, 1997, p.368). Nostalgia is defined by Krause as or exceptionally emotional longing for a return to a specific period in the past (1997, p.368). Obviously, in the presentation of the dance as a cultural marker, Friel revealed awareness of dance as an important dramatic device. Metaphorically, *Dancing at Lughnasa* "conflates boundaries", negating both realism and fancy because they are equally limited, and signifying that "the cycle of life, like the body's dance of self-exploration, although short, can affect transformation" (Fusco, 1996, p.109). At this point, one can see how Friel attempts to assimilate this ritual experience with the cultural perspective since he is always stressing the inter-cultural relations of selecting constancy and transformation.

To clarify more, in *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Friel uses its principal image of dancing to convexity the repressed harvest festival practices of pre-Christian Ireland with correspondent African rituals of the festival. Likewise, Grene highlights the mythic significance of the dance, he argues that "the ritual patterns remain buried within the representation of a believable social reality" (Grene, 2000, p.265). Dance, festive and unrestricted, is Friel's metaphor. If acknowledged and seen in its context, it enables the women to "challenge and escape the boundaries of ideological containment" (Fusco, 1996, p.109). Symbolically, Friel establishes that the dance, "longed for but forbidden", is the recognized or noticeable aspect of an allegorical code that could be deduced and understood.

If we take the relationship between the sign and the signifier, the study argues that the dance signifies the metaphoric meaning of the play as a whole. In this regard, the dance which Friel presented in the play indicates the allegorical meaning hidden within. This is established in the women dancing scene: They were moving in circles clapping their hands while dancing and laughing hysterically and dancing madly. This dance had a symbolic depth since it expresses affection and warmth of feelings between those who joined the dance.

Also, if we take this action from a psychological angle, the dance can be seen as a type of projection where repressed emotions or desires find an outlet in another acceptable form. To clarify this point, it is important at this fact to take into consideration that the sisters are unsatisfied in their lives. All of them searched for love, but no one of them had this experience at all. None are married. In other words, the study argues that the hysterical physical movements of the dancers which lasted for a long time, indicate their sense of detention and "unfulfilled desire" (Fusco, 1996, p.110). Dance Movement intervenes in the clash between "word-bound" reality and "potential transcendence". The women's longing to dance is a metonymy of "oppression, repression, and rebellion" (Fusco, 1996, p.110). The brief euphoric

dances of the Mundy women, hesitating between limitation and relief. In other words, dance can be a metaphor for the link between the hidden "ideological powers" and their physical and emotional "containment" (Fusco, 1996, p.109).

Moreover, by employing the dance technique in his plays, Friel introduces dance within a historical dimension. For instance, in *Dancing at Lughnasa*, through the technique of dancing, songs, and music, Friel attempts to reflect the world as a "Ritual" dance, and by ritualizing this world he looks forward to "give shape and significance of a ceremony while accepting the lack, of power of the theatre to affect it" (O'Toole, 1993, p. 212). There is a clear contrast between the African dance as a representative of the Ugandan culture and that of Lughnasa. Father Jack himself declares that the people of Raynga are astonishing for they don't show any division between the religious and the secular in their culture. Here Friel indirectly conveys a message to the Irish people whose culture is still stumbled with religious division.

He introduced an intercultural manifestation represented in the dance rituals; in this light, however, the study concludes that Friel experimented with these techniques and discovered their powerful function as interaction with the audience on the one hand and the symbolic implication of repressed motives and desires. So, the study argues that the tension in the play is presented by "those charming auditory pleasant sounds, in addition to the visual folk dances, "dancing sounds became so sweet and mesmeric" (Krause, 1997, p.369). Consequently, in *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Gerry's character is a representative of this attitude, he believed dance could abolish the trouble of the world. Because he is a dancing teacher, Gerry believed that dancing "conquers all" (Krause, 1997, p. 369). To conclude, Friel presents dance within a social, psychological framework where dance can be a way of dancing is a way of communication between different people and cultures. Dance is a natural outlet for individuals' repressed desires, hopes, or dreams.

### B. Music and Songs as a Language

Music is a variable art; it is associated with verse, as in lyrics, and with movement, as in dance. Throughout, music as art had an astonishing feature which is its influence on moving people's emotions. On the other hand, songs have always been related to music. Because music has varied ecstatic possibilities, many cultures have recognized it as one of the distinguished high arts, and so much of music has usually been admitted into practice under different conditions, including happy and sad or even inflexible throughout history, songs, and music have been important assistant to ceremonial dramatic production and has been recognized for with the capacity to "reveal and affect human sensation" (Epperson, 2021, p.1). No doubt then, *Dancing at Lughnasa*, shows Friel at his most innovative skills, his awareness of the importance of music and songs should be highlighted at this particular point since they are relevant to that dance. What makes Friel's *Dancing at Lughnasa* an extraordinary play is Friel's employment of music to convey the text message in an elevated and extraordinary manner identical to his intention. This professional skill must always be the prevailing objective of any production of Friel's plays. Like Yeats who employed music and songs to intensify "the heroic impulse" in which the action is manifested in a form of dance" (Ellis, 1999, p. 278).

Similarly, Friel has introduced varied forms such as popular music, common tunes, and sacred songs, which are all used to preserve the ecstatic and reverential attitude of the play (Krause, 1997, p.367). Therefore, the music and song can heighten the dramatic proficiency in the effect expected to be seen among the audience. Furthermore, the interaction of music and dance will surely maintain the desired reaction. Formerly, Yeats discovered this close interaction and considered it as a "paradox of intimacy" which is achieved "through watching the miming and dancing... that whereas the performer was very close to his audience... and dispensed with all but the simplest stage trappings, the effect was one of distance" (Murray, 1993, p. 84).

Likewise, focusing his eyes on the audience, Friel attempted to reach the ultimate emotional interaction between him and the audience. To do so, he presents scenes where music, songs, and dances all work in interaction together when words are unable to express the character's dilemma, dance technique if accompanied by song and music can signify the facts that language breaks down to convey because they are twofold measure towards the unutterable, where speech fails to express when linked to understanding, duplicates the musical patterns (White, 1996, p. 560).

Thus, the study sees it rather important in this context to explain another function of the music and songs where they are regarded as 'further narrative' that demonstrated and exemplified the conflict which is prevalent in the plot. In *Dancing at Lughnasa*, Friel used music to denote past time, Michael from the beginning of the play's action assures his audience that this is the memory of an event that took place in the summer of 1936, the time in which the play is set. Moreover, as the play commences drawing to a close, Michael contemplates that "the memory of that summer is like a dream to me, a dream of music that is both heard and imagined" (Friel, p.51).

Referring to these aspects, Friel estimates music and dance for their "verbal effects" (White, p. 560). This is best seen in *Translations* "where Friel conjectures that dance is a kind of language; a means of communication and self-expression. This belief is held by Chomsky who defines music as a communication system, exactly like language but presented in a symbolic system (Chomsky, 2020, p.32).

Taking Chomsky's definition into consideration, the study can confirm that both music and dance are surely "symbolic systems". Dances then become "an active sign" and their importance is consequently seen as an action of identity-creation and self-expression (Barko, 1977, p.296). What is more important here is that dance could identify culture and history; in other words, we could interpret it as indicative of identity. Regarding this attitude toward dances, Stewart and Armitage in *The Modern Dance* state that wherever we go, modern dance is an expression through body language. Even more, dance can express a spiritual message, for the meaning of dance, could be transformed into imperceptible mental impulses which are expressed in movements. This context must quote Friel's own words regarding

the technique of dance in Lughnasa. Friel ends his play with Michael remembering the scene of his parents' dancing together; the "Frenzy of uninhibited dancing" of the festival of Lughnasa could be seen as a symbol of the theme of "repression and sublimation" (Krause, p. 369).

Taking dance as a sign of 'repression and sublimation', the study could exemplify this fact in the character of a missionary priest, Father Jack, who spent nearly twenty-five years in the African colonies. However, Father Jack had identified the pagan ritual of the Lughnasa festival with the African ritual of the harvest. No doubt, Father Jack's "embracing" of the 'powerful African ritual' ironically indicates his "exchanging" of his religion, for a conversion to the Ugandan faith (Krause, p. 397). Nevertheless, his recalling of the African dance while others were dancing the Lughnasa dance led to the revelation of this secret that Father Jack was hiding all the time.

While speaking to Kate, Father Jack identifies himself as a member belonging to the African Ryangan community. He describes the festivals at the Ugandan harvest time. He told her that they celebrated two great festivals; are the festival of the New Yam and the festival of the Sweet Cassava. These ceremonies are pagan dedication to their Great Goddess, "Obi". The ritual of the festival began with the ceremonial sacrifice of a bird, calf, or lamb near the river bank. At that point, the ritual gathering and smearing of the first harvest. Then many prayers start to express the people's gratitude. After Thanksgiving is over, the dance starts; fires are well-lit near the border of the fire circle, and The villagers shade their faces with stained dust and start singing folk songs; and "dance – and dance – children, men, women ... dancing...for days on end" (Friel, *Dancing at Lughnasa*, p. 48).

Like *Dancing at Lughnasa*, the use of songs and music in *The Faith Healer* is perceived as "balanced" between the 'absurd' and "the momentous" (White, p.555). The study highlights Friel's use of songs and music in *The Faith Healer*. Friel's choice of songs assumes for each of the three characters, but particularly for Teddy (who presents the third monologues, the eminence of reality itself).

Friel's insistence on the combination between songs and dance produces a creative power, thus it turns out to be an "apostrophe" in the simple outspokenness of the songs which unveils the love between Grace, Frank, and Teddy (White, p.557).

Thus, the song signifies, the 'status of the truth' as indicated above. Here once again, "The stage space as a factor in dramatic meaning" (Knowland, p. 165). This dramatic meaning could be maintained in multiple dramatic forms including the song itself. To exemplify this fact, the song here functions as a dream-like situation, an "escape mechanism" a means of tranquilizing therapy, and a "momentary solution for the characters". It links between the "nostalgic function of the song and the people's "rooted consciousness" (Andrews, p. 185). This justifies why Friel's characters reveal the incapability to live in the present: they are either stumbling in the past or dreaming of the future (Andrews, 2005, p.185).

Finally, Friel's use of dance and song has resulted in a high artistic quality theatre that is universally acknowledged as a "distinctly marketable phenomenon" (Greene, 2000, p.262).

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The study provided a new reading of Friel's drama from a cultural standpoint of literature. Friel applied music, song, and dances as nonverbal language. Unlike other dramatists who applied these elements as a way for entertainment, or as marginal theatrical aids; Friel attempted to use these nonverbal tools for special functional purposes, in specific situations where characters found themselves unable to express their unutterable feelings. What is worth noting is that Friel's experimentation with music, songs, and dances in his plays proved to be an assertion of the national treatment of the Irish culture. The cultural gestures are proved to be constantly apparent as a background for Friel's plays on the one hand, and as a source of assertion of national identity. The study proved that music, song, and dance are major dramatic techniques that helped in establishing a distinctive cultural color of the play. They reflected national and cultural identity by reminding their audience of the ancient dances and songs in an attempt to revive Irish culture and bring it back to life.

Friel's *The Faith Healer*, and *Dancing at Lughnasa* reveal a trend that usually places Friel's plays as landmarks in contemporary Irish drama. From this perspective, the results of the study conclude that Friel's greatness is due to his experimental theatre especially his usage of music, song, and dance as a language that expressed the character's repression, desires, and even aspirations, and as a cultural motto of national identity.

Friel's works revealed much identification with the Irish history and culture through his employment of songs, dances, and music as major elements in his dramatic experimental productions. Therefore, by using music, songs, and dance as tools to reflex the cultural depth of the Irish reality, Friel proved to be an innovator, and hence he played a significant role in analyzing the northern Irish habitat with its conflicts and contradictions. The study proved Friel's revival of the classic Irish national themes by restaging his plays in new techniques in a more modern context, the fact that enabled the Irish theatre to be a phenomenon not only on the national literary scene but also on a global scope. Finally, the study analysis of selected plays beginning with *Dancing at Lughnasa*, followed by *The Faith Healer*, proved that Friel succeeded in presenting the Irish culture as vivid and still reflects a distinguished independent cultural Irish identity. By doing so, the study has proved Friel's success in employing music, songs, and dance as cultural markers of the Irish identity, with a focus on the Irish roots as presented in folk songs and dances.

On the other hand, the presentation of different dances and songs from other cultures conveys a message that Friel calls for openness toward intercultural interaction and this fact makes his plays a great reception all over the world. To conclude, Friel is regarded as an innovator of theatre since he reveals a deeper understanding of dances and songs as cultural phenomena that can respond to global challenges. Finally, the study proved that both music and dance are indicative of cultural identity, and hence, they could identify culture and history.

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# The Use of the Chinese Negative Adverbs ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ by Secondary School Students in Yaoundé, Cameroon

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**Abstract**—Negation is an indispensable grammatical category common to all languages in the world. It is used in a unique way by each language. In Chinese, negation is expressed using negative adverbs, the most common of which are ‘bù’ and ‘méi’. The usage of these negative adverbs in Chinese is different from that in French, so the difference in usage is a challenge for Yaoundé’s secondary-school students. To effectively analyse the use of the Chinese negative adverbs ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ by Yaoundé secondary-school students, this article divides the use of ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ into eight grammatical structures, and presents research gathered from questionnaires and interviews. The author then analyses the different types of mistakes made by Yaoundé secondary-school students in using ‘bù’ and ‘méi’, exploring the motivation and purpose of their use. Recommendations are also provided to advise local secondary schools on how to approach teaching negative words in Chinese.

**Index Terms**—comparison of Chinese and French, ‘bù’ and ‘méi’, analysis of errors

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the arrival of the “Chinese-language fever”, more and more Cameroonians have started to learn Chinese in China, and in Confucius Institutes in Cameroon. In 1996, Zhejiang Normal University established the first Chinese-language training centre for the Ministry of Education in Africa in Cameroon. In November 2007, Zhejiang Normal University established the first Confucius Institute in Cameroon in cooperation with the University of Yaoundé II. Thirteen teaching centres have been established since in Yaoundé Douala, Maroua, and Buea, with more than 30,000 people learning Chinese. In 2012 alone, 8,120 Cameroonians studied Chinese in Confucius Institutes, a 59% increase from 2011. The Cameroonian government also added Chinese to the national education system in 2012, further promoting the spread of Chinese culture in Cameroon.

Negative adverbs are both a focus and challenge in teaching every language. There are many negative words in modern Chinese, among which ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ play an important role. Although they are commonly used in Chinese, their use remains challenging for secondary-school students in Cameroon. The negative adverbs ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ are primarily used to negate sentences. As primary grammatical markers, ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ play an essential role in the structure of the sentence, thus deeply affecting the learners’ understanding of the sentence. There is little research on the usage of Chinese grammar in Cameroon, especially on Cameroon’s Chinese grammar. In particular, there has been little research on the use of negative adverbs. It is hoped that the analysis in this paper can help correct some learners’ mistakes in using the Chinese negative adverbs ‘bù’ and ‘méi’.

## II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The use of negative adverbs in Chinese has attracted the attention of some grammarians, who have done a lot of research over the years to analyze the grammatical phenomena of ‘bù’ and ‘méi’. ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ are not only the most frequently used negative adverbs in Chinese, but they are also the most frequently used Chinese negating words by Cameroonian secondary school students at the third-grade level. This part describes the different methods used to conduct the research and gives some hints about the research target.

### A. Investigation Method

In order to understand the situation of Yaoundé secondary school students learning to use the Chinese negative adverbs ‘bù’ and ‘méi’ in the classroom, a questionnaire was designed, and relevant data was collected from various academic and online sources. The questionnaire is mainly focused on the elementary level. In Cameroon, junior high school and high school are under the same school system. Junior high school is divided into grade one through four, and high school is divided into grade one through three; a total of seven grades. After finishing the second grade of junior high school, each Cameroonian student is required to choose one foreign language out of five optional languages to study: Spanish, Arabic, Italian, Chinese and German. A student in the third grade of junior high school can only be promoted to the next class if his/her grade point average is equal to or higher than 10 points (credit system). This paper

takes Cameroon-Yaoundé junior high school students in the third grade as subjects to participate in the questionnaire. It summarizes the study and use of 'bù' and 'mé' by Yaoundé secondary school students based on the results of the questionnaire, and analyzes the causes of the errors the students produced.

### B. Test Paper Design

The questionnaire is particularly designed for the junior high school level, and the survey participants correspond to secondary school students in the third grade. The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part contains basic information on the subjects, including the subjects' gender, HSK level, age, class, and the length of time they spent learning Chinese. The second part is a series of sentences about 'bù' and 'mé'. The test sentences were all selected from textbooks on Chinese as a foreign language, and were mainly focused on the negative structures of 'bù' and 'mé'. Typical sentences were chosen, and the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'mé' were removed from the sentences to allow the students to choose 'bù' or 'mé' to fill in the blank.

TABLE 1  
INFORMATION ABOUT THE TEST SENTENCES OF THE THIRD GRADE

Category	Structure of negation	Sentences
a	bù+be/ mé+have	1.这是____我的电脑。 2.安娜____有汉语词典。
b	mé+verb/adjective+guo	18.有些汉语书我和丽丽以前都____看过。 21.妈妈以前从来____吃过中国菜，这是第一次。 30.从此，丽丽再也____停止过看书，学习了不少的汉语知识。
c	mé+verb+result complement	20.昨天的工作我还____做完，因为我太忙了。
d	verb+ bù +result complement	26.这个学校太广了，我转了几分钟就糊涂了，分____清东南西北。
e	bù/ mé +verb	12.我们的学校____在杜阿拉，在雅温得。 13.我____买鞋子，买了学习汉语的书。 15.妹妹____知道怎么打扮，所以让我教她。 22.昨天下午他身体不舒服，所以____去怕山。 29.他____懂得怎么照顾孩子，每天让他们看电视。
f	bù/mei+adjective	3.今天的讲座讲得____有趣。 4.他们的学校____大，但很远。 9.我觉得这个橘子一点儿也____甜。 11.我的手机____错，你看，那部手机也是六点半。 14.你们班的非洲学生多____多？ 16.打太极拳____难，我已经会打了。 23.老师不知道哪个词典好用，哪个词典____好用。 25.姐姐的嗓子不舒服，所以这次唱歌比赛唱得____好。
g	bù/ mé +verbs of actions	5.我____会唱歌，但是我想学唱中国歌。 6.丽丽____想当医生，想当服务员。
h	bù/ mé +verb+ particle 'le'	7.我今天不舒服，____去博物馆玩了。 8.他决定____去旅游了。 17.爸爸告诉他，网上骗人的事情很多，____能太相信。 19.大卫和我已经五年多____见面了。 27.我刚刚把它递过去，他们脸上的微笑一下子就____见了。

Among the various structures of negation, the bias rates for the test are shown in the table below:

TABLE 2  
THE CORRESPONDING NUMBER OF THE SENTENCES AND THE ERROR RATES FOR EACH CATEGORY OF THE THIRD GRADERS' TEST PAPER

Category	Structures of negation	Sentence numbers	Bias rate
a	bù+be/ mé+have	1, 2	0.00%
b	mé+verb/adjective+guo	18, 21, 30	11.40%
c	mé+verb+result complement	20	3.50%
d	verb+ bù+result complement	26	5.70%
e	bù/ mé +verb	12, 13, 15, 22, 29	20.61%
f	bù/ mé +adjective	3, 4, 9, 11, 14, 16, 23, 25	16.22%
g	bù/ mé +verbs of actions	5, 6, 17	1.75%
h	bù/ mé +verb+particle 'le'	7, 8, 19, 27	18.85%

### C. Test Participants

The test participants are Cameroon-Yaoundé secondary school students, mainly for the third grade of junior high school. The primary test paper was administered to students in the third grade of the Cameroon-Yaoundé secondary school. 50 questionnaires were distributed in the third grade, and the final sample size of the test paper was 30. French



is one of the most widely spoken languages in Cameroon and one of the languages of school education. French has a strong influence on the foreign language acquisition of French-speaking Cameroonians because of their high exposure to French. In view of the position French occupies in the daily life of Cameroonians, especially among students, the object of this study is French-speaking Chinese learners, who are secondary school students in the third grade. Corresponding to beginner Chinese learners this standard is defined according to the national syllabus of Cameroon.

### III. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many studies on the differences between 'bù' and 'méi' in modern Chinese grammar. Among them, the most representative and influential is the time decision theory advocated by Lu Shuxiang, Guo Rui, Xu Jianzhang, Liu Tonggui and Zhang Shiyang. The main difference between the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi' is the concept of time. Lu (1980) believes that 'méi' can only be used for an objective narrative, limited to the past and present, not the future; 'bù' is used for subjective will, and can refer to the past, present and future. Guo (1997) thinks that in the "theory of process" and "non-process", 'bù' is a negation of time, and is a "non-process", which is used to deny the nature of the components of the predicate. 'méi' is used to negate the process and the existence of events. Xu (2004) believes that the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi' with predicates should obey the general time that has been or has not been limited, in the state of something already existing. 'méi' can be used to negate, or 'bù' can be used to conditionally negate. In the non-state, only 'bù' can be used to negate. Liu (2008) distinguishes between the internal and external tenses of 'bù' and 'méi' in verbs, and considers that the negative forms of the dynamic predicates 'bù' and 'méi' can be used when the negative form of the non-temporal dynamic predicate uses 'bù', and the most complete predicate verb can be negated with 'méi'. From the subjective and objective point of view, some grammarians believe that the main difference between 'bù' and 'méi' is reflected in the subjective and objective. Xu (2004) believes that, in addition to being limited by time, the use of 'bù' and 'méi' is also subject to subjective and objective constraints. 'bù' can be used in subjective negation sentences, and 'méi' is mainly used in subjective negation sentences, or conditionally used in subjective negation sentences.

The use of negative adverbs in Chinese has always been a grammatical problem that is difficult for French-speaking countries to understand, because the content of negative adverbs in grammar textbooks is often not detailed and clear enough. In his book *Apprentissage du chinois par des adultes occidentaux au niveau débutant*, Li (2004) argues that the difference between 'bù' and 'méi' is in time. He thinks that if the negation is related to a past verb, the use of 'bù' and 'méi' depends on the nature of the action, and if the action is continuous and habitual, 'bù' must be used. 'bù' is used for current and future actions, but only the negative adverb 'méi' can be used if the verb "to have" is modified. 'bù' is used for ongoing and routine operations. 'méi' is used for a one-time action.

When French native speakers learn the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi', two phenomena seem to stand out, one is the difficulty to distinguish the function of the negative adverb, and the other is the difficulty to arrange the position of the negative adverb in the sentence. Arnaud (2007) devoted himself to the study of foreign language acquisition by French native speakers. He started from the definition of "foreign language acquisition" and pointed out the difficulties encountered by French-speaking countries in the process of Chinese acquisition. He analyzed the French native language from the perspective of syntax and semantics and highlighted the mistakes that readers make when using the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi'. According to his analysis, the difference between 'bù' and 'méi' in French and Chinese is not obvious. In French construction, 'bù' can mean "non" as well as "ne pas", depending on the meaning of the sentence. "méi" means "ne pas". Therefore, French learners tend to mix up 'bù' and 'méi' when learning Chinese.

In the field of teaching Chinese as a foreign language, the research on 'bù' and 'méi' started late, and compared with ontology, the research results are limited. Li (2004) started from the acquisition process and used various methods to observe and record the use of negative structures of 'bù' and 'méi' in international students through case analysis and group research. Li Ying found that errors appeared when foreign students learned these two negative structures. Due to the difference in the familiarity of time words and lexical phrases, foreign students had a particular preference with using the negative structures of 'bù' and 'méi'. When the two are mixed, 'bù' has a certain dominance, and 'méi' is not usually generalized, which means that students will use 'bù' instead of 'méi' in most cases. Shen (2019) conducted a survey on the use of Chinese negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi' by Korean native speakers, starting from the fact that Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family and Korean belongs to the Altaic language family. It was found that the differences between the linguistic families brought about differences in use of Chinese by students learning Chinese. Shen took Korean students who had studied Korean for more than three months as the participants of the survey. The proficiency of these survey objects in Chinese was very different. Therefore, she summarized the reasons behind the erroneous use of Chinese negation adverbials by Korean students, and proposed that teaching strategies are not always suitable for all students. The subjects of each learning stage are targeted. Li and Xu (2009) conducted a survey on two Australian international students (native English speakers), collected negative structures as corpus through free conversation, and analyzed deviations of learners' use of 'bù' and 'méi' negative structures from three learning stages. Research shows that the mixed use of 'bù' and 'méi' is extremely complex, and this bias does not diminish as the learning stage progresses, tending to use 'bù' when they deny the present or the future; Learners often use a mixture of "bù" and "méi" when referring to past behaviors or situations.

## IV. SURVEY

Regarding the personal information of secondary school students in Yaoundé basic information, such as gender and class, will not be discussed. The test papers of the third-grade students were collected to count the deviations that occurred in each sentence. The statistical results of the “bù” and “má” bias analysis of the Cameroon-Yaoundé secondary school students in the third grade are as follows.

TABLE 3  
STATISTICS OF ERRORS IN THE TEST PAPERS FOR THE THIRD GRADE

Sentence numbers	Category	Bias	Sample size	Bias rate
1	a	0	30	0,0%
2	a	0	30	0,0%
3	f	0	30	0,0%
4	f	1	30	3.3%
5	g	1	30	3.3%
6	g	3	30	10%
7	h	9	30	30%
8	h	19	30	63.3%
9	f	7	30	23.3%
11	f	25	30	83.3%
12	e	5	30	16.7%
13	e	20	30	66.7%
14	f	1	30	3.3%
15	e	1	30	3.3%
16	f	3	30	10%
17	g	0	30	0,0%
18	b	2	30	6.7%
19	h	11	30	36.7%
20	c	8	30	26.7%
21	b	8	30	26.7%
22	e	14	30	46.7%
23	f	0	30	0,0%
25	f	0	30	0,0%
26	d	13	30	43.3%
27	h	15	30	50%
29	e	7	30	23.3%
30	b	16	30	53.3%

As can be seen from Table 3, in the test of the third-grade's test paper, the deviation rate of sentences 1, 2, 3, 17, 23, and 25 is zero, which shows that for these test sentences, none of the students produced errors.

Sentence 1 “这\_\_是我的电脑。”

Sentence 2 “安娜\_\_有汉语词典。”

‘bù’ and ‘má’ are relatively common negative structures encountered by Cameroonian students when they learn Chinese. Secondary school students often learn to use fixed memory blocks in their studies, and they often combine memory for “bù +be” and “má +have” in their minds, so there are few errors. The purpose of this test is to test whether Cameroon Yaoundé secondary school students still make “má +be” and “bù +have” mistakes after learning Chinese for a period of time. The test found that Cameroon- Yaoundé secondary school students studied for four months. After that, they were able to fully grasp this usage without making mistakes.

Sentence 3 “大卫\_\_喜欢踢足球”

Sentence 17 “爸爸告诉他，网上骗人的事情很多，\_\_能太相信。”

Sentence 23 “老师不知道哪个词典好用，哪个词典\_\_好用。”

Sentence 25 “姐姐的嗓子不舒服，所以这次唱歌比赛唱得\_\_太好。”

In these sentences, all participants also answered correctly. Through the analysis of teaching materials and topics, it was found that Cameroon-Yaoundé secondary school students often use familiar words such as “dislike”, “can't”, “not good”. They may not know why, but they just extract familiar phrases from the memory bank and choose from experience. These topics also contain fixed usages from the textbook, so there is no bias.

Sentence 11 had the highest error rate at 83.3%. That is, 25 of the 30 participants chose the wrong negative word to match the sentence with.

Sentence 11 “我的手机\_\_错，你看，那部手机也是六点半。”

For this question, most of the participants chose ‘bù’, and the word “bad” (错) is the word they often come into contact with. When primary learners are exposed to this word, they often use some short phrases for combined memory,

and keep in mind the word "bad". In their minds, when they see the word "bad", they subconsciously choose the negative word 'bù' without considering the context of the sentence. "Look, that phone also has half past eight." The phrase is saying the time on "my phone" is also correct, not that the style or quality of "my phone" is good. Failure to pay attention to context led to subjects making mistakes.

There are also sentences 8, 13, and 24 that have more errors, with an error rate higher than 60%.

Sentence 8 “他决定\_\_去旅游了。”

In this sentence, most participants chose the negative word 'méi'. This is mainly due to the influence of the particle 'le' at the end of the sentence, which is considered a symbol of the past tense. According to the primary textbook and the teacher's explanation, when it comes to the time difference between 'bù' and 'méi', 'méi' is used in the past tense, 'bù' is mainly used in the present tense and the future tense, and cannot be used in the past tense state. Therefore, students chose 'méi' in sentences that they thought were marked with the past tense. In fact, the particle 'le' in these two sentences does not express the past, but a modal word at the end of the sentence. When the elementary level students used these two words, they didn't think about it, and when they saw the particle, they thought it was something that happened in the past, so they chose the wrong negative word. In fact, 'bù' and 'méi' can also express each other's meanings in some cases. 'bù' is used to express the past in sentences expressing rules, habitual actions or states, and 'méi' is also used in subjunctive sentences and to indicate the future. From the error rate of these questions, it can be seen that there was a failure to grasp the teaching content on these rules. In sentence 8, there is a key word "decision" (决定). Since it is a negation of "decision", the negative word 'bù' should be selected instead of 'méi'.

Sentence 13 “我\_\_买鞋子，买了学习汉语的书。”

In this sentence, 66.7% of the respondents chose the negative word 'bù', mainly because they did not understand the context of the sentence well enough. An example sentence means "I use my money to buy books, not shoes". However, 'méi' is used to deny objective facts.

Sentence 26 “这个学校太广了，我转了几分钟就糊涂了，分\_\_清东南西北。”

In this question, 63.3% of the students chose the negative word 'méi', mainly because they thought the particle 'le' in the sentence had a great relationship with the latter part of the sentence. They think that the particle 'le' in the sentence means the past, so they choose 'méi', and they did not have the grammatical knowledge that 'bù' can be used in the middle of the verb-complement structure, which means impossible, as opposed to the possible 'de' (得). They did not understand that 'qing' (清) is a complement, and in this case 'bù' should be used to negate, thus leading to mistakes.

## V. DISCUSSIONS

Errors in use by elementary students in Yaoundé secondary schools are caused by an incomplete understanding and mastery of theoretical knowledge about the Chinese language. The same types of errors are also made by intermediate learners due to the lack of a solid foundation from prior learning. The following summarizes various kinds of errors.

### A. Grammatical Errors in the Use of 'bù'

#### (a). 'bù' + Verb

This construction expresses the negation of developments and changes in behaviour. Chinese verbs can be divided into autonomous verbs and non-autonomous verbs. An autonomous verb is also called an action verb, where the subject acts directly and the action is visible. An autonomous verb can be either a discontinuous verb or a continuous verb. Reflexive verbs are also called modal verbs, and they do not refer to actual or invisible actions produced by the subject. Generally, 'bù' can only negate autonomous verbs, not reflexive verbs. In the survey results of this paper, the error rate of intermediate subjects was slightly higher than that of elementary subjects for the negative structures of J 'bù'/'méi' + verb + particle 'le', C 'méi' + verb + result-complement, D verb + 'bù' + structure-complement, and I 'bù'/'méi' + action verb. Students' acquisition of these structures thus does not improve as their proficiency in Chinese increases. Instead, a negative correlation is being shown.

#### (b). Verb + 'bù' + Result-Complement

The inclusion of 'bù' between a verb and a complement means that the action was taken before the result that should have followed but did not happen. This result may or may not have been expected. In the survey, the error rate of students for this structure was 5.47%.

“这个学校太广了，我转了几分钟就糊涂了，分（ ）清东南西北。”

For this type of construction, most subjects chose the negative word 'méi'. This is mainly due to the influence of the particle 'le' at the end of the sentence, which is viewed as a symbol of the past tense. The main reason for the error in this structure is the lack of teaching material on these rules, which resulted in students failing to learn this important information.

#### (c). 'bù' + Adjective

The adverb 'bù' only modifies adjectives that describe nature, not adjectives of state. In the above survey, the error rate of students for this structure was 16.22% .

我觉得这个橘子一点儿甜。

The error rate for students is about the same from one student to the other. This is because the Yaoundé secondary-school students were unfamiliar with these grammatical structures. They did not know that 'bu' can also be placed before an adjective to negate it, and teachers did not emphasize this structure when teaching 'bù' and 'méi'. Another reason is that students did not gain a good grasp of the structure of 'bù' and 'méi' in beginner classes, so they made similar errors in intermediate courses.

(d). 'bù' + Verb + 'le'

The particle 'le' in this structure does not represent past behaviour. 'bù' in this case negates a person's will or judgment. In the investigation reported in this paper, the error rate of students for this structure was 8.33% .

“他决定（ ）去旅游了。”

For this structure, most subjects chose the negative word 'méi'. This is mainly due to the influence of the particle 'le' at the end of the sentence, which is considered a symbol of the past tense. When elementary textbooks and teachers discuss the difference between 'bù' and 'méi', it is usually stated that 'méi' is used with the past tense, and 'bù' is mainly used with the present and future tenses, not the past tense. Therefore, the students chose 'méi' in the sentence they thought was marked with the past tense. However, the particle 'le' in these two sentences does not express the past. It is a modal word at the end of the sentence. When using these two words, elementary students do not think about them, they simply assume that they refer to past events, so they choose the wrong negative word. In fact, 'bù' and 'méi' can also be used to express each other's meanings in certain situations. For example, 'bù' can be used to describe the past in sentences expressing rules, habitual actions, or states, and 'méi' can be used to describe the future in fictitious sentences.

B. Grammatical Errors in the Use of 'méi'

(a). 'méi' + Attribute Verb + Result-Complement

In this construction, 'méi' negates the dynamic structure, indicating that the action taken by the subject has taken place, but the action has continued or stopped without achieving the speaker's original goal. In the investigation for this paper, the error rate of students for this structure was 3.50%

昨天的工作我还（ ）做完，因为我太忙了。

In the examination of the above structure, for French speakers, 'méi' + verb + result-complement is easily confused with the form verb + 'bù' + result-complement. Therefore, in the selection process, subjects become confused and do not know how to choose. Through interviews and observations during the test, it has been shown that most elementary-level learners have little understanding of complements. This lack of knowledge affects their choice, resulting in errors.

(b). 'méi' + Adjective

Using 'méi' to negate adjectives is very common to Chinese. Chinese adjectives can be divided into state adjectives and property adjectives. According to previous research results, 'méi' cannot modify state adjectives, but property adjectives can be negated by 'méi'. In the investigation for this paper, the error rate of students for this structure was 16.22%.

今天的讲座讲得\_\_\_\_\_有趣。

In this examination, students often chose the incorrect answer because the daily use of the collocation 'bù' + adjective is very common. Therefore, the memory of this fixed phrase affected their ability to make the correct choice.

(c). 'méi' + Verb/Adjective + 'guo'

This construction represents the completion of an event, and it has the form of the present perfect. When the words 'méi' and 'bù' are used in a sentence, it means that the action described is complete while the speaker is speaking. When the verb or adjective used as a predicate in a sentence is followed by the temporal auxiliary 'guo', the negative adverb must be 'méi'. The additional auxiliary word 'guo'(过), which relates to time, indicates that the action has taken place. This should be negated with 'méi'. In the investigation for this paper, the error rate of students for this structure was 11.40% .

妈妈以前从来（ ）吃过中国菜，这是第一次。

It can be seen here that the accuracy rate of the students improved as their Chinese proficiency increased. The reason for the deviation is that elementary students did not understand the word 'guo', so they needed to strengthen their grasp of it.

Yaoundé secondary-school students have certain difficulties in understanding these structures. They do not understand the 'bù' and 'méi' structure-type, their meaning in Chinese sentences, or their diverse expressiveness. For native speakers of French, the lack of a change in form of parts of speech hinders students from fully grasping Chinese. Therefore, measures should be taken to improve their education.

C. Causes of Errors

(a). *The Complexity of 'bù' and 'méi'*

The uses of 'bù' and 'méi' are complex and varied. In some situations, they are interchangeable and in others they are not. This results in the confusion in the use of 'bù' and 'méi' by secondary-school students in Yaoundé

The negative adverb 'bù' is used in the present tense and in the future tense, but it is also often used to express an attitude: the speaker's subjective or objective evaluation of the facts of an event. The negative adverb 'méi' refers to the negation of a previous event or a particular sequence of events and, in some cases, to a future event. The rules are complex and challenging for students studying in Yaoundé

For example, consider these two sentences:

(a) 他没写完作业。

(b) 他不写完作业。

When should the phrase '没完成' be used? When should '写不完' be used? '没写完' means 'a result', and '写不完' means 'maybe'. The complex rules of 'bù' and 'méi' can only be taught to Yaoundé students in a simplified way if they are to understand the rules of use.

(b). *Learning Strategies and Learner Factors*

Learning strategies are the plans and measures taken by learners in the process of language learning. Whether the learning strategy is scientific and reasonable may affect the frequency of students' mistakes in learning a second language. The formulation of learning strategies is limited by learners' subjective characteristics, learning attitude, learning experience, and second-language level.

Language-learning is relatively energy consuming, especially learning the many rules of Chinese. If the prominent characteristics are not obvious, sometimes students experience anxiety and negative emotions. However, if students maintain an optimistic attitude towards Chinese learning, they usually do not feel afraid of making mistakes while practicing, and they also accumulate practical experience. This will allow them to be able to constantly improve their Chinese knowledge-framework and their Chinese level.

Changing students' attitudes, mental disposition towards Chinese, psychological structures, absorption levels, and levels of understanding is important to their academic performance. However, some students produced far more errors than others because they did not fully grasp the 'bù' and 'méi' structures in the early stages. Although, at the elementary level, the students were exposed to relatively simple sentences, many of them still did not have a good grasp of the structural uses of 'bù' and 'méi' in the early stages, causing the use of these adverbs in complex sentences to become a challenge for them. In the third year of secondary school, many students do not understand this structure very well. This affects their performance in the fourth grade, where they are faced with even more complicated sentences, resulting in them making many mistakes.

(c). *Learning Environment*

One of the main problems facing the teaching of Chinese in Cameroon's high schools is the lack of classrooms and libraries. Generally, schools need to provide empty classrooms for classes before classes begin, a problem that creates psychological barriers among learners who believe that the government does not value Chinese as a foreign language. Cameroon's school libraries do not have Chinese textbooks, so learners cannot self-learn and must always rely on teachers, classroom lessons, and course manuals. Learners need to be exposed to a corpus that is different from what they learn in class to have better access to Chinese literature.

These issues are problems encountered by learners in the process of Chinese acquisition. Chinese is a new language in Cameroon, unlike German and Spanish, which have been taught for decades in high schools in Cameroon. Therefore, Chinese learners need a suitable environment to promote new language acquisition.

(d). *Classroom Teaching Factors*

A classroom is an essential place for students to learn Chinese, and most of the language-knowledge they gain comes from school. Cognitive psychology reveals that when a person receives new information, it is difficult for the brain to absorb a large amount of data, so the data is reduced to a portion. Therefore, teachers must consider whether the amount of knowledge and information taught is reasonable for teaching in the classroom. Too much information will overload students' memories, resulting in 'generalization'. Generalization occurs when there is confusion between different pieces of knowledge and the student's nervous system stagnates, resulting in students using their knowledge in a disorganized way. Therefore, teachers should not ignore the limitations on the amount of information a student can intake in class. Information should be effectively controlled and disseminated to suit the needs of the students. For example, in teaching 'bù' or 'méi', teaching tasks should be set separately to ensure that the time is sufficient for students to learn the material, and the difficulty level is not too high. In this way, teaching activities will become more efficient.

## VI. SUGGESTIONS

By investigating and testing Yaoundé secondary-school students, it has been shown that on a whole, with the improvement of the Chinese level of the students, secondary-school students' 'bù' and 'méi' error rate followed a downward trend. This proves that they follow certain specific rules in using the Chinese adverbs 'bù' and 'méi'. In the initial stages of learning Chinese, learners do not understand the rules of Chinese negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi', which inevitably leads to a high error rate. As students improve their Chinese-language skills, learners become aware of some of their mistakes during the learning process, find the root causes, and correct them. Therefore, when elementary students learn the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi', there is no need to correct some of their mistakes: these will diminish as they improve their Chinese.

#### *A. Pay Attention to the Comparison of Chinese and French Negative Words*

Most secondary-school Chinese learners in Yaoundé, Cameroon, are native French speakers. They often translate Chinese sentences into their mother-tongue and then roughly translate these sentences according to the linguistic structure of their mother-tongue and the culture embedded within their mother-tongue. The use of negative structures in Chinese is different from the use of negative forms in the students' French or their mother-tongue. Moreover, there is no detailed introduction of the negative forms of 'bù' and 'méi' in Chinese in the textbooks used in Yaoundé secondary schools, and there is no comparison of the differences in the usage in Chinese and in French. As a result, the concepts and boundaries between the two are not evident in their minds. Therefore, the content of textbooks should be optimized, and teachers should update the class content and lesson plans and adjust the teaching content according to the specific situation of students' learning needs.

#### *B. Emphasize the Limitations of the Different Kinds of Negative Structures*

Based on the negative forms excerpted above and an analysis of the use of 'bù' and 'méi' by students at Cameroon Yaoundé secondary schools, the unrestricted use of negative structures is included in the leading textbook, and the restrictions on the use of different types of negative systems are listed one by one. Directly teaching the content to secondary-school students in Yaoundé, Cameroon, will enable them to understand the fixed usage of these negative constructions from the beginning of their Chinese education.

To use a conditional negative structure, the French negative words 'non' and 'ne' can be compared with the negative Chinese components 'bù' and 'méi' and the corresponding applicable conditions can be listed. The learner gains a general understanding of the use of 'bù' and 'méi', depending on practical and functional limitations.

#### *C. Make Rational Use of Phrases in Teaching*

The use of negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi' in textbooks is mainly in the form of words or phrases that have the grammar portion related to 'bù' and 'méi' highlighted. The teacher explains the grammar points of the book to the learners according to the ideas in the textbook, with then focuses on practice. After the teacher gives their advice and requests for practice, learners form phrases in their memories. Learners tend to remember phrases seen or learned and then apply them to sentences or chapters.

On the one hand, complex phrases affect learners' way of thinking. They tend to form fixed combinations that are difficult to disassemble and lead to rigidity. On the other hand, block storage is an effective strategy for Chinese learners: the whole memory block is helpful to improve learners' awareness of Chinese. In current textbooks, the use of 'bù' and 'méi' should be emphasized and strengthened, with fixed words or sentences as grammatical points, to take full advantage of learners' memory blocks.

However, at the same time, it is necessary to explain the scope of use of these blocks. For example, for the word 'good', most textbooks present the generic form for learners to memorize. But, when learners are faced with the task of negating the adjective 'good' to become 'not good', the learner will use 'bù' to deny it unconditionally and will spend little time thinking about it. However, 'méi' can also be used to negate 'good', as in '我的手机没错'(My phone has no problems). In this case, Yaoundé students' choice of 'bù' is primarily influenced by spelling input rather than by the context of the sentence.

Therefore, although phrases can be used in teaching materials to improve learners' use of fixed collocations and reduce learners' memory load, it is still necessary to look at the conditions under which syntactic blocks are used, and once they are separated, the use of the main word and other words or morphemes must be taught. In this way, Yaoundé students will not subjectively assume that the use of the negative Chinese components 'bù' and 'méi' is limited to the content of the textbooks they are exposed to.

#### *D. Create a Good Learning Environment*

To provide a practical Chinese language learning and teaching environment, the Cameroonian government must build classrooms that meet national standards. Every secondary school should have a special Chinese classroom. This would allow the students to realize that the government takes the study of Chinese very seriously, and the students must also take it seriously.

The government should improve and increase Chinese learning resources for schools as much as possible so that students can be in contact with the corpus as much as possible to cultivate their sense of the Chinese language. The

more grammar books, magazines, and Chinese dictionaries learners have access to, the more their understanding of Chinese will become evident.

Yaoundé secondary schools can consider establishing a Chinese exchange meeting to encourage students of all grades to communicate. They can also invite Chinese native speakers to exchange their knowledge and experiences with students on how Chinese people use the negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi'. This would help them to improve their understanding of these negative adverbs.

## VII. CONCLUSION

This paper analyses the structurally incorrect use of negative adverbs 'bù' and 'méi' in modern Chinese by secondary-school students in Yaoundé, Cameroon. The results show that the secondary-school students in Yaoundé made no errors in the negative structure 'bù' + 'to be' and 'méi' + 'to have' and had a good grasp of the structure. For 'méi' + verb + result-complement, they often confused the use of verb + 'bù' + result-complement. In the structure of 'bù'/'méi' + verb + 'le', most students used 'méi' to negate because they misunderstood the particle 'le', and the error rate did not decrease with the improvement of the Chinese proficiency of learners. These negation structures are difficult for them to master. The error rate of students for the negative structures 'méi' + verb/adjective + 'guo', 'bù' + adjective + 'le', frequent or habitual action, and 'bù'/'méi' + verb showed a significant downward trend with the improvement in students' Chinese proficiency.

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# Cultural Values Associated With the Use of Ecolexicon “Bamboo” in Karonese Proverbs

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**Abstract**—One of the consequences of the close interrelationship between languages and their respective environments is the influence of the environment on the creation and maintenance of proverbs. Many proverbs use ecology-related lexemes (vocabulary from the "ecolexicon") to make their point. Previous studies were concerned with the general classification of ecolexical items used in proverbs. Such studies have neglected to study the use of bamboo in explorations of the flora-related ecolexicon, and this gap is especially notable when it comes to the study of proverbs. In response, this paper aims at (i) formulating the function-based typology of the bamboo-related ecolexicon used in Karonese proverbs; and (ii) finding out the cultural values of bamboo-related ecolexical items used in Karonese proverbs. This study was conducted using a descriptive qualitative method, taking Kabanjahe, the capital of Karo Regency, North Sumatra Province, Indonesia, as the research location. The data were bamboo-related ecolexical items used in Karonese proverbs, collected from five informants through an unstructured, open-ended interview. The data were analyzed qualitatively using an interactive model of data analysis. The findings promote research on the typology of bamboo-related ecolexical items based on how Karonese people utilize bamboo. The characteristics of bamboo-related ecolexical data also metaphorize the real-life setting in Karonese culture, contributing to the formation of several cultural values that have been passed down from generation to generation.

**Index Terms**—ecolexicon, bamboo-related ecolexical items, bamboo typology, Karonese proverbs, cultural values

## I. INTRODUCTION

As a newcomer in macrolinguistics, ecolinguistics continues broadening its studies to explore the interrelationship between language communities and their environment. The urgency of studying such interrelationship is motivated by interdependence between language and its ecosystem (Yang, 2014, p. 107), i.e., language verbally represents the open ecosystem where it is used. The availability of an ecosystem influences the survival of a language. Besides, the vocabulary of language related to its ecosystem varies due to different geographical areas. Furthermore, the appearance of the surrounding ecosystem influences the life of language users, i.e., humans. Many aspects of human life – e.g., livelihood, culture, custom, and way of thinking – are strongly influenced by the available surrounding ecosystem.

One of the reflections of human culture through language is found in proverbs. The close relationship between proverbs and culture has been mentioned in several studies (Ahmed, 2005; Mele, 2013; Rong, 2013; Zhao, 2013; Dagnew & Wodajo, 2014). The local culture influences the choice of words, themes, and moral lessons in proverbs. One of the characteristics of word choice in proverbs is the use of ecolexicon, ecology-related lexical items (Krikmann, 2001; Mele, 2013). Those ecolexical items (fauna-, flora- and abiotic-related lexicon) are derived from the available local ecosystem that can be used as the source of language studies. Therefore, the study of ecolexicon in proverbs is always beneficial for language and culture development. The ecolexical items chosen in proverbs are motivated by the natural characteristics of the related ecosystem, which are observed and explored by the local people. Besides, they are chosen to provide tangible examples of the ecological elements metaphorized in proverbs. The use of ecolexicon in proverbs has attracted some researchers to explore moral lessons or values associated with it (Ahmed, 2005; Dagnew & Wodajo, 2014; Widawati et al., 2018). One of the ecolexical items frequently used in proverbs is bamboo, flora-related ecolexicon. In many cultures, especially in the regions where various species of bamboos grow well, bamboo is frequently used as a parable in their proverbs, one of which is in Karonese culture.



Historically, Karo is a North Sumatran local tribe living in Karo Regency. Located on a plateau with a height of between 600 to 1,400 meters above sea level, Karo Highland is called Taneh Karo Simalem, a fertile, cool, peaceful, and prosperous land (Azhar, 2018, p. 1). Due to its fertility, various bamboo species grow well in Karo Highland. Besides, bamboos play a critical role in the life of society of people in Karo Highland. Several studies reported the use of bamboos as a traditional medicine in Karonese culture (Situmorang et al., 2015; Nasution et al., 2020; Br Bangun & Bangun, 2021), other studies explored the utilization of bamboos for ecosystem maintenance in Karo Highland (Sari, 2011; Br Ginting et al., 2015; Aswandi & Kholibrina, 2021); and other studies reported the economic benefits of bamboos for people in Karo Highland (Sari, 2011; Affandi et al., 2017). Considering the critical role of bamboos for people in Karo Highland, Tarigan and Sofyan (2018) have formulated a typology of bamboos in Karo Highland based on their species. Their study was particularly conducted for the purpose of language maintenance. Their study provides an opportunity to explore other possible typologies of bamboos on a different basis, one of which is based on how the local people utilize them. It can be stated that this study departs to complete the findings from the study done by Tarigan and Sofyan (2018).

Furthermore, in addition to studies on the benefits of bamboos for people in Karo Highland, several studies on bamboos have examined the language maintenance of words associated with bamboos (Sibarani, 2014), cultural values of bamboos (Yu, 2008), positive characters associated with bamboos (Pham, 2016), and bamboo-related products (Arshad et al., 2014). However, none of those studies focused on exploring the cultural values associated with the use of bamboos in proverbs. Therefore, this study tries to complete the previous studies by exploring cultural values of bamboo-related ecolexicon through proverbs.

Based on the rationale and the gap left from the previous studies elaborated above, this paper aims at (i) formulating the function-based typology of ecolexicon bamboo used in Karones proverbs; and (ii) finding out the cultural values of ecolexicon bamboo used in the Karones proverbs. The results of the study are expected to preserve the Karones cultural values that can be learned and implemented by the next Karones generation. Besides, the results of the study can help language maintenance, particularly the Karones bamboo-related ecolexical items.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Studying ecolexicon (ecology-related lexicon) in proverbs means studying language environment covering both physical and social environments (Sapir, 2001). From the aspect of the physical environment, the choice of ecolexicon in proverbs is influenced by the local geography, such as the local topography (Zulyeno, 2019), the local flora and fauna (Krikmann, 2001; Lin, 2013), and the local climate (Leite et al., 2019; Garteizgogeoasca et al., 2020). Meanwhile, from the aspect of social environment, the meaning of ecolexicon used in proverbs is influenced by the local social environment that builds up its people's way of thinking, including religion (Ukoma et al., 2020; Babalola & Alu, 2019), ethics (Tarigan et al., 2020), organization, and art (Tarigan, 2017).

The interaction of the local physical environment and social environment in proverbs can be seen in how meaning is generated from the ecolexicon used in proverbs. The same ecolexicon may have different meanings in a different social environment. For example, the meaning of "dog" (fauna-related ecolexicon) in Minangkabau proverbs is associated with dirt (Wati & Amri, 2020). This is motivated by the religion believed by most of the Minangkabau people. Meanwhile, in English proverbs, it is associated with loyalty (Al-Janabi, 2020), as in "Love me love my dog" (p. 11).

Furthermore, in Arabic culture, using different animal-related ecolexical items in proverbs shows different cultural knowledge associated with them (Salamh & Maalej, 2018). Moreover, the use of ecolexicon in proverbs also shows people's dependence on nature to survive. For example, Dayak people (indigenous people of Borneo) consume the forest products, learn from nature, and grow along with nature. Therefore, one of Dayak's proverbs says, "forest is our supermarket" (Sada et al., 2019, p. 9). Using "forest" as the ecolexicon in this proverb indicates their high life dependence on nature. Thus, studying ecolexicon used in proverbs used in different physical and social environments is interesting to explore how it is used and interpreted.

From the perspective of anthropological linguistics, it is possible to explore cultural values contained in proverbs because they contain cultural values that need to be preserved. As the reflections of local culture (Widyastuti, 2010), proverbs contain messages that describe the local people's ideas, feelings, and actions, which lead to revealing shared conceptions of what is good and desirable in a certain culture, i.e., the cultural ideals (Schwartz, 2006, p. 139), which can be used as the basis to explore the cultural values in proverbs.

Furthermore, the study on ecology-related lexicon in proverbs is useful for language maintenance. Ecolexical items are susceptible to extinct, or at least to shift, because they have a large number of varieties. Therefore, linguists are suggested to be more sensitive to "the threats posed to language in recognizing the impending extinction in biodiversity" (Romaine, 2007, p. 129). Language maintenance, including the maintenance of ecology-related lexicon, can formulate the basis for language regeneration and ultimate well-being (Mühlhäusler, 1992). Responding to such suggestion, one of the real efforts has been done by Tarigan and Sofyan (2018) who did a study on language maintenance of Karones ecolexicon through a traditional game.

## III. METHOD

This descriptive qualitative research took Kabanjahe, the capital of Karo Regency, North Sumatra Province, Indonesia, as the research location. The data were bamboo-related ecollexicon used in Karonese proverbs. The data were obtained from 5 informants selected purposively based on their age, i.e., 50 to 70 years old native speakers of Karonese domiciled in and never left Kabanjahe. They were selected because the preliminary research results revealed that many Karonese people younger than 50 years old had limited knowledge of the use of bamboo-related ecollexicon in Karonese proverbs. In addition, to collect more representative data, the informant criteria suggested by Samarin (1988) were used. The informants were communicative, willing to be informants, honest and unshunned by the surrounding community, insightful, and well-informed about Karonese proverbs. Based on the research ethics, the names of the informants were not mentioned in the paper.

The data were collected using an unstructured, open-ended interview. The interview was conducted to collect the Karonese proverbs that contained bamboo-related ecollexical items. In order to get the desired data, the informants were given an example of Karonese proverb that contained bamboo-related ecollexicon. Besides, during the interview, the elicitation technique was applied particularly to explore the meaning of bamboo-related ecollexicon used in the Karonese proverbs. Furthermore, the interview was assisted by note-taking and recording techniques. The interview was audiotaped and transcribed.

The data were analyzed in several steps, referring to Miles et al. (2014). First, the collected data were sorted to get the precise data, bamboo and bamboo-related ecollexicon used in the Karonese proverbs. The data collection resulted in 11 bamboo-ecollexical items used in the Karonese proverbs. Then, all the bamboo-ecollexical items were categorized based on their characteristics to formulate a typology of bamboo-related ecollexicon. The typology formulation followed the typological memoirs used in Krikmann's (2001) research. Next, the meanings contained in the Karonese proverbs were analyzed to get the cultural values associated with the use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs. Finally, the typology of Karonese ecollexicon bamboo and the cultural values reflected through the use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs were displayed on a table.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Human is the only creature given the virtue for having language. In its development, language becomes human power because it can be used as a weapon for subjugation. Furthermore, language is a tool to measure human's social status; in other words, human is socially judged based on their language. Language is the reason for humans to listen and to be listened. Considering such an essential role of language in human life, the Karonese past generation reminded the next generation to use their language through a proverb carefully. Notably, such meaning is delivered through the use of ecollexicon bamboo, as shown in (1).

- (1) *Bagi kotok-kotok      dung      peranin*  
      like kotok-kotok      after      harvest  
      Like sounds of bamboos after harvest

The proverb in (1) was obtained from Informant 3. *Kotok-kotok* is a stick-like figure made of bamboos tied with a rope placed in a rice field, typically used by Karonese people, to drive birds away. *Kotok-kotok* is an onomatopoeic word since it is formed from the sound the tied bamboos make. Whenever the wind comes, it blows the tied bamboos resulting in such sounds as "*kotok...kotok...kotok*" that scare away the birds. Considering its function, *kotok-kotok* is only needed before harvest. Bamboo is chosen as it is easy to get and grows in many varieties in Karo Highland. Tarigan et al. (2016, p. 16) reported that there are ten recognizable types of bamboos growing well in Karonese Highland: *buluh belangke* (a bamboo with long and big segments), *buluh belin* (a big, thick, and solid bamboo), *buluh cina* (a bamboo as small as a pencil), *buluh duri* (a thorny bamboo), *buluh awar* (a good looking bamboo for its yellow stripe), *buluh kai* (a yellow bamboo with green stripe), *buluh kayan* (a bamboo with short segments), *buluh kerapat* (a thin bamboo with relatively long segments), *buluh laga* (a bamboo with straight thin segments), and *buluh rires* (a bamboo used to make a traditional food called *rires* or *lemang*). Out of such ten types of bamboos, *buluh belangke* is chosen as the material of *kotok-kotok* as its long and big segments can produce strident sound.

Based on the results of the interview, the use of ecollexicon bamboo as a parable in the Karonese proverb in (1) is associated with the sound it produces. Then such sound is connected to rice planting and harvesting. The sound of bamboos is needed during the planting session or before harvest, but once the rice has been harvested, such sound is no longer needed. Therefore, the Karonese proverb in (1) means a speech is useless when it is not heard by other people. This implicitly encourages Karonese people to be known as knowledgeable people who do not speak too much. The meaning of this proverb is also found in the Indonesian proverb but with a different ecollexicon. In Indonesian culture, "water" is used as a parable, as in the proverb "Rippling water signifies its shallowness" (Zulyeno, 2019, p. 756). This means that people who speak too much (indicated by disorganized ideas in their speech) tend to have less knowledge.

The other Karonese proverb associated with knowledgeable character reflected through the use of ecollexicon bamboo is shown in (2).

- (2) *Bagi sinaka buluh*  
      like split      bamboo  
      Like splitting bamboos

The proverb in (2) was obtained from Informant 3. Bamboos are used in the Karonese society for various purposes, one of which is for making a fence. Based on the results of the interview, the fence in many Karonese traditional houses is made of bamboos. Usually, the bamboos are split, and splitting bamboos is not easy because the split bamboos in making a fence must be symmetric. In other words, splitting bamboos cannot be simply done by cutting the bamboos with a machete. It needs a specific technique. In Karonese culture, splitting bamboos is done by stepping on the lower edge and pulling up the top edge. This is reflected in the proverb's meaning in (2), which implicitly means solving a problem should be done most effectively. In other words, having knowledge related to the problem is the crucial factor in managing and solving the problem. Many people may be able to solve a problem, but a practical solution always needs knowledge. The proverb is very helpful as a guide for living as everyone must encounter problems in their life. A number of conflicts may arise due to the inability to solve problems effectively. In English proverbs, being knowledgeable is symbolized by a fox, fauna-related ecollexicon, as in "An old fox is not easily snared." A fox is recognized as an ingenious animal (although its ingenuity often relates to fraudulence) (Chadwick, 1994), and the older it is, the more experience it has.

In addition, the knowledgeable character associated with the use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverb is shown in (3).

- (3) *Cio teruh buluh duri*  
 like shelter bamboo thorn  
 Like taking shelter under a thorny bamboo tree

The proverb in (3) was obtained from Informant 2. Bamboo has a number of varieties, one of which is thorny bamboo. As many bamboos grow in Karo land, many people used to take shelter under bamboo trees. Nevertheless, not all bamboos can be used as a shelter, such as thorny bamboos. Taking shelter under thorny bamboos does not make someone feel comfortable. They may even hurt themselves. The results of the interview show that the word "thorn" used in the proverb in (3) symbolizes terrible guys. This implicitly requires people to be knowledgeable of one whom they safely depend on in order to survive. Being knowledgeable makes a person wise, as (s)he evaluates a matter carefully before making a decision. In other words, a wise person knows "fundamental pragmatics of life" (Baltes & Smith, 1990, p. 87), i.e., knowing important and uncertain aspects of life meaning and conduct (Bundock, 2009). Therefore, a wise person knows which bamboo is safe to take shelter and which is not. Although being independent is desirable, humans' dependence on others to fulfill their needs is undeniable.

Moreover, being knowledgeable is related to knowing usefulness and uselessness, and knowledgeable people can undoubtedly avoid uselessness. The use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs associated with avoiding uselessness is shown in (4).

- (4) *Bagi si ngelulus bangkar*  
 like Particle roast dry bamboo  
 Like roasting dry bamboos

The proverb in (4) was obtained from Informants 1, 2, 3, and 5. This indicates that the proverb in (4) is one of the well-known proverbs in Karonese community living in Kabanjahe. Bamboo is one of the plants having an economic value from which several Karonese people's incomes are sourced. Bamboos are processed to produce a variety of commodities such as handicrafts and local cooking utensils. In addition, bamboos are also used as building materials. Processing bamboos usually begins by drying them. Based on the results of the interview, Karonese people usually dry bamboos by roasting. Once dry, bamboos do not need to be dried anymore. This is the proverb's meaning in (4), i.e., roasting dry bamboos is a useless action. In another culture, e.g., Indonesian culture, the ecollexicon used to describe useless action is water, an abiotic-related ecollexicon, as in "Like chopping water" (Lubis, 2018, p. 12). Water is a liquid that is impossible to chop.

Furthermore, the other character value reflected in the use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs is the importance of unity or being together, as shown in (5).

- (5) *Bagi buluh belin sada ndapuren*  
 like bamboo big one cluster  
 Like a bamboo cluster

The proverb in (5) was obtained from Informants 1, 2, and 4. Bamboo grows in clusters because its propagation is through shoots. A cluster of bamboos can survive in any natural condition. Although plants naturally need water to survive, bamboos can survive in drought conditions as long as they live in their cluster. Moreover, by being together in a cluster, they can prevent landslides and erosion. Karonese people observed such characteristics and composed a proverb associated with such characteristics in a proverb like in (5). *Buluh belin* is one of the bamboo varieties growing well in Karo Highland. It is a big, thick, and solid bamboo. The results of the interview reveal that the proverb means that power or strength comes from togetherness. A piece of bamboo cannot survive in all conditions, but a cluster of bamboos can overcome any natural problems and challenges. This proverb inspires Karonese people to have a spirit of unity and oneness. By being together, they can overcome any challenges in their life. The spirit of unity is also associated with other ecollexicon in other cultures. For example, in Indonesian culture, there is such a philosophy of *lidi* (coconut leaf bone), which means "A piece of lidi cannot do anything, but a bundle of lidi can do everything."

Moreover, the ecollexicon bamboo used in the Karonese proverbs is associated with honesty or truthfulness character, as shown in (6).

- (6) *Pinter*            *bagi*        *balembang*        *ku*        *pantar*  
      straight        like        bamboo        to        terrace

As straight as bamboo

The proverb in (6) was used as the example of Karonese proverb given to the informants. This was intended to give a comprehensive explanation of the kind of data expected from them and to obtain the meaning of the proverb based on their knowledge.

Bamboo is one of the branchless plants. Its stem is straight and long, and it has no branch. The results of the interview indicate that the proverb in (1) is associated with honesty in Karonese culture. Honest people tell and do something as it is. They never deflect the truth. Karonese people believe that truth always wins, although honesty sometimes hurts both mentally and physically. Honesty is always voiced in Karonese traditional ceremonies such as *erpangir ku lau* (bathing in a river) tradition, marriage ceremony, and religious ceremony (Tarigan et al., 2020). Bamboos are used as a parable for honesty because they grow so well in Karonese land that every generation can easily witness their straight stem. In another culture, e.g., Chinese culture, the proverb associated with honesty is represented by cattle, a fauna-related ecollexicon (Liu, 2013).

The other character value associated with using ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs is humbleness or modesty, as shown in (7).

- (7) *Buluh*            *belin*        *nungkirken*        *ku*        *banana*  
      bamboo        big        head        to        bottom

The upper part of the bamboo looks down

The proverb in (7) was obtained from Informants 1, 2, and 4. One of the characteristics of *buluh belin* (bamboo with big, thick, and solid stem) is that the upper part of its stem always looks down as if it would bow to the earth, no matter how big it is or how long it is. Based on the results of the interview, this proverb encourages Karonese people to remember where they come from, no matter how talented they are or how successful they are, just like the upper part of bamboos that always looks down regardless of their height. The meaning of this proverb should always be voiced because some people forget where they come from and change their behavior due to changes in their socioeconomic status. Thus, the proverb in (7) advises Karonese people to always stay humble in their life. The encouragement to stay humble in the Karonese proverb can be seen in (8).

- (8) *La*    *pedah*    *adangkan,*        *adi*    *bedil*    *terbuluh,*    *timah*        *na*        *terbatu*  
      no    need    boast            like    rifle    bamboo    lead        Poss.    Hold

Do not boast yourself, like a rifle inside a bamboo whose bullet cannot penetrate bamboo segments

The proverb in (3) was obtained from Informants 2 and 5. The bamboo stem consists of several segments (internodes) connected with nodes. The number of nodes depends on the bamboo species and the bamboo length. Bamboo nodes are so hard that they are difficult to penetrate. Thus, when a bullet is fired from one end of the bamboo stem with ten internodes, the bullet has to penetrate the ten nodes to reach the other end of the bamboo. Karonese people believe that the bullet cannot reach that end. Compared to a rifle, bamboo is much weaker, but it can hold the power of the deadly, arrogant weapon. The comparison between rifle and bamboo in the proverb in (8) illustrates that nobody is the most powerful, so there is no reason to boast or underestimate others. Based on the results of the interview, the proverb teaches Karonese people to always stay humble. There must always be someone stronger, more prosperous, smarter, and more successful.

The encouragement to stay humble or not to be arrogant, as contained in the proverbs in (7) and (8), is also voiced in other cultures through their proverbs and is sometimes delivered by ecollexicon. In Indonesian culture, for example, the word peanut, flora-related ecollexicon, is used as the parable as in the famous Indonesia proverb, "Do not be like a peanut seed forgetting its shell!". This proverb means that anyone should not forget their origin.

The other character value associated with using ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs is appreciating what other people have done, as shown in (9).

- (9) *Bagi*    *belobo*                    *i*        *tengah*    *juma,*    *i*        *tading*    *ken*        *dung*        *peranin*  
      like    bamboo clapper    Part.    middle    field    Part.    leave    Infl.    after    harvest

Like a bamboo clapper in the middle of a field that is just left after the harvest session

The proverb in (3) was obtained from Informants 1, 2, and 4. *Belobo* is a bamboo-related ecollexicon in the Karonese language. It refers to a clapper made of bamboo, placed in the middle of a rice field. When hit, it produces loud sounds that scare and repel wild animals that will damage the rice field. However, it is no longer needed after harvest. Based on the results of the interview, the proverb in (9) means that *belobo* is used when needed, but it is left or ignored when it has no more benefit. In real-life, it is common to see people flattering and exalting the words or deeds of a person during his/her term of office, but when his/her term ends, then all the glory ends as well. The proverb's meaning implicitly encourages Karonese people to appreciate what others have done, despite their shortcomings. Therefore, the next Karonese generation is expected to learn from such shortcomings to complete the theme in the future.

Moreover, the other character value associated with using ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs is being a socially good person, as shown in (10).

- (10) *Bagi cibakut bas taduken*  
 like catfish inside bamboo fish container  
 Like catfish inside a bamboo fish container

The proverb in (3) was obtained from Informant 1, 2, 3 5. *Taduken* is a fish container made of bamboo used by Karonese people to keep the hooked fish. The fish inside the *taduken* produces uncontrolled movement and unidentified hopeless sound. However, the fisher does not care about it and continues fishing for other fish. The results of the interview reveal that the parable in this proverb illustrates a person who does not keep his/her social relations with other people. (S)he will be excluded from society and no one in the society will care about whatever happens to him/her. As a matter of fact, human is a social creature who cannot live without other's help, and being excluded from society is the worst punishment.

Based on the results of data analysis, several findings are delivered. The first one is related to the typology of bamboo-related ecolexicon in the Karonese language. The typology is constructed based on the uses of bamboos comprising five ecolexical items: (i) *kotok-kotok*, (ii) *belobo*, (iii) *balembang*, (iv) *bangkar*, and (v) *traduken*. *Kotok-kotok* in Karonese language is always associated with bamboo as it is made of bamboo. No other materials other than bamboo are used to make *kotok-kotok*. The bamboo is cut into two pieces, and each of the pieces is tied with *balembang* (bamboos with long, straight small stem), which is further tied to one of the poles of a field hut. *Kotok-kotok* is formed from how it sounds, i.e., *kotok...kotok...* The sound is produced when it is blown by the wind or pulled by the farmer. The sound is expected to drive away birds that can harm the growth of paddy. The use of bamboo for this purpose is mentioned in several previous studies (Zulvita et al., 1993; Ardjansyah et al., 2017). They report that bamboos effectively drive away birds from rice fields.

Another bamboo-related ecolexicon is *balembang*. It does not refer to any specific bamboo species, but it refers to any long, straight small bamboo. In Karonese language, all bamboos whose segments are long, straight, and small are called *balembang*. It is mainly used in the Karonese traditional rice plantation to replace ropes to drive away birds from the rice field. In making *balembang*, the long, straight small bamboo is cut off evenly from one of its ends to the other end. The result is a long bamboo slab resembling a thick rope, which is called *balembang*. The *balembang* is stretched along the rice field whose ends are tied to the holes of a field hut, called *pantar*. In several cuts of the *balembang*, *kotok-kotok* is hung, so when farmers wiggle the *balembang*, the *kotok-kotok* will produce such a noise that makes birds fly away fearfully.

*Belobo* is another tool made of bamboo used by Karonese farmers in the rice fields. Unlike *kotok-kotok*, which is made in a stick-like shape, *belobo* looks like a clapper, and it is used to drive away bigger animals. *Belobo* produces such a relatively loud sound that can scare and repel wild animals – such as rats, wild boars, and wild buffalos – from the rice fields.

The other bamboo-related ecolexicon is *bangkar*, which refers to dry bamboo. Like the first three bamboo-related ecolexical items mentioned above, *bangkar* also does not refer to any specific bamboo species. As it is dry, even very dry, it is flammable. Therefore, *bangkar* is often used by Karonese people as a substitute for firewood, which is cheap and easy to get. Moreover, *bangkar* is a good material for making bamboo charcoal a substitute for wood charcoal or mineral coal (Gupta & Kumar, 2008).

Furthermore, the other bamboo-related ecolexicon in the Karonese language is *taduken*, a fish container made of bamboo. It is a place to keep hooked fish and is usually brought for fishing in a river. *Taduken* is not made of particular bamboo species, but it is made of bamboo with a large stem cavity, usually indicated by its thin wall. In addition, the bamboo used as the material to make *taduken* has relatively long segments because *taduken* consists of only one bamboo segment. Therefore, a large stem cavity and long segment enable a fisher to keep more fish inside the *taduken*. On the top of the *taduken*, a rope is tied and the length of the rope depends on or is adjusted to the length of the fisher's waist. Then, the strap is wrapped around the fisher's waist during fishing.

The second finding is related to the character value associated with using ecolexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs. Based on the results of data analysis, six noble characters including (i) being knowledgeable, (ii) being unity, (iii) being honest, (iv) being humble, (v) appreciating others, and (vi) being a socially good person are associated with the use of ecolexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs. First, being knowledgeable is the most substantial reason to succeed in life because it makes everything in our life easier. Like the meaning of the proverb in (2), splitting bamboo into two pieces becomes more manageable when done using knowledge; on the other hand, it could be a difficult task when done by a person who does not know about it. The use of bamboo as the symbol of intelligence does not refer to the bamboo itself, but it refers to what people can do with bamboo. Bamboos can be utilized as a building material (Syeda & Kumar, 2014; Kaur, 2018), a material for making different kinds of crafts (Yu, 2008; Arshad et al., 2014), and other composite materials (Chaowana, 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2019). Only can a knowledgeable do such bamboo utilization.

Second, unity is a Karonese cultural spirit transmitted from generation to generation. For that reason, Karonese people accentuate unity, togetherness, and deliberation in their social life (Sitepu, 2013); they avoid disputes. As a result, Karo becomes one of the strong tribes in North Sumatra Province from the perspectives of both social and economic power (Sari, 2011). In addition, the unity spirit of the Karonese people is reflected through their solidarity in maintaining religious harmony (Lubis, 2017). Such unity spirit is symbolized by ecolexicon bamboo in the Karonese

proverb. Bamboo is chosen because it grows in clusters, showing mutual help for its survival. The use of bamboo to symbolize unity is also applicable in Vietnamese culture. In addition to unity, bamboo is also a symbol of spirit, hard work, optimism, courage, and perseverance to Vietnamese (Pham, 2016).

Third, honesty is a character always voiced in Karonese culture not only through its proverbs but also through its traditional ceremonies such as *mengket rumah mbaru* (welcoming ceremony to a new house), *didong doah bibi sirembah ku lau* (wedding ceremony), and *merdang merdem* (rice planting ceremony). In those ceremonies, honesty is considered the determinant of a successful life (Tarigan, 2017). Honesty in this context implies straightness or branchlessness. Bamboo as a symbol of honesty is also recognized in Chinese culture. Yu (2008) argues that the characteristic of bamboo viewed from its straightness exemplifies honesty.

Fourth, humbleness or modesty is a character encouraging Karonese people not to flaunt or boast of themselves despite their excellence. The use of bamboo as a symbol of modesty refers to the characteristics of its upper part that always arches, heading to the earth. It represents modesty as it looks down at the earth, on which it grows and from which it gets food. The earth can never be effaced from its life history although it becomes bigger and taller. The use of bamboo as a symbol of modesty is also recognized in Chinese culture. The bamboo's structural property makes it an illustrative example of a modest personality in China (Yu, 2008).

Fifth, appreciating others is one of the noble characters beginning to fade. Appreciating others means appreciating or acknowledging what has been done by other people. A new leader, for example, should sincerely acknowledge what has been done by his/her predecessors, not simply vilifying their efforts and throwing them out of the community. This is the phenomenon often found in today's society. About appreciating others, John F Kennedy, the 35th President of the United States (1961-1963), once said, "As we express our gratitude, we must never forget that the highest appreciation is not to utter words but to live by them." Therefore, a sense of appreciation should be fostered so that the situation described in the proverb in (9) can be avoided.

Sixth, being a socially good person is one of the purposes of life taught by the early Karonese generation. This mainly refers to the nature of humanity as a social creature who needs others to survive. No one can fulfill their basic needs without others' help. Farmers, for example, might be able to fulfill their food needs by themselves, but they might not be able to fulfill their needs for clothing, education, and health without other people's assistance. Therefore, every human needs to be a socially good person. The encouragement to be a socially good person through proverbs is also found in the research results done by Make et al. (2014). They found that the proverbs in Wolaita, one of the nationalities of Ethiopia, encourage the people to enhance their cooperation with others and promote mutual respect among them in their society (p. 245). Such encouragement is also in line with Ahmed (2005), who found that most Sudanese proverbs call for social solidarity.

Based on the findings elaborated and discussed above, the use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs has the patterns described in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
THE PATTERN OF THE USE OF BAMBOO ECOLEXICON IN THE KARONESE PROVERBS

Ecollexicon	Typology	Meaning	Cultural values
<i>Kotok-kotok</i>	Tool made of bamboo	A stick made of bamboos placed in a rice field to drive birds away	Encouragement to be knowledgeable
<i>Belobo</i>	Tool made of bamboo	A clapper used to drive away bigger animals from rice fields	Encouragement to appreciate and acknowledge what other people have done
<i>Traduken</i>	Tool made of bamboo	Fish container made of bamboo to keep hooked fish	Encouragement to be socially good
<i>Balembang</i>	Bamboo-related ecollexicon	Long, straight small bamboos replacing ropes	Encouragement to be honest
<i>Bangkar</i>	Bamboo-related ecollexicon	Dry bamboos	Encouragement to be knowledgeable by avoiding uselessness
<i>Buluh belin</i>	Bamboo species	Big, thick, and solid bamboos	Encouragement to accentuate unity Encouragement to be humble

Table 1 shows that the typology of ecollexicon bamboo used in the Karonese proverbs falls into three types: a typology based on a tool made of bamboo, a typology based on bamboo-related ecollexicon and a typology based on bamboo species. The typology of ecollexicon bamboo based on its species has been studied by Tarigan and Sofyan (2018). This study promotes a typology of ecollexicon bamboo based on its utilization by Karonese people.

## V. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

The use of ecollexicon bamboo in the Karonese proverbs gives birth to the typology of bamboo-related ecollexicon generated from how Karonese people utilize bamboos. The choice of certain bamboo-related ecollexicon is motivated by its easily observable characteristics. Those characteristics metaphorize the real-life setting in Karonese culture, contributing to the formation of several cultural values that need to be passed down from generation to generation.

The results of the research benefit both language maintenance and cultural values preservation. Several bamboo-related ecollexical items used in the Karonese proverbs are no longer recognized by today's Karonese generation due to several factors, one of which is the use of bamboos only for very limited purposes. Thus, this study revitalizes those

almost-distinct ecolexical items in order that the Karonese language can be maintained. This is in line with Sibarani (2014) who found the decreasing number of bamboo-related ecolexicon in Batak Toba language due to the local people's less contact with bamboos. So, studies on bamboo-related ecolexicon are helpful in language maintenance efforts. Besides, the results of this research also propose a typology of bamboo-related ecolexicon, which is very useful in the lexical categorization of the Karonese language. Moreover, the results of this study develop the theory of ecolinguistics in exploring the interrelationship between language and its environment, particularly those related to bamboos. Then, in terms of cultural values, the messages contained in the proverbs need to be revitalized and preserved.

This study only focuses on bamboo, a flora-related ecolexicon used in the Karonese proverbs. Thus, it is suggested to future researchers to explore the other types of flora-related ecolexicon in other places or cultures because different geographical areas have different kinds of plants. Besides, the informants taken in this research are native Karonese people whose ages are between 50 and 70 years old. The ecolexical items used in the proverbs are not tested to the native Karonese people whose ages are below 50 years old to confirm their knowledge of those ecolexical items. Therefore, future research can identify the existence of those Karonese ecolexical items through a study that mainly focuses on language maintenance of bamboo-related ecolexicon in Karonese language. Furthermore, other sources of data and proverbs as used in this study are always possible to be explored to reveal more interrelationships between language and its environment.

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# The Contribution of Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory in Mediating L2 Knowledge Co-Construction

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**Abstract**—Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT) emphasizes the role of meaningful human interaction as playing an effective role in language learning, especially in L2 development. The aim of this paper is to synthesize the main concepts of SCT and to show how it may help to enhance L2 learning practices. A critical review of Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory suggests that human mental performance is basically a process arranged by concepts, social objects, and activities. Learning is, then, seen as an interactive process, representing the learner's final output in practical community. Applying the Socio-Cultural Theory in practice can be the more suitable approach to provide an all-encompassing framework in which L2 learners can be engaged in various collaborative learning activities for L2 language learning. L2 learners' interaction with various language activities seems to have instructional implications on their cognitive progress and consequently, this can reflect positively on their L2 language performance, leading to meaningful and constructivist L2 learning experience. The critical overview of the SCT in this paper recommends encouraging the use of collaborative techniques that integrate both instructors and L2 learners with the socio-cultural norms that can help exploit the full potential for a successful L2 learning experience.

**Index Terms**—interaction, L2 language pedagogy, learning, Sociocultural Theory

## I. INTRODUCTION

Learning of L2 vocabulary and grammar is a first step in language learning; once this milestone is covered, L2 learners need to know when and how to use these to convey certain meanings in specific situations (Hymes, 1972). They may find it challenging to deal or communicate with L1 speakers because it may vary significantly from what they already know in their mother tongue. It may be essential, then, for L2 learners to clarify aspects of speech (e.g., intonation, certain idioms, etc.) to learn and develop new skills in order to meet these higher standards (Negueruela-Azarola & Garcia, 2016). The Socio-Cultural Theory (henceforth, SCT) offers a unique approach that relies on diverse conceptions of human development emphasizing the integrated nature of individual elements in the learning process (Masuda & Arnett, 2015). During interactions with others, the L2 learner has access to language forms and functions that are normally exclusively accessible to the latter. SCT offers a theoretical framework that stresses context-based language learning providing practical implications for second-language instruction.

There is a substantial corpus of theoretical and empirical studies on the impact of sociocultural perspectives on L2 learning (Bao & Du, 2015; Lantolf et al., 2015; Lantolf et al., 2020; Van Compernelle, 2015; Panhwar et al., 2016). Integrating the SCT theoretical framework into practice entails its informed use in pedagogy which can be considered as a developmental step and also as a bridge to understand not only the second language (L2) learners' cognition but also, how they develop these cognitive skills by which the mind improves. Vygotsky (1997) argued that in order to recognize the human cognition processes, pedagogical intervention must be encouraged. Since the contribution of SCT to the pedagogical practices in the language classroom may not be understated, hence, a critical overview of the construct of Vygotsky's SCT is the aim of this paper. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of its significant implications and effective contributions to L2 cooperative learning activities in a constructivist learning environment.

## II. VYGOTSKYIAN SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

SCT is derived from the earlier work of Vygotsky (1978), a Russian psychologist, who hypothesized that a person's mental ability cannot be separated from their social environment because people can develop cognitively through social interaction. According to SCT, human actions occur in cultural surroundings which are then mediated by language and best knowledge building happens when they are in their cultural environment (Wertsch, 1985). In other words, it is the social impact that shapes the individual's mental ability and not the opposite (Daniels, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). As human communication, according to Vygotsky (1987), has the unique and distinctive capacity to transmit generalized meaning, described as the defining feature of highly evolved human activity. A broad and objective way of describing understanding of meaning is: meanings that enable social communication to take place in a variety of situations

(Vygotsky, 1987). Affirmative gestures are used by both animals and babies to communicate. They do not communicate a message that can be understood by all people (i.e., objective meanings that are not bounded by contextual variability). According to Vygotsky's theory (1987), written texts have the widest conceivable range of meaning (i.e., written modes of communication).

Individuals attain the capacity to communicate meaningfully when they connect with one another. The titles of objects frequently pique the attention of youngsters when they interact with adults (Vygotsky, 1987). In the first place, the word obtained in this manner merely refers to a particular object that is fulfilled under defined circumstances (i.e., not yet generalized). Children will always associate the term "chair" with a certain kind of dining room chair. To generalize, children must have many verbal exchanges with adults in a variety of contexts. As a result, "chair" has gone from being a purely functional term to having a far wider meaning. Vygotsky (1987), on the other hand, was intrigued by the significance of meaning, as it is important that people could maintain the same level of comprehension no matter what medium they were communicating with. As during the interaction process, language users can send the messages as output and receive them as input. If there are any difficulties in encoding or decoding these messages, then the language users restructure and modify their messages so that comprehension becomes possible. In terms of L2, learners negotiate in meaning, they change syntax, word forms, repeat the words and so on, in order that understanding, and development can take place (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). The assumption has been made, then, that second language learning takes place through this negotiated activity.

Based on SCT, there is no incidental and passive learning, as learners create specific sub-goals, and the language turns into an intentional tool to help achieve their higher goals. They may have sub-goals, such as requesting more elaboration, reading a book, or looking up a word in a dictionary, and those sub-goals may usually be formed to achieve primary goals, such as passing a test, finding the correct direction in a new area, or writing a research paper and so on (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). At some point, this process must attract the learners' attention, and thus, it is an intentional, directed goal created in order to achieve their higher goals. Learning is, therefore, seen as an interactive process which is the L2 learners' final output in practical society (Rogoff, 1994). Inputs are further seen as an essential component to promote successful second language acquisition, and they are also obtained through social communication in which L2 learners participate (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

From SCT perspective, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) pointed out that language learning and development take place in social interaction as it plays a significant role especially in L2 development. Social communication can be considered not only as a chance to learn any language, but also it is viewed as evidence of learning. In terms of L2 learning contexts, an earlier study by Swain and Lapkin (1998) focused on the importance of social interaction in a collaborative dialogue. Findings proposed that a dialogue which builds linguistic knowledge can be considered as language learning in advancement. Thorne (2000) further pointed out that according to SCT, language is considered as "socially constructed rather than internally intrinsic" (p. 225). As suggested by Vygotsky's theory, language is the most significant tool when mediating direct goals during social communication which are also assumed to be the basis of knowledge construction.

### III. KEY SCT CONCEPTS

In SCT, one of the main concepts is mediation which means the use of tools, whether concrete or abstract, as a medium between the learner and the social-activity world (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). As the employment of tools or techniques transforms impulsive, natural, and unmediated behavior into higher mental processes in socially important tasks (Azadi et al., 2018; Subero et al., 2018), for example, in children's unmediated (direct) memory, this transforms into mediated memory over time (i.e., remembering by means of language or other signs). Based on Vygotsky's (1987) research, children who had trouble remembering a list of words were given image cards to aid their memory. This had a positive impact on their overall performance and after a while, their brains adapted to these relaxing methods and no longer required image cards for later stages of memory formation. Mental pictures could be conjured up by both youngsters and adults, and these images could be linked to the ideas they had learnt. Taber (2020) stressed the use of objects such as memory aids, picture cards, symbolic mediation as softly repeating the words to be recalled, and human mediation. Vygotsky classified symbolic mediators into three categories: messages, symbols, and literary masterpieces.

Besides the symbolic mediator, human mediators are crucial because social interaction between two or more people acts as a basis for internalization and, thus, language development. Language modulates human behavior, thus people's actions may have a variety of meanings (Vygotsky, 1987). Interpersonal contacts that matter are critical to language development (Kozulin, 1990, 2003, 2018; Marginson & Dang, 2017; Selepe & Moll, 2016). According to Vygotsky's theory, development always starts between people (i.e. on the inter-mental plane) and then moves into the individual's mind (i.e., the intramental plane). As clarified by Kozulin (2018), for all higher mental processes to grow from the outside or from the intermental plane to the inside, a technique of mediation is required. In other words, people's cognitive development can be considered as a consequence of their communication with others.

According to Mitchell and Myles (2004), learning, a mediated process, is seen as a mental activity carried out through mental tools such as language. In terms of L2 context, through the negotiated process, L2 learners can use L1 as a mediated tool to internalize and focus attention on L2 knowledge (Gómez-Gutiérrez, 2008). This means that L2

learners in the language-learning classroom use language both as a means of mediation to enhance the ability to learn and as an object.

Another important concept is regulation, which is one of the keys to mediation. It refers to the process which enables L2 learners to improve their ability to regulate or control their own activity through linguistic means (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). A related mechanism that is considered an effective concept is the scaffolding process, which, according to Wood et al. (1976), means a collaborative dialogue. It facilitates actions that the teacher or an expert peer brings into the interaction in order to help the novice through their process of internalization.

In Ohta's (2001) study which investigated the influence of corrective feedback in classroom learning and the students' way of assisting each other, it was found that through the regulation process, L2 learners generally move through three stages: they are object-regulated, if they use objects in their social world to regulate their mental activity; they are other-regulated, if they can learn and correct errors with mediation from an external support, sometimes this process is called scaffolding; or they are self-regulated, if they have achieved internal control to learn without any mediation from an expert. Self-regulation is achieved through the process of internalization which is considered a higher form of mental activity. This means that L2 learners use this cognitive tool (internalization) in order to develop the self-regulation to achieve development in language learning. The main way to use language to mediate and regulate internal thought is through private speech (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). The cognitive function of private speech, as Lantolf (2006) clarified, is to simplify the internalization of mental actions. Internalization is an internal mental process which occurs when a learner manifests knowledge through an external resource to make it "internally available" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 204).

The internalization process often assists the learner through a model of the developmental process called the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) defined the ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Therefore, ZPD is both a model of developmental process and a pedagogic tool that teachers can use to understand features of learners' emerging abilities that are in early stage of maturation.

#### IV. THE VYGOTSKYIAN SOCIO-CULTURAL APPROACH AND L2 INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT

SCT-based research investigates feedback from various areas, such as negotiation, effective help, as a collaborative process - all of which are covered by an inter-active umbrella to show its value to L2 learners. As shown in the study conducted by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) which examined the nature of the scaffolding clarification, self-regulation, and internalization as part of the collaborative process between L2 learners and their teacher within the ZPD. The subjects of the study were three pre-intermediate L2 learners who were asked to participate in one tutorial session a week to allow researchers analyze the learners' interactions around four recurring issues: using articles, prepositions, modal verbs, and tense selection. The tutor's assistance was changed and reduced between sessions in order to help learners achieve developmental progression from other-regulated to be fully self-regulated.

At the beginning of each session, the participants were required to read their essays and find any mistakes. Discussions stopped when they found any mistakes or observed problems. During these interactions, the tutor initially assisted in a general way, with remarks such as, "Do you notice any problem?" (p. 469). When this level of help failed, the tutor would become more specific, with additional comments, such as, "pay attention to the tense of the verb" (p.470). The result of examining the interactions led to some improvements in grammatical competence which indicates that learners were moving from other-regulation, that is, the need for tutor's assistance, to being fully self-regulated ability to identify and correct their errors. Researchers also illustrated that English as second language (ESL) develops as the process moves through a series of levels, each of which is differentiated by capacities to find and correct mistakes as well as the frequency and quality of help required to achieve progress.

Another example is the study carried out by Centeno-Cortes' (2003) which showed ways that the L2 learners used private speech in language classrooms to internalize the linguistic aspects. For example, in the case of a student who had come across the Spanish word for postage stamp 'sello' on a road in Spain, sought to repeat this word in the classroom setting which varied between 'sello' and 'sella' because the student reported that she was uncertain of its form. At the precise moment of recording she was uttering to herself 'se.... ello', where the pause she made suggests her indecisiveness. The student thus, used the private speech form to internalize the correct linguistic form, eventually finding the correct word form through social and classroom-based interactions.

This example shows us how learning and development can take place not only during a single interaction between the teacher and the student, but also among learners themselves through private speech to internalize the features of their L2. Based on Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study, generally, successful interaction between tutor and learner, involves the scaffolding interpretation, self-regulation and internalization processes. It also provides appropriate evidence of L2 complexity and accuracy.

#### V. THE SOCIO-CULTURAL ACTIVITY THEORY (VYGOTSKY, 1978; 1986) AND L2 COOPERATIVE LEARNING ACTIVITIES

##### A. *The Three Steps of Regulation*

The socio-cultural activity theory (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), or the communication contextualizing framework, establishes platforms of reality and is taken by the socio-cultural and physical demands. Practical actions are derived from an activity and it can be considered as a fundamental base to learning particularly in the context of language learning (Panhwar et al., 2016). Taking the SCT theory into practice, an ideal classroom learning task should be considered first. Secondly, it should be kept in mind that this type of activity requires a physical setting, students' participation, and applying the socio-cultural standards of communication. By this, it is assumed that students may successfully complete this activity especially with mediation from the teachers or their peers (Shrum & Glisan, 1994).

Having discussed the three stages of regulatory theory, object regulation – the first stage - refers to the process where a person uses environmental objects to aid their mental activity. As Vygotsky (1987) pointed out that individuals' cognitive development can be mostly shaped by their linguistic interactions with others. L2 learners at this stage tend to use objects to acquire the meaning or spelling of new English words by, for example, drawing shapes above the new English words to help remind them of the meaning of the word. Students sometimes tend to link the English word with objects around them using their L1, thus becoming regulated by the language as an object which implies that L2 learners' cognitive development can be greatly enhanced if their L1 is used to help them understand subject content. In *Thinking and Speech*, Vygotsky (1987) argued persuasively that mastering L2 begins with mastering the first language (L1). Because of this, mastery of an L2 is dictated by the semantic framework of the L1. L2 learners begin learning a new term conceptually in their mother tongue before learning it precisely in L2. As Frawley (1997) stated, instead of controlling L2, learners may need assistance from objects such as L1, dictionary, or specific text in order to focus their attention on L2 knowledge.

Other regulation – the second stage - refers to the process where students are regulated by another, more knowledgeable or experienced person - a peer or teacher in the shared social activity, school, or university, such as when L2 learners were controlled by their schoolteachers that may have a negative impact on their mental development at an early stage which is entirely un-self-regulated. Research by (Wertsch & Hickmann, 1987; Wertsch, 1985) showed that even if learners can undertake tasks by themselves, they can only pursue independent action when their teachers suggest particular goals. This can be true to some extent where some students were 'spoon-fed' by their teachers; when those students attend university, they expect lecturers to provide more than is expected fair, is unhelpful for language learning and may affect their L2 language performance.

Over-dependent students generally had a negative influence on their teachers because of the time taken to train them to move from object regulation to other regulation at the beginning of the semester. Covering lecture plans and curriculum were adversely affected by the extra time, energy and effort needed to deliver the training on schedule. Thus, teachers need, as stated by Deci and Ryan (1985), to move away from traditional authority figures while teaching by acting as a facilitator which allows students to make choices and display capability of navigating themselves through challenges whether individually or collaboratively.

In terms of L2 context, learners can carry out tasks such as grammar-focused writing requiring linguistically mediated assistance from a teacher or more capable peer. This linguistically mediated assistance –scaffolding – may be represented as a supportive dialogic process which is the primary means of carrying out other-regulation whereby a writing task, for example, requires basic composition of a specific topic with attention to the tense used. Such tasks aim to check students' grammatical strength and weakness in writing skill and, where relevant, extent of speaking skill. Students usually received help to familiarize with the task through a warm-up activity, by seeing pictures or tackling general questions about the topic to help them develop ideas. As an example, L2 learners formed groups where one student had good English, as the target language, and two with weak English. While working on writing, they indirectly corrected the incorrect use of tense or language form by reading their work back. As a result, Student 1 had noticed the language form and corrected herself in an attempt to be self-regulated. Noticing can play a mediating role on language grammatical development (Schmidt, 1990). They were also offered positive feedback which encouraged them to produce the L2. During their collaborative interaction in these groups, it was noticed that some students directed a question to her partner or others interrupted a partner to provide explicit scaffolding to correct the use of L2 in their writing. Students' interactions were clearly at the micro-genesis of developing their use of appropriate verbs in writing as they were engaging in talk to construct meaningful, correct, verb forms (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Through their communication and negotiation of the language, therefore, they can learn new forms and improve L2 performance.

However, as pointed out by Lantolf and Thorne (2007), self-regulation is an unstable stage. On balance, it was observed that each of these three stages: object, other and self- regulation are, as Frawley (1997) stated, equal and recoverable and the learner can overpass this sequence at desire, depending on the task requirements. This means that self-regulation is a relative phenomenon where the learner is not necessarily to be self-regulated in several different tasks and not all learners acquire self-regulation mechanisms for the same task simultaneously. Even the most proficient L2 learners may need to pass the earlier stages of improvement, object- or other –regulated when engaged with challenging interaction context.

#### *B. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)*

One of the most key features of the Vygotskian conceptual theory is how it significantly promotes cooperative learning activities in the way of providing an appropriate scaffolding. Vygotsky (1978) found the cooperative learning

process shapes development especially in instructional design, but that there was no direct connection between learning and development although deliberately instructed L2 settings can encourage qualitative developmental movements. The ZPD Vygotskian concept is based on learner's estimation that focuses on the positives of the active interaction between a learner and an assistant/ instructor (Daniels, 2001). In the L2 context, Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study of ZPD created an activity framework linking the current developmental stage to the potential development which can be reached because of the instructors' interaction with the learners. The potential developmental level is formed by the type of assistance required to encourage the activity and the learners' capacity to achieve the knowledge development through external mediation. Evidence of development from this concern, as shown by Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study, is not limited to the learners' actual language performance, as their act seems not to be varied from one time to another. However, the frequency and quality of the external support that a particular L2 learner needs to produce suitable L2 performance may change. At one time a learner may respond to the teacher after providing explicit instructions to supply a specific feature of the L2, and at another time, the learner may need only a slight hint to be able to supply the feature. Although L2 learners' actual performance remains as it was, the development which has taken place through the different qualitative mediation was required to prompt the performance. A further important finding is that although different L2 learners made the same error, this reflects different issues. As an example, in the same study, two learners had ignored the same compulsory linguistic aspect, however, they had different qualitative support needs to correct this linguistic issue, indicating that they required different types of assistance to improve their L2 performance.

Development within the ZPD is not just about learners' performance per se, it is also about their responsibility for producing L2 suitable performance. Thus, it can be noticed that evidence of development seems to be seen at two distinct levels: at the actual autonomous performance level and at the level where performance is facilitated by external assistance. The ZPD, therefore, is seen not only as a developmental mechanism but also a conceptual mediated instrument that instructors can use to deeply understand their learners' features (Blake & Pope, 2008; Daniels, 2001; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). This means that L2 learners' performance can be expected to be developed but their development level can be varied based on their response to mediation; if they are able to perform suitably in the L2 with assistance, in time they may be capable of performing correctly without assistance in the future.

### C. L2 Social Constructivist Learning

Making connections between language learning and the actual use of this language in real-life is one way to put the SCT concept into practice. Draper (2002) defined constructivism as the philosophy that believes learners' knowledge is constructed based on their communications with the situations involving their communications with others. It has been found by White-Clark et al. (2008) that constructive teaching can help teachers efficiently to meet the difficulties they may face to support the learners' achievements. This is because of the teachers' encouragement to their own learners to be involved in the processes of learning by taking responsibilities of their own learning. In addition to the autonomy, one of the most fundamental learning principles, according to Vygotsky (1997), is customizing the instruction to fit the needs and interests of the students being taught. The curriculum and the instructors should focus on learners' interests, needs, and goals, just like any other subject-matter teaching in order to be useful and related to their actual world. In L2 context, during their communications, and providing alternative answers to each other, they may try to internalize and gain control over the task. This awareness stage identified as pre-micro-genesis activity often requires organizational speech (Gómez-Gutiérrez, 2008) which could be facilitated by reading aloud, as an attempt to be good self-interpreters (Swain, 2010) to mediate knowledge co-construction. Teachers, therefore, are encouraged to form settings in which their learners can construct their own knowledge according to their contexts.

## VI. CONCLUSION

From the preceding description of Vygotsky's theoretical framework, higher mental process, representing L2 learning, is mediated by the meaningful element of language. Another basic premise of the sociocultural perspective is that L2 learning development can take place from outside to within and vary depending on the frequency and quality of the external assistance. To connect Vygotskyian theory with classroom practice, hence, collaborative techniques which integrate both instructors and L2 learners in socio-cultural norms for potential L2 successful learning experience is recommended. As the critical review of the Vygotskyian concept suggests, the theory creates a democratic setting that greatly encourages adopting cooperative learning activities in which L2 learners can discuss, argue, be critical and responsible for their own knowledge. The SCT theory, therefore, has instructional implications which can be significantly efficacious to provide an all-embracing interactive structure for constructivist L2 learning practice.

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# Foreign Languages E-Learning Assessment Efficiency and Content Access Effectiveness During Corona Pandemic in University Context

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**Abstract**—The learning process has many fundamentals; one of them is to assess the outcomes from the process to see to what degree the students benefit from this process, which determines whether or not the goals of education are being met. The Assessment of students' learning from proposed and offered content is another fundamental in the process of education. However, in the era of online teaching, assessing and choosing the appropriate content/ material became challenging. It rendered this process, to an extent, to be problematic due to the challenges that arose from the absence of physical meetings between teachers and students. Therefore, this study examines foreign language E-learning Assessment Efficiency and Effectiveness to access the content in the University context during the Corona Pandemic from the perspective of (154) college students selected randomly from various Jordanian universities. To conduct the study, a questionnaire was developed, and data were gathered and analyzed using SPSS. The survey results indicated that the Efficiency of the electronic Assessment used at universities from the students' perspective ranked high among all disciplines of study, with a mean score of (3.19) and a percentage score of (63.8 percent). Moreover, the Effectiveness of electronic content ranked also high, with a mean of (2.79) and a percentage of (56%). The study revealed that university administration must pay attention to the Assessment methods of foreign language e-learning and distribute its content via well-known channels. In addition, it advised conducting research complementary to the current study.

**Index Terms**—e-learning, assessment efficiency, corona pandemic, content effectiveness

## I. INTRODUCTION

As we live in a technological and digital society, technology and its different forms have found their way into most colleges. Knowing how to use technology has become a requirement for keeping up with the enormous digital progress in its many forms and disciplines, whether in social or academic terms, and it is for this reason that society must be formed to be capable of dealing with these changes (Al-Awawdeh & Alshtaiwi, 2020). This can be accomplished by examining the sources of cultural and scientific radiation, evaluating curriculum and course structures, and keeping up with scientific progress and information development in knowledge and information technology and communications.

Online education (e-learning) generally takes several shapes: either students are not required to commit to a specific time to take classes, or they are required to attend classes online on a variety of platforms chosen by teachers or institutions, and usually, in both cases, the materials are delivered via electronic media and available for students anytime. Instructing teachers how to use modern technology and social media increases the concept of self-education. Effective use of new technologies depends on the teacher's energy, learning abilities, and previous experience and capabilities to excel in new situations (Ababneh & Al-Zoubi, 2017). Usually, Students follow their teacher's instructions and adapt themselves to any system and how teachers teach or evaluate students. E-learning generates a rich and diversified educational environment, stimulates communication among educational stakeholders, and helps model education ideal for the students. Presenting material uniformly and in a structured way also aids in preparing a generation capable of dealing with technology and equipped with the most up-to-date abilities (Al-Awawdeh, 2017).

The teaching and learning process is very complex as pedagogics look at it from several perspectives. It is also complicated because it has several components, among which Assessment is essential to evaluate the outcomes. Assessment always creates a space for discussion because many questions arise within and from this process. For example, what to test and how to test are a few fundamental questions in Assessment. Another component, as it is related to what to test, is the content that should be given to students and ease of access to such content. As it is known, the absence of face-to-face meetings forces teachers to change the material they teach: Some materials require a particular environment not provided by the online teaching systems. The issue of E-learning Assessment Efficiency and choosing the appropriate contents/ material during the Corona Pandemic in Higher Education Institutions, which affected the whole world, has become an urgent issue to resolve for all educational institutions due to social distancing

and lack of mixing and learning at different academic levels. Thus, two main issues appear during online learning: the first concerns the efficiency of Assessment, and the second is the efficiency of course contents/ material and the ease of access.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *E-Learning*

Al-Qudah and Maqableh (2013) define e-learning as education based on the use of computers and the Internet to deliver educational content to learners through communication between the learner and the teacher and between the learner and the educational content in an interactive way that enables him to learn, (p. 216). Ali and Hamada explain (2009) that the goals of e-learning are as follows (p.437):

1. Creating a learning environment that is both interactive and diverse in terms of the knowledge sources and experiences it uses. New electronic technologies make this possible.
2. Improving how the university and its community interact and how the university and its environment work together.
3. Making it easier for students, teachers, and administrators to work together by making it easier for them to share educational experiences, conversations, and targeted dialogues through several different communication channels.
4. Giving teachers the training they need to use modern teaching technologies in the best way possible.
5. Giving students the knowledge and skills to use different communication and technology well.
6. Make the teacher's role bigger in the learning process to keep up with the progress and successes in science and technology.
7. Help build infrastructure and a culture-friendly base for information technology so that a new society can meet the needs of the 21st century.
8. Try to get learners, people in charge of education, parents, and society to be optimistic about information technology, especially e-learning, to build a developed information society.
9. Help reach students' educational goals by giving them a place that encourages interaction and has many resources.

Al-Hazmi (2008) looked into the use of e-learning in Riyadh's private schools, and he found that both teachers and students were surprised by what they found out about the program. Researchers found that teachers' responses to e-skills learning and knowledge requirements ranged from medium to high. In contrast, teachers' responses to its knowledge requirements ranged from medium to high—looking at educator views on the advantages of incorporating electronic learning into teaching methods. Students' responses ranged from moderate to high. Similarly, teachers' reactions to the challenges posed by implementing e-learning in the instructional process were between medium and high. At the same time, students' replies ranged from low to medium to high. In 2009, a study by Al-Aftan found that students at the Arab Open University were making extensive use of e-learning resources provided by faculty and fellow students. Hossam's study (2011) determines the current state of e-learning that only a tiny percentage of academics at the participating institutions were enthusiastic about online learning. Mehra and Omidian's (2011) study investigated students' attitudes at Punjab University in India toward e-learning. Almost all of the pupils (76 percent) were found to have a favorable outlook on education. Even though only 24% of students have a negative view of e-learning, 82% know its advantages, and 57% plan to use e-learning in their learning. Syrac (2011) conducted a study using a model e-learning environment in higher education as an effective tool. Several students have stated that the model e-learning environment drives their desire to learn more and that they do not want to take courses that do not follow the model e-learning environment. According to the survey respondents, participation in an e-learning environment model increased their chances of success in the course by 80%. Some students said the electronic model piqued their interest because it provided an environment where new information could be acquired at a time and place convenient for each student.

The research conducted by Al-Awawdeh and Alshtaiwi (2020) was intended to survey the perspectives of students and faculty members at Yarmouk University regarding the effectiveness of electronic materials during the pandemic years. According to the poll results, electronic curricula are preferred by most university students. However, most faculty members disagreed because of their lack of confidence in existing material, inability to use them, and the need for ongoing training on using e-learning programs to apply material accurately. Understanding and meeting these needs is essential before using them in education.

### B. *Current Situation Obstacles in E-Learning*

Many different factors prevent the implementation of e-learning technology into the instructional process, including the following: Because of the prevalence of technological illiteracy, remediating the situation requires a significant investment of time and energy on both the educator and the student. According to Al-Awawdeh's (2012) study, implementing e-learning in academic institutions is fraught with difficulties professors and students feel. The study also found that professors and students alike need to be aware of the impact of factors such as academic level, gender, and specialization. According to the study's findings, 70.9 percent of students believe universities have difficulty implementing e-learning. University curricula, infrastructure, and technology are two of the main issues that must be addressed. These issues must be addressed, from the support provided in the classrooms to the difficulties students, faculty, and administrators face. Amounts are spent on acquiring and maintaining virtual devices and auxiliary

equipment. However, online teaching increases the distance between the teacher and the students, decreasing the teacher's ability to affect the students' lives. It is essential to emphasize the university's involvement in the education and upbringing of future generations, which is the fundamental reason for the university's worth in the community. The process of rehabilitating and preparing teachers' technology is increasingly under the purview of many platforms, many of which lack pedagogic solutions for the problem as they exist only to make a profit. Students could lose interest in using the various platforms and equipment brought into the online classroom due to the sheer number of unclear items.

### *C. Assessment*

In the last twenty years, many studies have been conducted to investigate the assessment of students' learning, focusing on the efficiency of this learning as there is no face-to-face contact and how such assessment should be conducted. Kearns (2012) argues that in no face-to-face environment, "instructors are particularly challenged to convey their intentions accurately and provide appropriate feedback to help students achieve the targeted learning objectives" (p. 199). Hannafin et al. (2003) say that "the distant nature of Web-based approaches renders many observational and participatory assessments difficult" (p. 256). Oncu and Cakir (2011) also agree that no face-to-face assessment rendered the assessment process challenging and complex. Among the five areas of concern educators have, Beebe et al. (2010) identified the informal assessment. Moreover, other researchers investigated some of the challenges that assessment might meet. Many investigated the authenticity of the activities used to assess students (Kim et al., 2008; Robles & Braathen, 2002); others discussed the methods to assess these students (Swan, 2001; Arend, 2007; Gaytan & McEwen, 2007).

Looking for a definition of Assessment is a complex task because researchers define Assessment based on the concept of face-to-face evaluation that technically happens inside the classroom or academic institution. Halls. Yorke (2003) calls this particular case definitional fuzziness. Many other terms appeared in trying to define Assessment: classroom evaluation (Crooks, 1988; Bloom et al., 1971; Scriven, 1967), in-course Assessment (Greer, 2001), learning-oriented Assessment (Keppell et al., 2006), teacher-developed Assessment (Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985), assessment to assist learning (Ash & Levitt, 2003) or just feedback (Dietel et al., 1991). However, the most recently-coined term is Assessment for learning (James & Pedder, 2006; Wiliam et al., 2004). Bachman (2004) defined Assessment as a process in which teachers collect information about something they are interested in according to systematic and substantially grounded procedures. Based on a face-to-face meeting, all previous terms qualify for the evaluation process (Assessment). El ebyary (2013) wonders if there "Is there a distinctive area where a line can be drawn between assessment and learning?" Padmadewi et al. (2022) argue, "The importance of assessment in foreign language learning is not questionable, and its function in identifying teaching success cannot be denied." They also wonder how "the phenomena of technology developments influence how assessment instruments must be developed to achieve the learning objectives and outcomes." Ahmed and Troudi (2018) say that Assessment is one of the learning processes, and they assume that any changing methods of Assessment will contribute to a change in students' learning. Hyland (2004) says that Assessment helps students identify their points of weaknesses and strengths to take any favorable action, therefore (p. 213). Ahmed and Troudi (2018) say that "assessment informs students about their mastery level of specific skills and their achievement of the Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs)" (p.1231). Moreover, teachers view the process of Assessment as a continuous task that involves both teachers and students.

This paper tries to draw the line between the Assessment, the content, and the learning process, focusing on how practical an Assessment for the given content can be as it is transferred to be only online. Bachman and Palmer (2010) discussed the Assessment process and asked the following significant questions: "When and how often shall we assess the students?" or "How should we conduct an assessment procedure?" Ketabi and Ketabi (2014) argue that not asking "what to assess" is quite apparent because teachers usually know what they want the learners to learn and what they want to assess after learning. However, the situation changed because the content changed.

### *D. The Researchers' Review of Previous Studies Found That:*

1. The study agrees with all previous studies using the descriptive-analytical approach and the study tool, the questionnaire, for data collection. The study differed from previous studies in that it deals with e-learning from the students' point of view in the presence of the Corona pandemic that affects the whole world.
2. The review of previous studies helped crystallize and define the problem of the study. It became clear that none of the previous studies specifically investigated the effectiveness of Assessment and material during Pandemic e-learning from the point of view of the students of the University. Thus, all studies were limited to universities and other foreign educational institutions and in light of Circumstances different from the Corona pandemic that affects the whole world.

#### **The study Problem:**

In order to cultivate a new generation capable of navigating the new e-learning system and successfully incorporating technology into education, one sector is seeing rapid expansion. Because of this, educational institutions like colleges and universities have a responsibility to instruct their students to adjust to new modes of communication in the educational setting. E-learning assessment should be used as a supplement to conventional classroom instruction rather than as a replacement for it since the Coronavirus outbreak has made this point more urgent than it has ever been before. E-learning institutions have become urgent given the necessity to avoid social distance through e-learning as an alternative to face-to-face education due to the Corona pandemic that has plagued the world. E-learning can be thought

of as an alternative to face-to-face education. E-learning was utilized in the public school system during the second semester of the academic year 2019/2021. This was one of the institutions that utilized e-learning. Due to the significance that members place on e-learning and the ease with which it may be applied. This study aims to determine the reality of e-learning Assessments in the faculty from the students' perspective. This study is critical in light of the recent Corona pandemic and requires more attention with the assistance of both the faculty and the students. This helps improve the education system, notably its Assessment system and content, which adds to the improvement of the education system. According to this interpretation, the research questions could be phrased as follows: What kind of an impact does the Corona Pandemic have on the effectiveness of E-learning Assessments at Higher Education Institutions? and the effectiveness of the content provided during e-learning?

#### **Study questions:**

The following is a list of research questions that the project intends to answer:

1. In light of the epidemic, how Effective do students find it to use electronic contents/ material at universities?
- 2- How efficient is the computerized evaluation from the students' point of view, considering the factors discussed earlier?

#### **Objectives of the study:**

The research investigates the students' views on electronic content in light of the outbreak and their' perspectives on the use of the electronic examination for grading, hoping to find the point of weaknesses and strengthen such Assessments.

#### **The importance of studying:**

As e-learning Assessments using electronic content are a relatively new situation in the light of the Corona pandemic, this study attempts to diagnose the reality of e-learning as a whole and Assessments as a particular component of the educational process at universities based on students' perceptions. It contributes to the state of e-learning use and development at the institution, which is now under progress. The results of this study contribute to polishing the picture of e-learning: it is both clear and accurate regarding the reality of e-learning Assessments at the university and the methods for overcoming the challenges faced by both students and faculty members. It follows the suggestions made by other studies to enhance education, highlighting the significance of Assessment as an essential component of the educational process to enhance education across all stages and levels.

### **III. METHOD AND PROCEDURE**

#### **A. Study Approach**

The descriptive-analytical approach was used for the current study because of the topic's unique characteristics, and the quantitative method was also used to analyze the questionnaire of this study. During the Corona Pandemic in Higher Education Institutions, a sample of students was randomly selected for this study.

#### **B. Study Community**

The respondents to the questionnaire are 154 students of various Jordanian universities in various locations during the academic year 2020-2021.

#### **C. The Study Sample**

The study used a basic random sample procedure that could be found on the internet (Zulfiqar, 2009, 391-386). It included (154) students from various college departments with scientific and human interests. The electronic questionnaire was used to collect data, and Google Forms was used to apply it. The data was entered and analyzed by the SPSS program. In light of several variables, the following table depicts the features of a sample Study.

TABLE 1  
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY SAMPLE IN THE LIGHT OF SOME VARIABLES

Demographic Variables	Categorization	repetition	Percentage	Total
1- The Gender	Male	88	%57.1	154
	Female	66	%42.9	
2- Educational program	Bachelor	81	%52.3	154
	Masters	73	%47.7	
3- Educational Department	Art and Humanities	85	%55.195	154
	Sciences	69	%44.805	
4- Geographical Distribution	Rural Area	31	%20.455	154
	Center Cities	123	%79.545	

### Study tool:

An investigation into the efficacy of e-learning assessments by higher education institutions during the Corona Pandemic was conducted with a questionnaire fashioned after earlier research. The completed survey had a total of twenty (20) questions, which were divided into two distinct categories: the first category was titled "The Effectiveness of Electronic Content," and it consisted of eight paragraphs; the second category, "E-learning Assessment Efficiency," had twelve paragraphs; and the third category was "Other." However, only 4 statements of the highest average score and percentage were analyzed for the first question and 3 for the second question. This was due to the relevant results collected and the importance of its contents. Other statements were excluded from the evaluation and discussion because results showed that some students did not answer them. The scoring average was high in some places and low in others, creating a contradiction. Thus, excluded statements can be considered as invalid based on the Likert scale.

### The validity of the study tool: the validity of the arbitrators:

For each of the twenty paragraphs, a weight was assigned based on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 5 points for a strong agreement, 4 points for agreement, 3 points for some degree of agreement, 2 points for disagreement, and 1 point for strong disagreement. Validity of internal consistency: An exploratory sample of 20 students was presented with the questionnaire outside of the investigation. The Pearson correlation coefficients between each dimension of the questionnaire and the total score were calculated, and the results are shown in the Table 2 below.

There are correlation coefficients between each field and the overall score of each research tool in Table 2.

The Domain/Scope	correlation coefficient	Indication level
Effectiveness of electronic content	0.82	functionned
Efficiency of assessment via e-learning	0.85	functionned

The estimated correlation coefficients between each field and the total score are noted in the data in the previous table. It was between 0.82 and 0.85, which are statistically significant and acceptable coefficients to continue using the tool on the study sample.

### Stability of the study tool:

Cronbach's alpha coefficient supported the study's resolution stability for each dimension as well as the instrument as a whole. The determined stability coefficients are shown in the Table 3 below.

TABLE 3  
THE RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS CALCULATED FOR THE STUDY TOOL FIELDS AND FOR THE TOTAL SCORE

The Domain/Scope	number of paragraphs	Alpha Cronbach
Effectiveness of electronic content	8	0.85
Efficiency of assessment via e-learning	12	0.85
Overall dimensions of the resolution	20	0.85

The reliability coefficients for the domains are (0.85), which is a good stability ratio. According to the data in the preceding table, the study tool may be trusted as a tool for collecting data from the study sample.

### Statistical treatments:

All data were entered into the SPSS program and examined, and the data was processed to answer the study questions after it was entered. The following statistical treatments were used in the study: Cronbach's Alpha test is used to measure how stable a tool is. The correlation coefficient measures the Pearson degree of correlation. Relative weights and arithmetic averages Frequencies and percentages.

## IV. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

Results related to the answer to the first question, which states, "What is E-learning Assessment Efficiency during Corona Pandemic in Higher Education Institutions from the students' point of view in light of the Corona pandemic?" To answer the question, the frequencies, arithmetic averages, and relative weights of the responses of the highest 4 statements of the study sample on the effectiveness of access to education were calculated by email, and the results are as in Table 4.

		Strongly Agree		Agree		Somewhat Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree			
#	The Statement	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	Avg	relative weight
1	I have access to the learning material including the test and exams given by teachers easily.	126	20.5	214	34.7	172	27.9	64	10.4	40	6.5	3.52	%70.5
2	I take advantage of the explanatory information to use the site for the educational material	72	11.7	172	27.9	184	29.9	106	17.2	82	13.3	3.07	%61.5
3	I get immediate assistance from the technical support services, which enrich and facilitate the educational process	84	13.6	108	17.5	158	25.6	170	27.6	96	15.6	2.86	%57.2
4	I take advantage of the internet speed in increasing the Effectiveness of online Learning.	90	14.6	104	16.9	162	26.3	114	18.5	146	23.7	2.80	%56
<b>Total marks</b>												<b>3.06</b>	<b>%61.3</b>

The data in Table 4 indicates that the percentage of E-learning Assessment Efficiency from the point of view of the students was (61.3%), with a mean of (3.06). Paragraph (1) related to the "I have access to the learning material including the test and exams are given by teachers easily," with an average of (3.52) and a percentage (of 70.5%). This may be attributed to communication, explanation, and answering students' inquiries by the heads of academic departments and faculty members and their understanding and simplification of matters, such as paragraphs (2 and 3). These two paragraphs (2 and 3) showed a medium average of (3.07) and a percentage (of 61.5%) for paragraph (2) concerning taking advantage of the "the explanatory information to use the site for the educational material." Furthermore, paragraph (3) concerns getting "immediate assistance from the technical support services, which enrich and facilitate the educational process" with an average of (2.86) and a percentage (of 57.2%). The academic subjects and the symbol for subscribing to them in the virtual classes were announced through the college website, and the students created the groups. They add it to the virtual classes available through Google and Google Classroom or create study groups via WhatsApp or Facebook Messenger groups. This is used to upload study materials to maintain a state of contact and communication between professors and their students and continue to submit a request from all educational services. However, there was an agreement between students that Internet speed was a challenge for them. Paragraph (4) concerning taking "advantage of the internet speed in increasing the Effectiveness of Online Learning" came in last place with a low average of (2.80) and a percentage (of 56%). Because considering that 44% of the students faced challenges while connected is a severe problem during Assessment.

Results related to the answer to the second question, which states, "What is the value of the electronic evaluation applied in university from the point of view of the students in light of the Corona pandemic?" is the second question. The findings are pertinent to the discussion of this matter. To answer the question, we compiled the response frequencies, averages, and relative weights from our research sample of the highest 3 statements. The conclusions of this analysis are presented in Table 5.



The viewpoint of a student towards the usefulness of e-learning assessment is illustrated in Table 5 in the following:

		Strongly Agree		Agree		Somewhat Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree			
#	The Statement	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	Avg	relative weight
1	The assessment process is carried out continuously during e-learning	84	13.6	240	39	152	24.7	94	15.3	46	7.5	3.36	%67.2
2	Online assessment methods Suitable and varied	42	6.8	208	33.8	210	34.1	106	17.2	50	8.1	3.14	%62.8
3	Remote exams provide me continuous feedback	78	12.7	184	29.9	144	23.4	122	19.8	88	14.3	3.07	%61.4
	<b>Total marks</b>											<b>3.19</b>	<b>%63.8</b>

Students rated e-learning evaluations as the most effective, with a score of (3.19). According to the data in the previous table, the statement that "The assessment process is carried out continuously during e-learning" came in first place with an average of (3.36) and a percentage of (67.2%). In second place came the statement "Online assessment methods Suitable and varied," with an average of (3.14) and a percentage of (62.8%). Following the Ministry's directives and the Higher Education Council's decisions, and the decisions of the College Council, students are evaluated using a variety of methods represented in assignments, short exams, and reports. It was followed in the second place by the paragraph on "the assessment methods used in e-learning are appropriate and varied," with an arithmetic average of (3.14) and with a percentage of (62.8%). Finally, the paragraph "Remote exams provide me continuous feedback" came in third place in the last rank and an average (of 3.07), with a percentage of (61.4%). This is due to the replacement of Moodle with the available and accessible e-learning tools, which are easy for faculty members and students to deal with, as they do not provide all the services of the form in the rapid assessment process.

The number of students registered for the course only and the difficulty of conducting instant tests. A faculty member communicates with students at the faculty level via online video chats such as Zoom and Meet. There were many difficulties and problems: represented in the students' non-compliance to attend despite an invitation at least two days before by the teacher that included specifying the day and time and placing the link through which the students enter. By pressing this conversation through their computers, tablets, or smartphones, undergraduate students had an attendance rate of approximately 85% to 90% in these conversations, while diploma students were at their best (75%).

## V. STUDY CONCLUSIONS

The results can be concluded from the study and its interpretations: The University provides its students with extensive electronic educational content. It includes examples, exercises, and assignments that help them in e-learning according to the results of the second question. This study opens new horizons for researchers to conduct several studies, represented in

- a study on the adequacy of e-learning among faculty members at a University,
- Studying ways to develop the e-learning system at University, and
- A comparative study of the reality of e-learning at University - with other colleges and universities.

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# A Contrastive Analysis of Lexical Features of Government Work Report for 2020 and Its Translation—From the Perspective of Halliday's Three Meta-Functions Theory

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**Abstract**—The translation of government work report (GWR) should not only be faithful to the spirit of the original text, but also close to the stylistic features of target language and the context. These features correspond to the Ideational, Interpersonal and Textual functions of Three Meta-functions Theory, which is of great research value in the current circumstance beset by COVID-19. Taking 2020 GWR as the research material due to its special social environment, this paper makes a systematic comparative study of lexical features between the source text and its English translation based on three meta-functions theory. Through quantitative statistics and qualitative text analysis, the realization and distribution of three meta-functions in the source text and its translation are discussed. At the same time, the reasons for the equivalence and non-equivalence between two texts are explored to summarize corresponding modification suggestions and translation strategies. Through comparative analysis, it is found that for ideational process, the discrepancy is significant in terms of material and relational processes between the source text and its translation. For interpersonal function, the source text mainly uses modal operators of high value while the translation the median. And for textual function, there were many additions of first-person plural pronouns in translation due to its writing habits. These findings can help better understand the language mechanism and connotation of the translation of GWR, thus enriching their research perspective to some extent.

**Index Terms**—systemic functional grammar, three meta-functions theory, government work report, translation

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the enhancement of national power and the improvement of international status, China is attracting more and more attention in the international arena. China's need to forge ahead to the world increases and there is also a growing desire of other countries to better understand China. China's report on the work of the government is an official document of the Government of the People's Republic of China, and it is an authoritative way for the outside world to understand the nation's situation and political ideas. As a turning point for China's development, the year of 2020 witnessed the nation's weal and woe in different aspects. Due to the COVID-19 epidemic, China's economic, cultural, political and international relations had been affected to various degrees. Therefore, the Government Work Report (GWR) for 2020 had provoked considerable discussion as soon as it was released, which summarized and reported the latest situation of China to the outside world. In addition to the regular contents of economic construction, reform and development, a considerable part of the work report was devoted to reviewing and deploying the epidemic prevention and control. At the same time, affected by the epidemic, the world was in turbulence likewise. As a result, it was high time that the government conveyed certain information to stabilize China's image and position in the world.

Systemic-functional grammar represented by Halliday consists of two interrelated parts: systemic grammar and functional grammar. They are closely related to the changes of social environment. According to systemic-functional linguistics, the use of language must be analyzed in a specific context. People use different languages in different situations for specific purposes. Its core is the meta-function theory of language, that is, language is essentially a systematic network composed of different semantics, which is mainly manifested in three meta-functions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. They are widely used in discourse analysis and literature analysis. The realization of ideational function mainly includes transitivity and voice, interpersonal functions are reflected through mood and modality, and theme-rheme structure and cohesion system are used to reflect textual function.

GWR and its English translation (E-GWR), as important political documents concerning national affairs, are used on such highly formal occasions as the People's Congress. In this context, its contents are finalized after careful consideration and repeated revisions. Due to its political nature, every sentence and word of the translation of the report have an accurate definition, which should not only reflect the content of the original text accurately, but also conform to the style of the target language. Therefore, the vocabulary adopted in the English translation is of great research significance. The government work report, as a special style of government external publicity documents, and the

special social environment in which the COVID-19 epidemic is rampant worldwide from 2019 to 2020, make the meta-functions theory very practical in the study of English translation of the GWR 2020.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Researches on Three Meta-Functions Theory*

Three Meta-functions theory is an important part of Halliday's systemic functional linguistic school. After a period of development, it has finally formed into a systematic linguistic theory which now includes three variants: ideational, interpersonal and textual functions (Hu, 2017). Many scholars have since conducted further researches based on this theoretical framework, including extending or refining its theoretical content, combining it with other theories of systemic functional linguistics, applying it to other fields and so on. Martin, a well-known systemic functional linguist abroad, further interpreted Halliday's meta-function theory and combined it with language education (Yang, 2010). Researchers also apply the theory to news reports, business communication, advertising, or making discourse analysis studies based on the theory, especially discourse analysis and research on text effect of political speeches or narrative fictions (Feng, 2004). From the domestic point of view, English-Chinese translation is the main research field of meta-function theory.

One of the major features of contemporary Western translation theory is the use of linguistic theory to solve problems in translation, and nowadays, meta-function theory has also been widely used in translation research (Liu & Wen, 2006). Hatim and Mason (1997) studied three meta-functions analysis of language as a part of context analysis in translation, they believe that three meta-functions are important parts of discourse analysis, which involves readers in the reconstruction of the environment. Munday (2001) demonstrated especially the application of three meta-functions in literary translation, which contributed to the application of meta-function theory in the field of translation quality evaluation. In China, the study of translation through meta-function theory is divided according to different types of texts, including adopting the theory in practice on English news reports translation, analyzing English business contracts and making a conclusion of the faithful, accurate and unified translation standards of English business contracts from meta-function theory perspective, as well as other analyses for poetry, advertising, film and television works. All of these studies provide a new perspective for translation studies, thus broadening the way of thinking in translation.

### B. *Researches on the English Translation of Government Work Reports*

GWRs cover the country's politics, economy, science and technology, culture and other aspects. As official documents and important channel for the country's publicity to the outside world, it is the most authoritative way for other countries to understand China's national conditions, guidelines, policies and political stance. With the increasing influence of China, the Chinese government's publicity documents have attracted much attention. How to improve the quality of the E-GWR and enhance the effectiveness of its publicity to the outside world has become a matter of theoretical and practical significance.

#### (a). *Linguistic Research of Government Work Reports*

The development of modern linguistics has a profound impact on translation studies. With the help of linguistic achievements, researchers began to explore translation studies theoretically. They think that we can get the equivalence between the two languages by means of language contrast and semantic analysis, and reveal the rules behind them. Therefore, many scholars focus on exploring the linguistic level of translation, mainly with the help of translation equivalence theories proposed by the West scholars based on linguistic studies and the essence of translation. In recent years, the development of corpus linguistics provides a large number of materials and research perspectives for the study of report translation. Based on the corpus approach, scholars explore the features of the English version of the report, such as vocabulary, sentence, cohesion etc, giving suggestions on translation strategies. Zhu (2011) found a significant increase in the plural form of first person pronouns in E-GWRs from 2000 to 2009 through a corpus-based study. Hu and Tian (2018) used corpus method and critical discourse analysis theory to compare E-GWRS of 2000-2016 with America's State of the Union Address to analyze reports' linguistic features and text effects. However, these studies are all discussions on the linguistic level, which are mainly confined in the texts and ignore the extra-textual factors, it's not comprehensive enough if we do not take the factors as politics, economy, culture and ideology that restrict translation into consideration from macro perspectives. And according to systemic functional linguistics, context is an essential part of a text.

#### (b). *Cultural and Social Research of Government Work Reports*

At the end of the 20th century, western scholars Bassnett and Lefevere (1996) proposed a cultural turn in translation studies, which made a breakthrough in the linguistic level and began to incorporate the extra-textual factors into the research horizon. After that, scholars began to examine the translation of reports from the outside of the text, and deeply explore the external factors that affect the translation of reports, so as to promote a more comprehensive and in-depth study of the translation of reports. Cheng (2003) proposed that "Politics should be emphasized in the translation of political articles". Huang ((2004) proposed the principle of "Three Closeness" in the translation of foreign publicity from a macro perspective, he also believed that the mainstream ideology of the translator's time dominates the whole

process of publicity translation. In addition, Wu and Zhao (2013) explored the readers' acceptance of the 2011 E-GWR, and the results showed that the translation is close to the English language style, but there still exists some problems. This stage of research focuses on the social, cultural, ideological factors, audiences and other factors that affect report translation, making up for the deficiency of early linguistic studies of translation, promoting the development of report translation studies.

### (c). *Researches on the Lexical Features of Government Work Reports*

At the end of the 20th century, western scholars Bassnett and Lefevere (1996) proposed a cultural turn in translation studies, which made a breakthrough in the linguistic level and began to incorporate the extra-textual factors into the research horizon. In addition to the above overall researches on the English translation of reports, with the continuous strengthening of China's foreign publicity, the research on E-GWRs, especially the English translation of words with Chinese characteristics, is also increasing. Li and Hu (2017) took the English version of the report from 2000 to 2014 as an example to investigate the theme words and their collocations in the E-GWR.

Previous studies have shown that most of the scholars choose E-GWRs of several consecutive years, and use case analysis or quantitative analysis to make a diachronic comparison of a certain category of vocabulary and summarize its English translation methods and rules, or analyze the translation strategies of vocabulary from a theoretical point of view. Few articles have systematically studied the vocabulary used in the E-GWR based on theoretical frameworks of linguistics, especially the meta-function theory. Therefore, it is of great practical value to make a study of E-GWR for 2020 based on Halliday's meta-function theory and take the social context into consideration, by which the equivalence and non-equivalence between two texts can be explored to summarize corresponding modification suggestions and translation strategies.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### A. *Research Questions*

This paper attempts to study the lexical features of GWR for 2020 and its translation from the perspective of Halliday's Meta-functions theory. The author will focus on the following questions:

- (1) What are the lexical features of GWR for 2020 and its translation according to three meta-functions?
- (2) What are the similarities and differences between the original text and its translation if there are, and how can we evaluate these changes according to three meta-functions and context?
- (3) What specific translation suggestions and strategies of GWR can we summarize based on the above contrastive analysis?

### B. *Research Materials*

GWR belongs to political discourse and has distinct characteristics. From the perspective of content, the report involves the summary of the work of the government in the past year and the deployment of the work in the next year as well as the government's own construction, whose wording is undoubtedly rigorous, accurate and standardized. As for the form, it is read out by the Premier of the State Council at the National People's Congress, the main participants are whole Chinese people as well as foreign governments. In terms of formality, the Report is a very official document. The English translation of the report should not only be faithful to the spirit of the original text, but also have stylistic features similar to the original text as far as possible. Meanwhile, these features correspond to the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of meta-function theory, which is of great research value. This study takes the latest English version of the GWR 2020 issued by Xinhua News Agency as the data, discusses the application of ideational, interpersonal and textual function in report's translation from the lexical level, as well as the text effect with the use of these words, so as to help readers better understand the language mechanism and connotation of the translation of the report and enrich its research perspectives.

What's more, GWR for 2020 is quite different from those of previous years in that the year's National People's Congress (NPC) and Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPC) sessions were held under the special circumstances when the COVID-19 epidemic in China is under effective control and the global epidemic continues to spread, which entails great concern. This is not only a summary of China's national economy and people's livelihood in the past year, but also related to China's international situation in the context of the increasing serious global epidemic and the increasingly international suppression of China by developed countries. It reflects the "context" that systemic functional linguistics emphasizes, so the study is quite feasible. The texts adopted in this paper are two versions of GWR for 2020, with the Chinese source text of 10346 words and its English translation of 8808 words.

### C. *Research Procedure*

The whole paper mainly adopts qualitative and quantitative methods. According to the content of the report, the whole text is divided into three parts for vocabulary classification and data collection. To analyze the lexical features of texts from the perspective of three meta-functions, firstly, the vocabulary is classified according to the transitivity system, mood and modality system, thematic structure and cohesion system which indicate three functions respectively to collect lexical distribution data, and tables will be drawn to make the data more lucid. Then the data in the table are

contrasted and analyzed to obtain the general rule. Here a forum is adopted to calculate whether the discrepancy between the source language and the translation is significant. With the combination of meta-function theory and specific contexts, the paper compares the original text and the translation of the report in the form of specific cases, and evaluates the rationality of the deletion and retention of the translation from original text in the lexical level. Finally, based on the above analysis and evaluation, the author summarizes the opinions on the revision of the English translation of the government work report and the translation strategies.

#### IV. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF GWR FOR 2020 BASED ON THREE-META FUNCTIONS

##### A. Ideational Function

The legitimacy of a text being a translation depends largely on the match of the ideational meanings between two texts (Bell, 1991), so this part mainly focuses on the transitivity system of the source language and target language, which accounts for the major resources of construing the ideational function. Process is the core concept of transitivity system, including six processes introduced in the previous part. The distribution of these processes is shown in the following table:

TABLE 1  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF SIX PROCESSES

	Material		Relational		Mental		Behavioral		Verbal		Existential		Total
	Frequency	Ratio(%)	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency
Chinese	1014	86.3	93	7.9	24	2.1	35	3.1	5	0.4	4	0.3	1175
English	1330	86.2	145	9.4	30	1.9	21	1.4	8	0.5	9	0.5	1543
Significance	0.000		0.000		0.150		0.211		0.254		0.088		0.000

According to Table 1, apparently in the two texts, material processes account for the majority, and are often marked by verbs. The messages of material process are often conveyed when talking about government's actions, achievements, and goals.

China was at a critical juncture when this report was produced and delivered, the annual NPC and CPPCC sessions were held under the special circumstances when the COVID-19 epidemic in China is under effective control and the global epidemic continues to spread, also a moderately prosperous society will soon be fully built. As a result, the great efforts we have made in response to combating COVID-19 and arrangements for the future priorities are especially stressed.

And due to the impact of the epidemic, employment and people's livelihood have become important contents of development. Hence, a large number of verbal clauses indicated by high proportion of material processes can demonstrate the positive role of the government in promoting the national economy and people's livelihood, in addition to the government's determination to redouble efforts to restore nation's livelihood in the following years.

##### (a). Material Process

Material processes, as Halliday (2004) proposes, is the "process of doing", and they "express the notion that some entity 'does' something—which may be done 'to' some other entity". This process typically has a participant (the Actor) that performs the action and another participant (the Goal) that affected by the action.

The distributions of material processes on the whole in both texts are very similar and both account for a large proportion. Due to the impact of the epidemic, employment and people's livelihood have become important contents of development. Hence, a large number of verbal clauses indicated by a high proportion of material processes can vividly show the proactive role the government has played in facilitating the economy and improving people's well-being, in addition to the government's determination to redouble efforts to restore nation's livelihood in the following years.

When the significance value is less than 0.05, the discrepancy between the source text and the translation is significant, hence the significance value in Table 1 indicates a significant discrepancy between two texts—English has significantly more material processes than Chinese. Some omissions and additions of material processes can be found in the translation, with additions account for more proportions, here are some examples:

(1) ST: 粮食产量实现“十二连增”，居民消费价格涨幅保持较低水平。

TT: Food crop production increased for the 12th year in a row. Consumer prices grew slowly.

(2) ST: 中国特色大国外交成果丰硕。

TT: We achieved fruitful outcomes in pursuing China's major country diplomacy.

The translator finds that the Chinese text is redundant with the expression of “实现‘十二连增’”, so he dealt it with a noun-to-verb change in which a material process is added in the translation. And in the second example, material process is employed due to the addition of subject “we”.

There are also many omissions, mainly some four-word expressions with repeated use of verbs that can't be translated with English equivalent perfectly, which can be shown in the following examples:

(3) ST: 这些政策使几亿人受益, 及时有效促进了保供稳价和复工复产。

TT: These policies have benefited hundreds of millions of people, and ensured stable supplies and prices and the resumption of work and production in a timely and effective way.

(4) ST: 我们一定要努力改进工作, 切实履行职责, 尽心竭力不辜负人民的期待。

TT: We must strive to improve our work and fulfill our responsibilities and make every effort to live up to the people's expectations. (from *Report on the Work of the Government*, published on May 22, 2020)

We can see that in both examples, the source text uses four-word expressions with repeated use of verbs, which actually express the same meaning. So in the translation, two verbs are translated into one to make the article more concise.

#### (b). Relational Process

Relational process is represented by predicators, telling the relation between different entities or the feature and classification of an entity. It is the most direct way to make assessment and judgement (Hodge & Kress, 1917). This process is mainly adopted to review the achievement the nation has made, and to illustrate current situations, difficulties, and also the targets the government is expected to achieve in the future.

In the following examples, messages conveyed by the source texts are introducing the future objectives of the government.

(5) ST: “六保”是今年“六稳”工作的着力点。

TT: We must focus on maintaining security in the six areas in order to ensure stability on the six fronts.

(6) ST: 积极的财政政策要更加积极有为。

TT: We will pursue a more proactive and impactful fiscal policy.

(7) ST: 稳健的货币政策要更加灵活适度。

TT: We will pursue a prudent monetary policy in a more flexible and appropriate way.

Here, relational processes are replaced by material processes in translation to make these measures more concrete. Otherwise, English readers may find it redundant and abstract as “..... is the point of .....” or “..... should be more proactive and impactful”.

According to Table 1, the discrepancy between two texts is significant and relational processes take a greater proportion in the translated text than that in the source text, which can be ascribed to the strategy the translators take due to the structural differences between two languages. In the following two examples, relational processes are added in the E-GWR to make sentences more authentic and fluent.

(8) ST: 在肯定成绩的同时, 我们也清醒看到面临的困难和问题。

TT: While recognizing our achievements, we are also keenly aware of the difficulties and problems we face.

(9) ST: 政府工作存在不足, 形式主义、官僚主义仍较突出, 少数干部不作为、不会为。

TT: There is still room for improvement in the work of government. Pointless formalities and bureaucracy remain an acute issue. A small number of officials shirk their duties or are incapable of fulfilling them. (ibid)

As we know, the linguistic style of political documents is formal and concise, so it's quite difficult for English readers who are not familiar with Chinese to understand these political discourse or reports, and corresponding adjustment should be made to make them more lucid. “不会为” as a word with Chinese characteristic can be regarded as an adjective which describes some incapable government officials and can be translated as “are unable to” as a relational process. Hence the logic relation is more explicit by referring to these officials with the addition of an attributive process.

#### (c). Mental Process

Mental process is something related to one's inner feelings or imagination, which is realized by using typical words as “believe”, “want” and other expressions with emotional color. In the report, when the speaker wants to build a closer connection with the audience or calls for common and active actions from them, mental processes are often used. Examples can be found in the following texts:

(10) ST: 我代表国务院, 向.....表示诚挚感谢! 向.....表示诚挚感谢! 向.....表示诚挚感谢!

TT: On behalf of the State Council, I express sincere gratitude to ..... I express heartfelt appreciation to ..... I also express sincere thanks to .....

Here the translation remains mental process to present the original political norms, but employs different adjectives and nouns to enrich the text and make the emotion more abundant. As a result, the cohesion of the Chinese people in fighting with the epidemic and our determination to get all countries together against COVID-19 has been fully reflected.

(11) ST: 只要我们始终与人民群众同甘共苦、奋力前行, 中国人民追求美好生活的愿望一定能实现。

TT: As long as we stand together with the people through good times and bad and continue to forge ahead, we can surely fulfill the desires of the Chinese people for a better life. (ibid)

The source text adopts rather colloquial language to bring the message closer to the audience. Here mental processes are employed because certain emotions need to be aroused from the audience so as to build their confidence and determination. While in the translation, it turns into behavioral process and the original meaning and intention can't be

fully expressed. As a result, the translation is unable to restore the message that the nation will always be with his people and encourage them to keep fighting. By this example, we can find that when formal and official documents as GWR is translated, more detailed and emotional analysis should be made in its translation in accordance with meta-function theory to embellish the text.

(d). *Behavioral Process*

Behavioral process is the process of behaving, such as breathing, sighing and laughing, and this is the most difficult

One to define in all these six processes for the reason that it has both the characteristics of the material processes and mental processes (Halliday, 2004). In most cases, there is only one participant in behavioral processes called the “Behaver”, who is typically a living being with awareness.

From Table 1, it is also found that behavioral process is applied more frequently in Chinese texts than in its translation. With the careful analysis of the two texts, this phenomenon can be ascribed to the use of rhetorical devices as metaphor and personification in the original text. Chinese is of long history and rich connotation, rhetoric can often be found in our daily life or literary works to make the language more vivid, and official government speeches are no exception. The use of rhetorical devices can not only elicit a closer conversation between the government and the people, but make the proposals more understandable. While in the translation, the use of behavioral process has been reduced. For rhetorical devices, literal translation is not suitable, even may cause misunderstanding. Here are some examples:

(12) ST: 要大力提质增效, 各项支出务必精打细算, 一定要把每一笔钱都用在刀刃上、紧要处。

TT: We will see that funds are put to better and more effective use;

(13) ST: 14 亿中国人的饭碗, 我们有能力也务必牢牢端在自己手中。

TT: It is imperative, and it is well within our ability, to ensure the food supply for 1.4 billion Chinese people through our own efforts.

Here both of the original text uses metaphor to illustrate government’s action vividly. Both of them adopt behavioral process as “用在刀刃上”“端饭碗”, which are metaphors meaning “to use money where it is needed” and “to ensure food supply”. While in the translation, all rhetoric devices are abandoned and material processes are applied. As there is no identical expression in English, the translator abandons metaphor and uses material process to make the main message easy to understand for English readers. Although the translation become more accessible, part of the meaning and vividness of Chinese have been lost.

(14) ST: 中华儿女风雨同舟、守望相助, 筑起了抗击疫情的巍峨长城。

TT: Through all these efforts, we, all the sons and daughters of the Chinese nation, have stood together in the most trying of times and built a Great Wall of solidarity against the epidemic. (ibid)

Here the translator keeps behavioral process in E-GWR. “Stand together” here can show the efforts and determination Chinese people have made to fight against the epidemic, while the meaning of “风雨同舟” has not yet been expressed, which needs further embellishment.

(e). *Verbal Process*

Verbal process is the process of saying and usually includes a “Speaker” and a “Receiver” as well as the content. For example, in the sentence “I told him to throw the rubbish”, here “I” is the Speaker, “him” is the Receiver and “throw the rubbish” is the content.

Verbal process takes only a small proportion in both texts. They often appear in the beginning and ending parts of the report as the Prime Minister addresses his audience directly or to make a conclusion of his speech, such as “报告”“提出” in Chinese and “say” “tell” in English which indicate speech process. And it is found that these processes are most maintained in translation to achieve the same function.

(15) ST: 现在, 我代表国务院, 向大会报告政府工作。

TT: On behalf of the State Council, I will now report to you on the work of the government. (ibid)

This sentence appears at the beginning of the report, where the speaker signals to the audience and explains his purpose.

(f). *Existential Process*

Existential process is the process of existing, and in this process, This process is very easy to identify because it is often conveyed by “there be” sentence structure, or has verbs that are typically expressing the concept of coming into being such as “exist” or “become”.

As the data show, existential processes constitute the smallest part of the text in both languages. When the speaker wants to demonstrate country’s present situation the problems they are facing, this process is often applied. The following examples both show the condition of our nation, with one demonstrating severity of COVID-19 in our country, another showing our financial advantages.

(16) ST: 这次新冠肺炎疫情, 是新中国成立以来我国遭遇的传播速度最快、感染范围最广、防控难度最大的公共卫生事件。

TT: The covid-19 epidemic is the fastest spreading, most extensive, and most challenging public health



emergency China has encountered since the founding of the People's Republic.

(17) ST: 我国内需潜力大

TT: The potential of China's domestic demand is enormous.

There are some additions of existential process in the translation as follows, including “there be” structure with English characteristic.

(18) ST: 我国包括零工在内的灵活就业人员数以亿计

TT: There are several hundred million workers

(19) ST: 14 亿中国人的饭碗，我们有能力也务必牢牢端在自己手中。

TT: It is imperative, and it is well within our ability, to ensure the food supply for 1.4 billion Chinese people through our own efforts. (ibid)

### B. Interpersonal Function

When it comes to interpersonal function, language is regarded as the media for language users to establish or maintain social relationships in different ways and deliver certain message at the same time. Speakers express their opinions, assessments and form different relationships with other people, during which the interpersonal function is realized (Hu, 2017). In this section, the way in which interpersonal function is achieved and its realization in the translation will be studied and analyzed.

As mentioned previously, interpersonal function is realized by mood and modality, and modality is the key part which can reveal the language users' willingness and the probability of their saying. Out of the consideration of feasibility, this study will only choose modal operators—one of the elements which constitute modality for study.

According to Halliday's division of modal operators, Hu (2008) made a corresponding distinction of modal operators, which was applied to Chinese GWR (C-GWR) in this study as follows and counted the frequency of their occurrence.

TABLE 2  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF MODAL OPERATORS OF THREE VALUES IN THE SOURCE TEXT

	Modal Operators	Frequency	Ratio (%)	
High	要	89	70.1	76.4
	必须	5	3.9	
	务必	3	2.4	
Median	愿	5	3.9	3.9
Low	能	15	11.8	19.7
	会	10	7.9	
Total		127	100.0	100.0

From Table 2, it is found that the high value operators account for the largest proportion. Modal operators have something to do with the probability of the saying and also reflect the attitude of the language user. As the official document of the nation, GWR summarizes the country's work of past year and makes plans and prospects for the next year and reports it to all the people. It must use formal words with firm attitude to show the audience that effective measures will taken by the government immediately to improve people's livelihood and help all aspects of the country recover from the impact of the epidemic. In this way, people will enhance their confidence and help build a reliable and efficient government image.

In the source text, high value modal operators often appear when referring to the problems which need to be settled and when setting the main targets for development. This shows to the audience the firm attitudes of the government to strictly implement the resolution. There are several examples,

(20) ST: 要努力把疫情造成的损失降到最低，努力完成今年经济社会发展目标任务。

TT: We must redouble our efforts to minimize the losses resulting from the virus

(21) ST: 要多措并举扩消费，适应群众多元化需求。

TT: We will apply a combination of measures to boost consumption

(22) ST: 要大幅提升防控能力，坚决防止疫情反弹，坚决守护人民健康。

TT: We need to greatly enhance our prevention and control capability, resolutely prevent a resurgence of covid-19

This study also made a table of modal operator distribution of E-GWR according to Halliday's division (Hu, 2008).

TABLE 3  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF MODAL OPERATORS OF THREE VALUES IN THE TRANSLATION

	Modal Operators	Frequency	Ratio (%)	
High	Must	27	8.2	14.6
	Need	20	6.1	
	Have to	1	0.3	
Median	Will	247	75.3	78.6
	Should	10	3.0	
	Would	1	0.3	
Low	Can	19	5.8	6.7
	May	3	0.9	
Total		328	100.0	100.0

According to Table 3, we can find that the operators of median value account for the majority, which is different from the distribution of modal operators in the source text.

TABLE 4  
THE SIGNIFICANCE VALUE BETWEEN TWO TEXTS

	High	Median	Low	Total
Chinese	97	5	25	127
English	48	258	22	328
Significance	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000

As Table 4 shows, the discrepancies of modal operators of three values between two texts are all significant. The modal operators in translation are far more than the original text and those of median value account for the largest proportion, which means the translation of modal words isn't word-for-word.

Even without the data, we can find intuitively from the text the frequent use of modal operator "will", which leads to the high percentage of median value and the surge of modal operators in total. This study summarizes two main reasons. One is different Chinese modal operators as "要""会" are all translated into "will" as follows:

(23) ST: 中国致力于加强与各国经贸合作，实现互利共赢。

TT: China will continue to boost economic and trade cooperation with other countries to deliver mutual benefits.

(24) ST: 我们要坚持和完善民族区域自治制度

TT: We will uphold and improve the system of regional ethnic autonomy,

Although the word "要" in the source text is generally translated as "will", there is still a certain discrepancy in between as their different levels of value. The Chinese word "要" expresses determination with a firm tone, while the English modal operator "will" is much weaker. In this sense, more appropriate translations are needed to better convey the exact meaning of the original text.

Another is the addition of subjects in the translation. As Chinese political document always omits the subject to avoid repetition, which does not conform to English grammar, subjects must be added with auxiliary verbs following to produce complete sentences.

(25) ST: 努力稳定现有就业，积极增加新的就业，促进失业人员再就业。

TT: We will strive to keep existing jobs secure, work actively to create new ones, and help unemployed people find work.

(26) ST: 预计全年为企业新增减负超过 2.5 万亿元。

TT: We expect that these measures will see additional savings of more than 2.5 trillion yuan for enterprises throughout the year. (ibid)

We can see from the examples that subjects followed by auxiliary verbs are added in the translation to make complete sentences, which accounts for the high percentage of median value operators and the surge of modal operators in total.

### C. Textual Function

Textual function, as mentioned previously, is the situation in which language has a system to make the text a coherent and unified whole, and is realized by the thematic structure of the clause. Theme and rheme are the two elements that constitute the structure. The former serves as the topic of the sentence, and the latter refers to the content of the topic.

Mona Baker (1992) said, the thematic organization of the texts is especially relevant for the translation studies, which can lead to a more comprehensive awareness of the message the speaker would like to convey, and theme is the most important element as it serves as the start point of the message. Hence, the study will take theme as the subject to study how textual function is realized. And owing to the length of the article and my limited knowledge, this paper focuses on one type of theme—simple theme.

TABLE 5  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF SIMPLE THEME AND MULTIPLE THEME

	Simple Theme		Multiple Theme		Total
	Frequency	Ratio (%)	Frequency	%	Frequency
Chinese	415	96.7	14	3.3	429
English	503	92.5	41	7.5	544
Significance	0.000		0.000		0.000

A simple theme is represented by one word or more than one word that can be deemed as one element, usually by pronoun or nominal group. After some detailed analyses, this study finds that the distribution of simple themes in the source text and its translation share some similarities—in both texts, pronouns serving as simple themes accounts for the largest proportion. As the work report is closely related to the public, the document needs to be illustrated in the first person plural noun “我们” (we) to take the audience into account.

According to the data, we can also find that the discrepancy of the simple theme distribution is significant—the number of simple themes has surged in E-GWR. This is largely due to the structural difference between the two languages. Chinese can put forward a topic with no subject, while English must use the subject at the beginning to make a sentence complete. And in most cases, the first-person pronoun “we” is added to make the translation more consistent with English pragmatic habits. Examples are as follows:

(27) ST: 坚定维护国家主权、安全、发展利益。

TT: We will firmly safeguard China's sovereignty, security, and development interests.

(28) ST: 今年要编制好“十四五”规划

TT: This year, we will formulate the 14th Five-Year Plan

(29) ST: 加强廉洁政府建设，坚决惩治腐败。

TT: We must redouble efforts to build a clean government and crack down on corruption. (ibid)

We can see that in the source texts, due to the language characteristics of Chinese, sentences all begin with verbs with no subjects, which is syntactically incorrect in English. Therefore, subjects must be added in the translation to make complete sentences, which leads to more number of simple themes in E-GWR.

## V. CONCLUSION

By applying Halliday's three meta-functions theory into the study of GWR, this study reaches a more comprehensive and systemic understanding of how the original text convey the message and how they are faithfully represented in the translation, and also conclude some strategies which can be useful to translator and interpreters when translating these kinds of documents.

The first is that Ideational Function is mainly realized by transitivity which includes six processes. (1) As the most frequently used process, Material Process often occurs when the speaker expounds on the achievements the government has made in the previous year and the proposals for the next year. And this process is often applied in the translation for the same effect, but the discrepancy of its distribution is significant due to certain omissions and additions. (2) Relational Process ranks the second which is used to illustrate current situation and is added in the translation in accordance with English semantic use. (3) The discrepancy of Behavioral Process distribution isn't significant, but there are some reductions in E-GWR due to the differences of rhetorical devices between two languages. That leads to the loss of certain message of the original text and may need better consideration. (4) Mental and Verbal Processes serve for certain use both take a similar percentage in C-GWR and E-GWR. (5) Existential Process is rarely found in both texts, but there are a few additions in the translation for English stylistic concerns.

Then comes Interpersonal Function, of which this study explores the modal operators of modality system. It is found that the modal operators in translation are far more than those in the original text, and those of high value account for the most proportion in C-GWR while in E-GWR are those of median value. This study ascribes them to two reasons, one is that different Chinese modal operators are all translated into “will”, another is the addition of subjects followed by auxiliary verbs in the translation.

The last one is Textual Function, of which the simple theme of its thematic structure is studied. It is found that most of simple themes are represented by pronouns in both texts, but the quantity in the translation is larger than that in the original text due to the addition of the first-person pronoun “we” to make it be more consistent with English pragmatic habits.

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# Solving Problems in Reading Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit Loanwords in Thai for Chinese Students at Kasetsart University

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**Abstract**—This research aimed at solving problems in reading Buddhist Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords in Thai of Chinese students who were studying in the Communicative Thai Language for Foreigners Program (CTLF) of Kasetsart University. The objectives of study were; 1) to explore causes of the problems in reading PL-SKT loanwords of third-year Chinese students in the CTLF program; and 2) to explore reading solutions and development. 5 Chinese students were selected for the study by purposive sampling technique from a total of 13 participants in the course ‘Thai Reading II.’ Research tools in the study were: 1) Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading skill exercises, 2) Buddhist PL-SKT loanword cards with short messages; and 3) media for oral reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords. The research results revealed that the causes of the problems were: 1) Chinese students had problems with the pronunciation of PL-SKT words, 2) they lacked reading skills, 3) they had no skill in reading compound PL-SKT loanwords (*samasa*) because they had different basic knowledge of the Thai and PL-SKT languages, and 4) they lacked continuity of practice in reading PL-SKT loanwords. These problems directly affected their Thai reading. As for the study of the solutions, Chinese students had different results in each reading test, but their development in reading improved continually, and finally, they were able to read and spell Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords properly and fluently although it still took some of them a long time to read a text. After three reading tests, they were able to attain a pass in the reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords by obtaining a score of 100% in the final test.

**Index Terms**— problem, reading, Pali, Sanskrit, loanwords

## I. INTRODUCTION

Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (2012) stated that at present classroom research regarding the curriculum and instruction is very important and is necessary because the results of such research will be beneficial to each subject in terms of learning development. In particular, students can be helped through the learning process, and they can achieve efficiency in learning as well.

To be honest, pronunciation of PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language is regarded as difficult and presents problems not only for foreign students like the Chinese students who are studying the course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the Communicative Thai Language for Foreigners Program (CTLF Program), Kasetsart University, but also for Thai students.

The Thai words to be learned in a course like Thai Reading II include a lot of loanwords derived from Pali and Sanskrit. Generally, the Chinese students in the program are very poor in reading and spelling PL-SKT loanwords, and this also causes inefficiency in reading in courses conducted in the Thai language in various disciplines because these contain a lot of PL-SKT loanword, for the Thai language has borrowed Pali and Sanskrit words and employs them extensively in everyday life. With respect to this point, Thongprasert (1977, p.37) stated that if one opens one of the dictionaries of the Royal Institute, one will find that Pali and Sanskrit loanwords make up more than half of the words in the volume. Thus, it can be said that the Pali and Sanskrit languages have undoubtedly had a tremendous influence on the Thai language.

In the light of what is mentioned above, there seems to be a similarity to the observations of Sarapadnuke (1974) and Hugh (2009), who remarked that the languages with the most impact on Thai, especially the roots of Thai words, are the Indian languages of Pali and Sanskrit. Although both are “dead” languages, similar to Latin, you can still hear Pali spoken daily as it is the language of the Buddhist scriptures and chants. All men who join the monkhood must learn some Pali in order to take part in the Buddhist chanting and rituals. Hugh (2009) stated that that is not so different from the time when all Roman Catholic Masses were held in Latin.

Generally, the Chinese students had problems reading words syllable by syllable, spelling words, forming *samasa* (compound word) and reading Thai words formed from Pali and Sanskrit words containing sibilant consonants.

Pimpuang (2019) remarked that when students learn the Thai language, one important thing is to understand elements of culture significant in the context of Thai society such as Buddhism and politics.

Buddhism and Buddhist culture play very important roles in Thailand because most of the population follow Buddhism. There are many borrowed words used in the Buddhist culture. If the Chinese students understand a word's original meaning, this can help them understand the real meaning and read the word properly. Not only this, the Chinese students will also realize the importance of the aesthetics of Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai that is brought out in prose and poetry. Especially, the Pali and Sanskrit term will make poetry melodious, beautiful and meaningful in use (Pimpuang, 2016).

With respect to Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit words, Ngamchitcharoen (2018, p.8) stated that the large number of words in the Thai language are borrowed from Pali-Sanskrit, some are technical terms in the Buddhist doctrines. When used in Thai, the meanings of some of these words have changed or shifted from the original Buddhist terms, often resulting in confusion or misunderstandings of the Buddhist doctrines among Thai people. For example, the word "Karma" or "Kamma" in the Thai language refers mainly to unwholesome actions and their effects, whereas originally, according to Buddhist doctrines, the word refers to both wholesome and unwholesome actions, and not at all to the effects of unwholesome actions alone. In a similar way, the word "Ahosikarma" or "Ahosikamma" in Thai refers to forgiveness, while its original meaning in Buddhist terms is karma that has no chance of producing effect, without any sense of forgiveness whatsoever. It is essential, then, that Thai Buddhists seek to understand Buddhist doctrines and their terms, and be attentive in distinguishing the Thai meaning from the Buddhist meanings of these words.

Furthermore, Prapandvidya (2005, p.529) stated, concerning the Buddhist term of Saddanta in Sanskrit and Chaddanta in Pali, that the word Saddanta in Buddhist Sanskrit texts is the elephant with six tusks whereas in the Pali canon, the elephant is called Chaddanta. The phonological change from Saddanta to Chaddanta is obvious. Saddanta or Chaddanta is one of the Jataka stories (stories about the previous lives of the Gautama Buddha) in which he was born as an elephant. In Sanskrit, the word is a compound word comprising 'Sat' meaning 'six' and 'Danta' meaning 'tusk.' Contrarily, in Pali the commentator gives the meaning of the word Chaddanta as the elephant whose tusks are six colours.

Many scholars have explained how to read Pali and Sanskrit loanwords to help in learning Thai. For example, the Academic Committee of Thai Language for Communication (2012, p.59) gave the following guidelines for pronouncing Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in the Thai language.

1) Words may be read syllable by syllable, for example, กรณิ [ka-rá-nii] meaning activity or obligation ธนบัตร [tha-na-bàt] meaning banknote.

2) In the case of words having final consonants, it was not permissible to insert 'a' after the final consonant, for example: ปรัชญา [prát-yaa] meaning philosophy and วิถาวร [wít-thään] meaning to be eccentric etc.

3) However, in the case of the final consonants ล 'l', and ศ ษ ส 's', it is permissible to insert 'a', for example; กัลปก [kan-la-bòk] meaning barber and สัสดี [sàt-sa-dii] meaning military recruiting officer although there are some exceptions such as สวัสดิ์ [sa-wàt-dii] meaning security, อธิษฐาน [ʔa-thít-thään] meaning vow.

Furthermore, the Academic Committee of Thai Language for Communication (2012, p.61) stated that the reading of the letter ฤ 'r' in the Thai language is especially difficult for foreigners. For example;

1) The letter ฤ 'r' can be pronounced with the sound เรอ [rəə] as in ฤกษ์ [rəək] meaning auspicious time.

2) However, ฤ 'r' can be pronounced ริ [rí] in the case of its being placed behind one of the following consonants: ก [k] ต [t] ท [th] ป [p] ศ [s] ส [s], as in ตฤณมัย [trin-na-may] meaning turf. Nevertheless, it can be read ริ [rí] when ฤ is placed in front of other consonants such as in ฤทธิ [rít] meaning power.

3) Furthermore, ฤ 'r' can be pronounced รี่ [rú] in case of its being placed behind the following consonants: ค [kh] น [n] พ [ph] ม [m] ท [th] such as in คฤหาสน์ [kha-rú-hàat] meaning mansion, พฤหัสบดี [phrú-hàt-sa-bòw-dii] meaning Thursday. However, it can be read รี่ [rú] when it is placed in front of other consonants such as ฤทัย [rú-thay] meaning heart.

Pimpuang (2008) stated that when Thai people borrowed PL-SKT words to use in Thai language, it also has an impact on Thai reading. There are two categories of Thai word reading along with the impact of Pali and Sanskrit reading styles toward Thai reading namely, reading as compound word and oral reading as sibilant consonants.

Likewise, Makjaeng (1983) and Pimpuang (2014) also stated that there are two categories of Thai word reading along with the impact of Pali and Sanskrit reading styles toward Thai reading. They are: 1. Reading as *Samasa* and 2. Oral Reading as Sibilant Consonants.

1) Reading as *Samasa* (PL-SKT Compound Word)

*Samasa*, or compound word reading, is the Pali and Sanskrit reading style in which 'a' is pronounced after the final consonant of the initial word compounded with other words. For example, the word 'กิจกรรม' can be read as *Samasa* as kit-ca-kam meaning activity. In this case, the final consonant of the initial word is 'จ-' 'c-' is pronounced 'ca' when read. After that, the other sounds of the word are pronounced.

This Pali and Sanskrit influence on the Thai language caused Thai to develop a reading style like that of Pali and Sanskrit. Thus, real Thai words were pronounced as *Samasa* by pronouncing 'a' after the final consonant of the initial

word compounded with other words, even if they were not *Samasa* words at all. Examples of this are คุณค่า read khun-na-khâa (Worth), พลเมือง read phon-la-muan (Population), and อลวน read ʔon-la-won (Confused).

## 2) Thai Word Reading as Sibilant Consonants due to Pali and Sanskrit Influence

The oral reading as sibilant consonant involved the Pali and Sanskrit loanwords that contained these sibilant consonants (*ūṣman*) namely,

śa (श) sounded at the roof of the mouth position at the palatal place.

ṣa (ष) sounded at the roof of the mouth position with the tongue retroflexed.

sa (स) sounded at the roof of the mouth position at the dental place.

It can be remarked that although the three consonants have different places of articulation, they are all sibilant sounds effected by the tongue and teeth in pronouncing even if the sibilant consonant letter is placed at the end or final position of the syllable concerned.

After Pali and Sanskrit language entered Thailand and impacted Thai language use for a long time, Thai words have been influenced by this Pali and Sanskrit word reading. It can be observed that these are sibilant consonants. When properly pronounced, each is clearly distinguishable. More importantly, the three consonants cause the pronunciation of /s/ at the end of syllable as sibilant in Pali and Sanskrit loanword. Especially, reading of Pali and Sanskrit loanword in Thai is directly influenced by Pali and Sanskrit reading. Thus, Pali and Sanskrit loanword in Thai is pronounced as a Pali and Sanskrit word. For example, พิศวาส read phít-sa-wàat (Love), พินธุโลก read phít-sa-nu-lôok (World of Vishnu), and ดุษฎี read dût-sa-dii (Pleasure).

Due to the Pali and Sanskrit loanword reading or pronunciation in Thai and the influence of Pali and Sanskrit language in Thai words that was as mentioned above, it can be stated that there seems to be a lot of confusion about Pali and Sanskrit loanword reading or pronunciation for the Chinese students, and they sometimes make mistakes in reading Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai as well. Therefore, to solve the reading problem of the Chinese students in course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the CTLF program, Kasetsart University, promptly and effectively, the researchers decided to do specific class research with the objective of finding a solution to the problems the Chinese students encounter in reading Buddhist Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### PL-SKT Word Formation and Use in Thai Language

Pimpuang (2008, p.8) said that it is realized that most of the population of Thailand follows one of two sects of Buddhism: Theravada Buddhism and Mahayana Buddhism. Especially, doctrines of the Lord Buddha were generally recorded through PL-SKT terms (Theravada Buddhism uses PL, while Mahayana Buddhism uses SKT). In Thailand, people study the doctrines of Buddhism through PL-SKT, and as a result, it has entered and still influences the Thai language. The four categories of PL-SKT word formation are as follows:

2.1 Primary Derivatives (*Kitaka*) are formed from roots by addition of certain suffixes, which are known by the name of Kita (*Kitapaccaya*), for example, นายก /na:yók/ meaning leader, Prime Minister.

2.2 Secondary Derivatives (*Taddhita*) are new words, which are derived not directly from roots, but from another word stem i.e. substantives or primary derivatives by the addition of the certain suffixes (Taddhita Suffixes), for example, รัฐ /rátthà/ meaning state + มন্ত্রী /montri:/ meaning councillor = รัฐมนตรี /rátthàmontri:/ meaning Minister etc.

2.3 Compounds (*Samasa*) are a group of two or more words joined together of which the last word is regarded as the principal member (of the compound), in such a way that only the last one is declined while the others are in their stem form, for example; ประชา /pràcha:/ meaning people + นิยม /níyom/ meaning popular = ประชานิยม /pràcha: níyom/ meaning populism.

2.4 Prefixes (*Upasagga*) are drawn from among 20 common prefixes derived from PL-SKT that are put in front of roots or words, for example, นิร /nirá/ meaning without + โทษ /thô:t/ meaning punishment + กรรม /kam/ meaning action = นิรโทษกรรม /niráthô:t sàkam/ meaning amnesty.

It can be said that there are four categories of PL-SKT word formation, and the four categories are regarded as a significant language strategy that is employed not only in PL-SKT, but also in the Thai language. Furthermore, this language strategy is also employed by the Royal Institute of Thailand in order to prescribe the essential regulations for coining new words for communicating in Thai society.

### Compound Word Reading through Pali and Sanskrit's Approach

Vajirañāṇavarorasa (1995) stated that the compound word, or *Samasa*, is a grammatical strategy of the Pali language. A compound word, or *Samasa*, is a group of two or more words compounded together, and the last word is regarded as the principal member of the compound word, in such a way that only the last one is declined while the others are in their stem form.

Furthermore, Upakitsilapasan (1992, p.50) also stated that Thai words can be read directly and easily, but those words that have several options and variant readings are mostly derived from Pali and Sanskrit words.

In Pali and Sanskrit loanwords, a consonant letter written with no ‘a’ vowel form is read with the vowel /a/. It is similar to the ‘leading consonant’ in the Thai language. Reader must give much more observation on the root of Pali and Sanskrit word or its original term. If the root of Pali and Sanskrit word or its original term is the ‘spelling consonant,’ so its reading pronunciation should be a ‘leading consonant’ reading such as ‘สวัสดี’ word with reading [sa-wàt-dii]. Especially, this word was not allowed to read [sa-wàt- sa-dii], but the reading pronunciation of other original terms must be done through reading by syllable such as ‘พลี’ read [phá-lii] not [phlii]. However, some words are not read like this according to this principle (Upakitsilapasan, 1992, p.50-53). For example:

READINGS OF PL-SKT LOANWORDS IN THAI

PL-SKT Loanword in Thai	Reading of Principle	Reading of Thai Style
เทศนา	thee-sa-naa or thêet-sa-naa	เทศ-สนา thêet-sa-nāa meaning ‘preach’
ศาสนา	sāa-sa-naa or sāt-sa-naa	สาต-สนา sāt-sa-nāa meaning ‘religion’
ศักราช	sāk-ka-raa-chá or sāk-ka-rāat	ศักระ-หราช sāk-ka-rāat meaning ‘era’
ไศล	sāy-lá	สะ-ไหล sa-lāy meaning ‘stone’
ประโยชน์	pra-yōot	ประ-โยด pra-yōot meaning ‘benefit’

To help readers read Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai, Pimpuang (2007) also remarked that those Thai readers who wish to read Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in the Thai language should make careful observation and consideration of the original Pali and Sanskrit term. After they have identified, considered, and recognized the root of the term, they can then read the Pali and Sanskrit term properly in accord with its original root.

The considerations specified above suit those readers who have good knowledge of Pali and Sanskrit. However, they cannot be applied by ordinary people who do not know the root or original term of the Pali and Sanskrit loanword. Thus, reading of these loanwords must necessarily depend on familiarity with the language as a native speaker. It does not come from learning Thai as a foreign language.

Not only this, Kanchanawan (2008) obviously stated that the reading pronunciation according to the ‘reading principle’ must be done as the Pali and Sanskrit word as explained already, and such the reading pronunciation of Pali and Sanskrit word is different from the reading pronunciation of Thai word, because the reading pronunciation of Thai word will be done according to the principle of Thai reading obviously. In reading Pali and Sanskrit loanword in the Thai language, the vowel ‘a’ may not be inserted between consonants. However, the vowel ‘a’ will be added at the end of the initial word in order to connect the sound in reading for the whole word. Some examples are ราชการ [râat-cha-kaan] meaning ‘government’ and ราชบัณฑิต [râat-cha-ban-dit] meaning ‘fellow.’ This is different from the reading of real Thai words in compounds such as น้องชาย [nōng-chaay] meaning younger brother: no ‘a’ may be inserted between the components of the compound.

#### There are Two Options in Reading Pali and Sanskrit Loanwords in Thai

Kanchanawan (2008) stated that the problem of Pali and Sanskrit loanword is very complicated, especially because the reading of Pali and Sanskrit words can be divided into two categories, namely, 1) reading according to the principle in the original language called ‘standard reading,’ and 2) reading according to the most popular reading called ‘popular reading.’ In Thai class, the instructor will teach students how to read the Pali and Sanskrit loanwords according to the standard reading. At the same time, it will not be regarded as a mistake if a reader reads a word according to the popular reading style. For example, the two categories of reading of the Pali and Sanskrit loanword คมนาคม meaning ‘transport’ are kha-ma-naa-khom (Principle) or khom-ma-naa-khom (Popular) etc. So, it can conclusively be remarked that the reading of most Pali and Sanskrit loanwords can be divided into two categories, namely, ‘principle’ and ‘popular.’

Not only this, there seem to be another reading style depending upon the meaning and reading rhythm. It can be said that after Thai people borrowed Pali and Sanskrit loanword and employed them in their language, they have adapted those loanwords to their own Thai reading rhythm. For example, the word ‘Petchaburi’ should be read by syllable as ‘phét-cha-bu-rii’ whereas it is also read ‘phét-bu-rii’ according to the reading rhythm of the Thai language.

With respect to the reading style as depicted in the academic book entitled ‘*An Yang Rai Leah Kien Yang Rai*’ composed by the Royal Institute, Thailand, the two strategies of Thai word reading called reading according to principle and the popular reading are same as the reading style as mentioned earlier (Royal Institute, 1993).

The review of the literature above was the beneficial to the researchers enabling them to consider the detailed information and then devise a conceptual framework, and then conduct of this study on solving the reading problems arising from Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai for the Chinese students at Kasetsart University.

### III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Population and Sampling in the Research



### Population

The total population for this study consisted of 13 foreign students enrolled in the course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the second semester of academic year 2021. They were third-year Chinese students in the Communicative Thai Language for Foreigners Program (CTLF), Kasetsart University

### Sampling

Among the third-year Chinese students in the Communicative Thai Language for Foreigners Program (CTLF) at Kasetsart University, 5 students were selected by purposive sampling technique according to certain goals and criteria.

### Methodology

1. Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading exercises were prepared using several techniques which were suitable for the Chinese students.

2. Evaluations of the progress of the students in reading Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords were prepared.

3. Tests of Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading were prepared.

4. Data regarding the progress in Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading of the Chinese students were recorded continually.

5. Findings were written. Conclusions were drawn, and the research results were presented.

### Data Collection and Analysis

The researchers collected data through three Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading skill exercises and Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading tests. The researchers compared the dissimilarities in the marks that each Chinese student obtained in each reading test.

## IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

The research results regarding the study about solving the problem with reading Buddhist Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords in Thai for the Chinese students who were studying in the course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the CTLF program, Kasetsart University were as follows.

### Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set I)

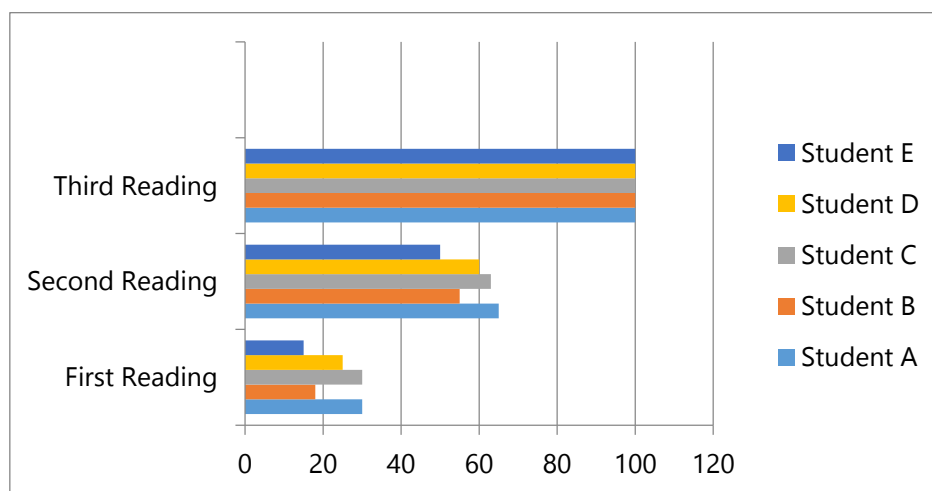


Figure 1: Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set I)

The chart given above which displays the results of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords reading exercise (Set I) can be explained follows:

#### Student A

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set I), Chinese student A was able to read 30% of the words correctly in the first test, then 65% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student A was able to pass the standard.

#### 2. Student B

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set I), Chinese student B was able to read 18% of the words correctly in the first test, then 55% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student B was able to pass the standard.

#### 3. Student C

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set I), Chinese student C was able to read 30% of the words correctly in the first test, then 63% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student C was able to pass the standard.

#### 4. Student D

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set I), Chinese student D was able to read 25% of the words correctly in the first test, then 60% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student D was able to pass the standard.

#### 5. Student E

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set I), Chinese student E was able to read 15% of the words correctly in the first test, then 50% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student E was able to pass the standard.

#### Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set II)

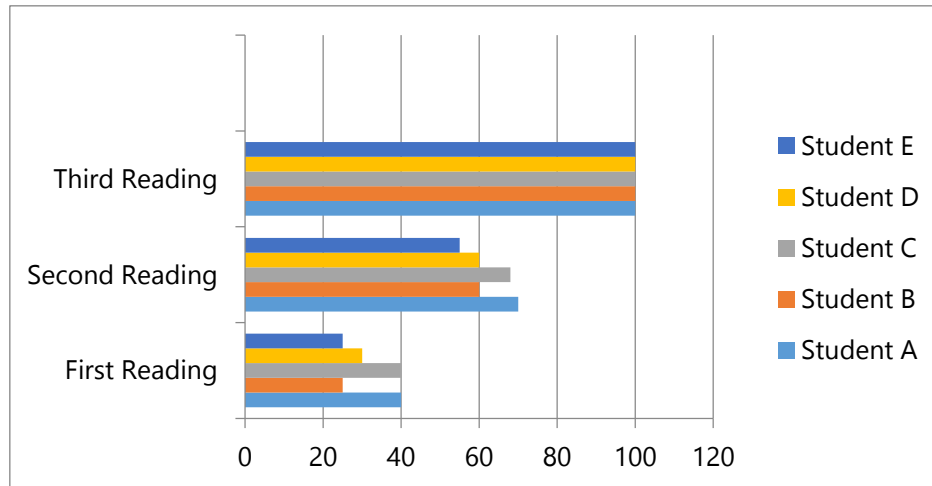


Figure 2: Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set II)

The chart above which displays the results of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords reading exercise (Set II) can be explained as follows:

#### 1. Student A

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set II), Chinese student A was able to read 40% of the words correctly in the first test, then 70% correctly in the second test, and 100% in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student A was able to pass the standard.

#### 2. Student B

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set II), Chinese student B was able to read 25% of the words correctly in the first test, then 60% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student B was able to pass the standard.

#### 3. Student C

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set II), Chinese student C was able to read 40% of the words correctly in the first test, then 68% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student C was able to pass the standard.

#### 4. Student D

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set II), Chinese student D was able to read 30% of the words correctly in the first test, then 60% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student D was able to pass the standard.

#### 5. Student E

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set II), Chinese student E was able to read 25% of the words correctly in the first test, then 55% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student E was able to pass the standard.

#### Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set III)

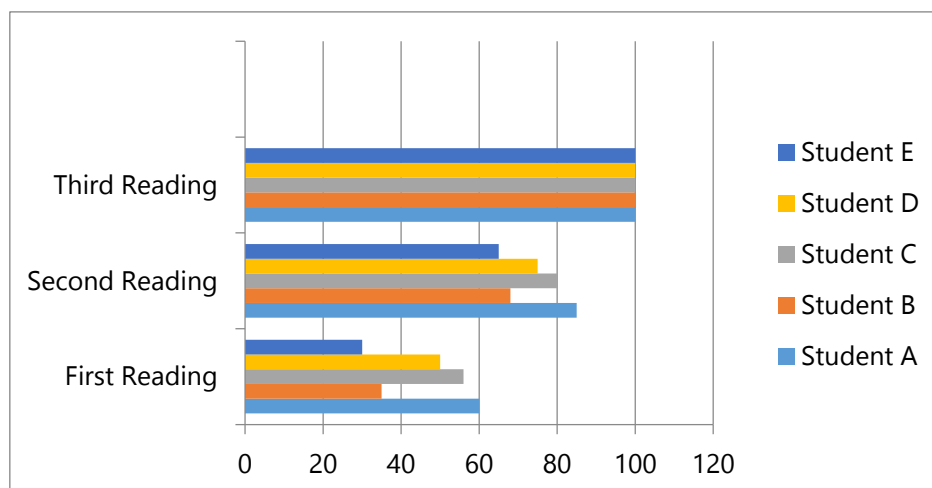


Figure 3: Results of Buddhist PL-SKT Loanwords Reading Exercise (Set III)

The chart above which presents the results of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords reading exercise (Set III) can be explained as follows:

1. Student A

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set III), Chinese student A was able to read 60% of the words correctly in the first test, then 85% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student A was able to pass the standard.

2. Student B

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set III), Chinese student B was able to read 35% of the words in the first test, then 85% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student B was able to pass the standard.

3. Student C

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set III), Chinese student C was able to read 56% of the words correctly in the first test, then 80% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student C was able to pass the standard.

4. Student D

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set III), Chinese student D was able to read 50% of the words in the first test, then 75% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student D was able to pass the standard.

5. Student E

After practicing reading of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords (Set III), Chinese student E was able to read 30% of the words correctly in the first test, 65% correctly in the second test, and 100% correctly in the third test. After the three tests, Chinese student E was able to pass the standard.

## V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

From all the foregoing contents and research results, a detailed conclusion on the understanding of the significant contents about solving of the problem of reading Buddhist Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords in Thai by the Chinese students who study in the course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the CTLF program at Kasetsart University will be drawn. Finally in this conclusion, the discussion will also be given to apprehend the topic concerned in brief. According to the results of research as given above, the discussion can be given through the table concerned as follows:

No.	Student's Name	Reading Skill Exercise (Set I)	Reading Skill Exercise (Set II)	Reading Skill Exercise (Set III)
1.	Student A	As a result, Chinese student A could read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell some words, but not many in the reading skill exercise (Set I).	Then, Chinese student A could read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spelled more words correctly than the first time. It was found that in the reading skill exercise (Set II), the Chinese student had obvious reading development continually.	Finally, Chinese student A was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell words properly. The student was observed to have deftness in reading in this reading skill exercise (Set III). This student A also received motivation for reading development through the encouragement provided by the classroom instructor.
2.	Student B	As a result, the Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanword reading and spelling of Chinese student B in the reading skill exercise (Set I) was not good enough due to the lack of reading skills of Chinese student B.	In the reading skill exercise (Set II), Chinese student B was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell more words than the first time. However, this Chinese student took more time through continuity of practice and emphasis given by the classroom instructor.	Finally, in the reading skill exercise (Set III) Chinese student B was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell more words than the second time with fair deftness in reading properly. As observed generally, this student B used more time in reading and had to be motivated through continually giving encouragement.
3.	Student C	Chinese student C was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell few words due to lack of reading skill as generally observed in the reading skill exercise (Set I).	Since then in the reading skill exercise (Set II), Chinese student C was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai. This student C was observed to be able to spell more words with continual development and practice in reading.	Finally, Chinese student C was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spells words properly with more deftness in the reading skill exercise (Set III). However, the student had to be continually motivated and encouraged mostly by the classroom instructor.
4.	Student D	As a result in the reading skill exercise (Set I), it was found that Chinese student D was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell few words due to lack of reading skill as other Chinese students in the Thai Reading II class.	Later, Chinese student D was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell more words in the reading skill exercise (Set II) mostly. However, the student, truly speaking, spent more time in practice, and the continuity of practice was obvious.	Finally, it was found clearly that a student D was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell words with deftness properly after passing the reading skill exercise (Set III). However, it is important to state that the student must be motivated and continually provided encouragement by the classroom instructor.
5.	Student E	As a results, Chinese student E was very much like other Chinese students in the Thai Reading II class because student E was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell few words due to lack of reading skill after passing the reading skill exercise (Set I).	In the reading skill exercise (Set II), student E was able to read Buddhist Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai and spell more words, but thus took the student used a lot of time and required very much continuity of practice.	Finally, in the reading skill exercise (Set III), student E was able to read and spell Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in Thai properly and clearly and with more deftness. In particular, the student took a long time in practice. The classroom instructor had to take care and motivate student to practice continually.

Thus, according to what has been specified above, it can be concluded that the important causes that made the third-year Chinese students, who were studying in the course number 01363132 Thai Reading II in the CTLF program poor in reading Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language were as follows: 1) Chinese students had problems with the pronunciation of PL-SKT words, 2) they lacked reading skill, 3) they had no skill in forming PL-SKT compound loanwords (*Samasa*) because they had different basic knowledge of Thai and PL-SKT languages, and 4) they lacked continuity in the practice of reading PL-SKT loanwords.

However, having received guidance from the classroom instructor on the way to read Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords and continuity in the practice of reading Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords by using the method of personal Buddhist PL-SKT loanword reading skill exercises, the third-year Chinese students who were poor in reading and spelling of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords were better able to develop in reading continually till they developed themselves and were able to read and understand the meanings of Buddhist PL-SKT loanwords in the CTLF program properly. It can also be observed that they had the positive attitude towards learning Pali and Sanskrit loanwords in the Thai language after they practiced through this lesson activity. This point seems to be similar to the research of Pimpuang (2014), who found that Thai students had a good attitude toward learning Pali and Sanskrit loanwords after their instructor provided activities to help them understand the words well.

Especially, one important thing for learning is the atmosphere of learning management in the class. It can stimulate the students, and help them learn the lessons happily. This point is similar to the view of Darasawang (2002) who obviously said that the atmosphere of learning class is very important in order to help students understand the lesson well, especially the learning of difficult lesson can be helped by providing suitable learning activities.

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# Appraisal Resources and National Image: A Case Study on Chinese Foreign Ministry Spokespersons' Responses About COVID-19

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**Abstract**—The national image of a country is becoming increasingly important as the soft power of a country, which can be realised by diplomacy and various types of diplomatic discourses. Therefore, this study attempts to analyse, via the responses of Chinese Foreign Ministry Spokespersons to questions about COVID-19, how national images are constructed. It adopts the Appraisal Theory proposed by Martin and White and focuses on one of its systems: attitude. Attitude resources are evaluative languages that express feelings, opinions and judgements which are quite contributive to the building of a national image and they are very abundant in the the foreign spokespersons' responses. This study uses Atlas.ti as the tool to collect and code appraisal resources in order to observe the overall features of attitude, including word frequency and collocation. Together with this tool, the Critical Discourse Analysis approach is also used to analyse the meaning of attitude resources as well as the political and diplomatic contexts. The study finds that different attitude resources can contribute to the formation of different components of national images according to specific political events or international relationships, and this gives more insights into the construction of China's national image during the pandemic.

**Index Terms**—discourse analysis, diplomatic languages, national image, appraisal resources, COVID-19

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since COVID-19 broke out in Wuhan, China, the world has been filled with a series of conflicts in and between countries in terms of social systems, ideologies, development patterns, and race and religion issues. As the first country to carry out the dramatic reversal of lockdowns and the reopening of the country, China was at the receiving end of various global opinions which either spoke highly of its efficient strategy for preventing an epidemic or accused it of disinformation and misbehaviour. All these comments and opinions were often mentioned and asked during the regular press conferences held by the Foreign Ministry of China. In responding to these questions from both domestic and foreign media, the Chinese Foreign Ministry spokespersons made many statements and comments to brief the media on the situation, to clarify China's stances and attitudes, and to refute unfounded accusations in order to protect China's national image. A national image is closely associated with diplomacy and international relations because it can be realised by means of diplomatic discourses such as diplomatic speeches, statements and remarks (Zhang & Meadows, 2012). As Hasan (2009) pointed out, image is the semantic consequence of recurrent linguistic choices which are not accidental and have recurrent patterns in the selection of meanings. Thus, the way a country's spokespersons respond and the language they choose are crucial for constructing the image of a nation and it is worthy of more systematic study.

In order to analyse this kind of linguistic choices, this study applied the Appraisal Theory (AT) proposed by Martine and White (2005) which introduces our own judgements and desires and our own angle on the situation (Halliday, 2009). Appraisal resources are the "semantic resources used to negotiate emotions, judgements and evaluations, alongside resources for amplifying and engaging with these evaluations" (Martin, 2000, p.145). The choice of appraisal resources determines the stance or voice of the writer or speaker (Si, 2018). Therefore, it is expected that the features of appraisal resources could reflect the linguistic choices that help to build a national image. Although there are previous studies that discussed the relationship between language and national image, most of them simply generalised national image by using discourse analysis based on word frequency and seldom focused on specific linguistic features (Wang, 2003; Yu & Wu,

2018; Wang, 2020). In contrast, this study attempts to provide a new perspective of Appraisal which is more systematic and focused on the analysis of the linguistic resources relevant to national image, including spokespersons' stances, opinions and attitudes. This study hopes to provide answers to the following questions: (1) What are the features of appraisal resources of spokespersons' responses about COVID-19? (2) How can appraisal resources help to construct a national image?

## II. NATIONAL IMAGE

Many scholars have proposed various definitions for national image. Boulding (1969, p.120) first defined national image as "the total cognitive, affective and evaluative structure of the behavior unit, or its internal view of itself and its universe". Kunczik (2000, p.9) saw it as "the cognitive representation that a person holds of a given country, what a person believes to be true about a nation and its people." Guan (2021) believed that national image is the general evaluation and recognition of the country itself, its behaviour, its activities and its achievements by the external and internal public of the country. Similar terms such as national reputation, national branding and national prestige have also been mentioned in other studies.

It can be concluded that national image is an overall evaluation of a country that is shaped by itself and other countries in the international systems, which can be affected by many different factors such as its economy, politics, culture and education level. An evaluation of this kind can be reached by viewing the factors from different aspects. Several previous studies have discussed a number of these aspects, including foreign policy such as public relations, campaign or foreign publicity (Wang, 2003; Hartig, 2016), international events such as the Olympics or the World Expo (Chen, 2012), cultural topics such as movies, fashion and food (Kinsey & Chung, 2013; Iwabuchi, 2015) or even a company or a product's brand (Anholt, 2007). However, in this study, a national image is regarded as a semantic consequence as mentioned earlier and is discussed from a linguistic perspective through diplomatic discourse.

Several previous studies have discussed the use of language, especially in media reports and political speeches, to construct China's national image. Wang (2003) collected relevant articles from *Beijing Review* and government working reports that were dated between the years 1958 and 2002 which had mentioned China's foreign affairs, and generalised some national images that included "a peace-loving country, victim of foreign aggression, socialist country, bastion of revolution, anti-hegemonic force, developing country, major power, international cooperator, and autonomous actor." Moreover, Wang (2020) analysed the responses of China's foreign ministry spokesperson of 2019 and summarised China's national image as a major developing country which is peace-loving, confident, responsible, independent and democratic. In addition, Guan (2021) collected and discussed the tweets posted by the Chinese embassy in the United States between July 2019 and October 2020, and also generalised some images of China. These generalised images included the defender of state sovereignty and safety, the vindicator of international fairness and justice as well as the promoter of international cooperation and development. As can be seen, the components used to construct China's national image were consistently applied with certain core elements emphasised inside, such as peace-loving, major power and independent. Moreover, new components were added to China's national image according to the different periods and specific foreign affairs issues which had arisen during that time. For example, in Wang's (2003) study, between 1958 and 2002, there was an emphasis on China as a socialist country. This is because the period covers the first decade after the establishment of China, and it also covers the Cold War which lasted from 1947 to 1991. However, in 2019, due to interference from the U.S. and other western countries on sovereignty issues regarding Hong Kong and Xinjiang (these countries criticised the issue of human rights and supported the separatists in the two areas), China constructed its national image to emphasise its desire to be seen as being democratic and as the defender of state sovereignty (Wang, 2020; Guan, 2021). This study therefore attempts to find what national image China had aimed at constructing during the special circumstances and period of the COVID-19 pandemic, by using its regular press conferences.

Previous studies which discussed the issue of national image largely depended on the aspects of language frequency and collocation and tried to generalise the term via the high-frequency words used. However, some high-frequency words are not relevant to national image. In addition, there is a limitation in the analysis of context. In this regard, this paper focuses on appraisal resources which are the linguistic choices closely related to the evaluation of a country. It also analyses the political and diplomatic contexts so that the national image can be better explained and understood.

## III. ATTITUDE IN APPRAISAL THEORY

This study adopts the Appraisal Theory (AT) as the framework. AT was established and developed on the basis of Systemic Functional Linguistics. Halliday (1973) mentioned that language is a resource to render ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning in communication, also referred to as the three meta-functions. Appraisal refers to the interpersonal meaning in language, which in turn refers to the way of interacting with others (Halliday, 2009). There are three systems of appraisal: attitude, engagement and graduation. Attitude refers to the semantic resources that express our feelings, judgements and evaluations of things or behaviours. Engagement focuses on the speakers' commitment and the play of voices in the expressing of opinions, while graduation refers to the semantic resources that grade attitude, which can amplify or blur feelings. This study mainly focuses on the attitude system because it contains a large number of linguistic



resources that can most directly shape the national image. The attitude system is applied for the identification and classification of appraisal resources.

Attitude is divided into three categories – affect, judgement and appreciation – which can either be positive or negative. First, affect refers to our positive or negative feelings, which can be related to participants, processes and modal adjuncts. Martin and White (2005) grouped three major sets of affect emotions—un/happiness, in/security and dis/satisfaction. Examples of the three sets are: (1) She was sad/happy (un/happiness); (2) She was anxious/confident (in/security); and (3) She felt bored/impressed (dis/satisfaction). Besides, dis/inclination is another subcategory of affect, which could implicate a trigger of emotion, such as a request or a longing for something. Second, judgement refers to our attitude to people and the way people behave, and it can be divided into social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem refers to normality (how unusual), capacity (how capable) and tenacity (how resolute), while social sanction refers to veracity (how truthful) and propriety (how ethical) (Martin & White, 2005). An example of social esteem is “He is clever” (capacity-positive), and an example of social sanction is “They are selfish” (propriety-negative). Third and last, appreciation concerns our performance or evaluation of things as well as with natural phenomena. There are three types of appreciation: reaction, composition and valuation (Martin & White, 2005). Reaction refers to the impact and quality of things. Composition involves balance and complexity, while valuation is related to the question “Was it worthwhile?”. Examples of these three types are: (1) The scenery is beautiful (reaction-positive); (2) Their words were unclear (composition-negative); and (3) Our effort is significant (valuation-positive). The categorisation of the attitude resources is illustrated in Figure 1 and that was the framework used in this study during data collection and processing as well as for data analysis.

According to the definition and content of attitude, attitude resources can be inferred to be closely related to the linguistic choices one makes to reflect a national image. This is because attitude resources can be used to express the feelings or political positions of a country regarding specific diplomatic events or speeches. They can also be used to evaluate the country’s behaviour and performance as well as those of other nations’. The linguistic markers of attitude include, but are not limited to, adjectives, nouns, verbs and relevant phrases. However, not every attitude resource can be recognised by linguistic markers because there are inscribed and invoked attitudes (Martine & White, 2005). An inscribed attitude can be recognised by linguistic markers directly. On the other hand, an invoked attitude is not observed by any particular attitude markers but is realised by using a combination of various lexis or expressions, and it can only be analysed according to the context (Ross & Caldwell, 2020). It is indirectly expressed and more difficult to analyse (Munday, 2012). The definition of ‘invoked attitude’ is quite helpful for the identification of attitude resources, especially when attitude is implicitly expressed without certain linguistic markers.

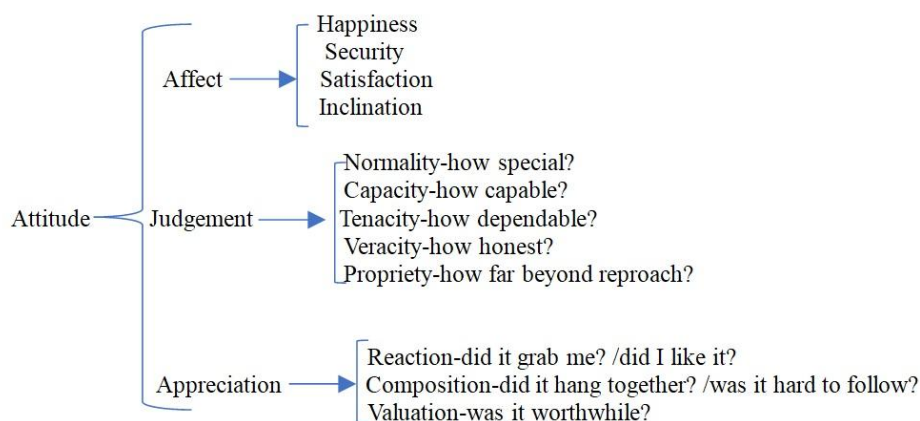


Figure 1. Attitude System Based on Martin & White (2005)

#### IV. METHODOLOGY

This study applied the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach (Fairclough, 1988) to analyse the attitude resources of Chinese foreign ministry spokespersons’ responses because CDA provides methods for the study of relations between discourse and social practice in different social domains (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002). According to Fairclough (2000), CDA is carried out in three stages: description, interpretation and explanation. Description refers to the analysis of textual elements of texts. Interpretation is the processing analysis that deals with text production and text understanding, while explanation refers to the social analysis which is concerned with the influence of social structure on discourses and the reproductive effects of discourses on those structures. Therefore, this study first carried out the text analysis of the identification of attitude resources, then the processing analysis of understanding the meaning of attitude resources in the context, and finally the social analysis of the effects on national image.

##### A. Data Collection



China's Ministry of Foreign Affairs regularly holds a press conference on every working day. Only one spokesperson hosts the daily press conference every time and answers questions about foreign affairs asked by both domestic and foreign media personnel. Foreign affairs spokespersons are people who speak for their own countries. They are usually in charge of declaring diplomatic policies and explaining diplomatic events and situations. Guided by certain diplomatic principles, spokespersons present the national interests and the diplomatic stances taken when they speak, instead of expressing personal opinions or feelings. Although there are three foreign ministry spokespersons who represent China, data was collected from all of them since the foci of their responses in this study are the shared stances and diplomatic purposes embodied in their choice of language, and not their personal ideas or speech styles.

The entire month of May 2020 was chosen by this study as the time period during which data collection was conducted at all the regular press conferences held in that month. This was because in early 2020, China had closed its borders in an effort to curb the spread of the COVID-19 virus, and it only reopened its borders in late April 2020 when the pandemic was controlled. However, after late April 2020, the global pandemic situation became increasingly more serious. Thus, in May 2020, many questions were asked by both domestic and foreign media at the regular press conferences. They sought to obtain information on China's anti-epidemic measures, its experiences and its comments in response to doubts expressed by others regarding its reported fast reversal on the situation. China's spokespersons also had to address any blame levied at the country for allegedly issuing disinformation and for wrong behaviour in its attempts to prevent a pandemic from spreading. All the questions and answers were uploaded in text form in English on the official website of China's Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and that facilitated our collection of data. When selecting the questions, we searched for words such as COVID-19, virus, pandemic and epidemic, and also carried out searches on relevant issues such as disease prevention and vaccine. In all, we collected 71 pairs of questions and responses about COVID-19 during May 2020, which came up to a total of 20,527 words. It should be clarified that we only identified and analysed the attitude resources in the responses, not those in the questions. However, the questions were used to select responses that were relevant to COVID-19 and they helped to facilitate better understanding of the issues involved.

### B. Data Processing

This study used Atlas.ti as the tool to identify attitude resources and help with relevant searches and analysis. First, the selected questions and answers were input into Atlas.ti. Then, we coded the attitude resources sentence by sentence according to Martin and White's (2005) categorisation of attitude as presented in Figure 1. When the coding was completed, Atlas.ti helped in the calculation of frequency of the attitude resources, as well as in the search for collocation and context of the specific attitude resources or markers. Two examples of how to code attitude resources using Atlas.ti are given below; both sentences were selected from the response which China's spokesperson made to the question asked by a journalist from TBS (Tokyo Broadcasting System), which was: *President Trump just mentioned yesterday that China either made a terrible mistake or probably it was incompetence. Do you have any comment for this?*

1) China, among the first group of countries hit by the virus, took **forceful** and **effective** measures at the earliest time possible... (capacity+; valuation+)

2) I **hate** to make that comparison, but you, my media friends, have pressed us to do so. (happiness-)

Note: "+" stands for positive, "-" stands for negative

Although Martin and White's (2005) categorisation is, on the whole, quite clear and precise, some portions are vague and caused difficulties during the process of identifying and classifying of the attitude resources. The authors therefore discussed all the ambiguous parts in order to reach an agreement among themselves. First, some subcategories of judgement and appreciation were difficult to distinguish. For example, the adjectives *open* and *transparent* which appeared many times could be categorised as veracity of judgment that shows honesty. However, they could also be categorised as composition of appreciation to describe an item of information as being clear and lucid. Although double coding is allowed according to Martin and White (2005), the authors chose not to do it because the final purpose was to find out how these linguistic resources build the national image. Thus, in this study, the criteria focused on whether these linguistic resources were used to describe the character and behaviour of a person or a country (which can be judged by social esteem and social sanction) or to describe things and performances that we make. As a result, the abovementioned two adjectives are identified as veracity in this study because they were used to declare that China did provide true and reliable information in the face of accusations that it was dishonest and was issuing disinformation.

Moreover, the study found many verbs and relevant phrases – such as *shifting blame*, *finger-pointing*, *blame-dumping*, *bullying*, *scapegoating* and *smear*, among others – which referred to the behaviour of some western countries, especially the U.S. and its politicians. These words and phrases are regarded as invoked attitudes which can manipulate the reader by seeming to be incontestable and they are often used to present the writer's opinion as being categorical statements of fact (White, 2004). In this case, these verbs and their collocates invoked a negative judgement of their behaviours in claiming that smearing China or shifting blame to China was immoral and unfair, and that such actions should be reproached by the international community. Readers of such reports and comments were expected to accept these claims as incontestable factors.

In addition, some words were found to be rather neutral and difficult to identify and categorise. As an example, the word *scientific* which appeared many times, was mostly used to claim that the research and investigation of the origin of the virus is a scientific issue. Although it is a high-frequency adjective in this study, it is merely a word used to define and describe the process of tracing the origin from a neutral viewpoint, and it is also a word that is hard to categorise into any

subcategory of attitude. Thus, *scientific* is not identified as an attitude resource here. Another example is the word *cooperation*, which is also regarded as a neutral word at the beginning. However, it was categorised as a propriety of judgment in Munday's (2012) study when identifying the attitude resources in the inaugural speech of Barack Obama. Therefore, it was decided in this study to use Munday's categorisation as reference and identify *cooperation* as propriety when it is mentioned as one of the measures taken by countries or international organisations.

## V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After coding all the subcategories, Atlas.ti was used to calculate the frequency of attitude resources, as illustrated in Table 1. As can be seen, the frequency ratings of affect, judgement and appreciation differ a lot, which reflects a preference for linguistic choices. Thus, we used Atlas.ti to search for the specific linguistic choices of each category and tried, by understanding the context, to analyse the national image embodied behind these choices.

TABLE 1  
FREQUENCY OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES

Types of attitude	Positive	Negative	Total
Affect	38	17	55 (11.8%)
Judgment	114	109	223 (47.9%)
Appreciation	154	34	188 (40.3%)

TABLE 2  
FREQUENCY OF AFFECT RESOURCES

Happiness	Security	Satisfaction	Inclination
7 12.7%	14 25.5%	18 32.7%	16 29%

### A. Affect

As we can see in Table 1, the frequency of affect is the lowest among the three categories with only 11.8% in total. This infers that spokespersons seldom expressed their feelings in such diplomatic discourses, an inference that is drawn especially from the subcategory of happiness which has a frequency of only 7 (see Table 2). Most of the happiness markers express sympathy for deaths caused by or related to COVID-19 and these include the words *mourn*, *grim*, *sympathies* and *saddened*, all of which are negative feelings. Two examples are: "We *mourn* for the lost lives" and "We are truly *saddened* by those lost lives in the US". The frequency ratings of security, satisfaction and inclination are rather similar. The security resources mentioned in Table 2 mainly express the country's confidence and belief that China will win the fight against COVID-19, and also its determination to safeguard people's lives (see Examples 2 and 3 below). The representative markers include *confidence*, *believe* and *safeguard*. Satisfaction resources show several cases when others praised China (see Example 4 below) as well as some situations that China welcomes or condemns (see Example 5 below) which include markers such as *speak highly of*, *deplore* and *welcome*. In addition, the inclination subcategory in Table 2 shows China's willingness to undertake actions, mainly indicated by the expressions *is ready to* and *stands ready to* (see Example 6 below). The following are the examples of affect emotions mentioned above:

- 1) China always loves peace. (happiness+)
- 2) We believe that as long as all members of the international community work together..., we will surely achieve a full victory ...(security+)
- 3) We have safeguarded the lives and health of the Chinese people. (security+)
- 4) China deplores and opposes such slanderous actions. (satisfaction-)
- 5) Heads of the UN, WHO and many countries ... all spoke highly of China's swift, strong and effective response. (satisfaction+)
- 6) China is ready to continue to work with the international community....(inclination+)

In view of the above, what kind of national images do these choices of affect markers indicate? Since not every marker is relevant to the construction of a national image, this study mainly paid attention to the words or phrases that helped to describe China's character or to evaluate China's performance. This principle was also applied in the analysis of judgement and appreciation which followed next. First, as shown in Example 1, the phrases *loves peace* and *peace-loving* were mentioned twice as happiness markers, which directly offers an image of a peace-loving nation. In addition, the negative happiness markers that expressed sympathy for the lost lives showed a spirit of love and humanity, and this also contributes to the image of a peace-loving country. Second, among the security markers, *safeguard* was used several times to stress that China prioritises the lives and health of Chinese people. Thus, the word constructs the image that China is reliable and responsible to its people. Furthermore, 15 out of the 16 inclination markers were about China's willingness to take certain actions. In terms of the context and collocation aspects, it can be summarised that China is willing and ready to *work with international community*, *share experience*, *increase support for WHO*, *promote international cooperation*, *support hardest-hit countries* and *safeguard global public health security*. As a result, these inclination markers reflect the image that China is quite supportive, cooperative and responsible as one of the major countries in the world.

TABLE 3  
FREQUENCY OF JUDGMENT RESOURCES

Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety
4 1.8%	31 14%	17 7.6%	76 34%	95 42.6%

### B. Judgement

Judgement has the highest frequency of 47.9% among the three categories of attitude. Table 3 above presents the respective frequencies of the five subcategories, in which propriety ranks first at 42.6% and veracity has the second highest frequency (34%). In contrast, the frequencies for normality, tenacity and capacity are much lower, especially normality which only has a frequency of 1.8%. The low rating recorded in the normality subcategory found in the responses of foreign spokespersons indicates some special traits of people, such as *sharp-eyed person* and *famous scientists*. The frequency of tenacity is also very low, which mainly implies China's dependability with the choice of the phrases *work hard* and *actively participate*, while the frequency for capacity (14%) is a little bit higher. Most of the capacity markers describe China's competence as well as that of international organisations' with words such as *leading*, *powerful*, *swift* and *professional*, all of which appear several times. On the other hand, some negative markers of capacity (such as *fail*, *failure*, *misleading* and *incompetence*) reflect the incompetence of some other countries or state leaders. The following are the examples of tenacity and capacity:

- 7) China has been **actively participating** in the global fight against COVID-19. (tenacity+)
- 8) We **are leading** the world in COVID-19 treatment and vaccine research. (capacity+)
- 9) Some in the US have **failed** their people's trust in the fight against COVID-19...(capacity-)

Veracity has the second highest frequency. The reason that veracity resources are widely used is that many questions focused on the blame levied by other countries at China, accusing it of disinformation about the pandemic. For example, the U.S. accused China of spreading disinformation or refusing to open up and share information on the pandemic. The U.S. and some other countries also accused China of hiding information regarding human-to-human transmission by the virus. In order to declare that China was telling the truth, words such as *open*, *openness*, *transparent*, *transparency*, *facts* and *objective* were repeatedly used by China's spokespersons. Moreover, some negative markers were used to put the blame on other countries for being dishonest in their comments. China's spokespersons often used words such as *lies*, *lying*, *groundless*, *baseless*, *fabricating* and *disinformation*, to accuse these countries of distorting facts, shifting blame and misleading the public (see Examples 10 and 11).

- 10) We have been acting with **openness**, **transparency** and responsibility and providing epidemic updates to WHO...(veracity+)

--Responding to the question about President Trump's letter to the WHO

- 11) As is seen by all, he is merely telling the same old **lies**. (veracity-)

--Responding to the question that the US Secretary of State said that the virus originated in Wuhan and the Chinese government did not act fast enough to share the information

Finally, as the subcategory with the highest frequency, some propriety resources show that China's behaviour was appropriate and it should be far beyond reproach. The positive markers of propriety included words such as *impartial*, *impartiality*, *responsible* and *responsibility* which were chosen in response to the groundless accusations from other countries. However, there were much more negative markers than positive ones, and these numbered 73 out of the 95 markers found. These negative markers mainly criticised the inappropriate and immoral behaviours of other countries since many questions were asked about the speeches and comments that attacked and blamed China. The often repeated words include *shift blame*, *selfish*, *mistake*, *smear*, *stigmatise* and *scapegoating*. Examples 12 and 13 illustrate propriety resources:

- 12) The measures are open, **impartial** and transparent. (propriety+)

--Responding to the comment that the U.S. said China's flight demands violate bilateral aviation agreements

- 13) Certain U.S. politicians have been busy **shifting the blame** to China...(propriety-)

--Responding to the question that the head of the U.S. State Department's Global Engagement Center (GEC) said that the Chinese government was using Twitter to push disinformation and propaganda regarding COVID-19

During the analysis of the meaning of judgement resources and the relevant context, it found that there were several national images that could be generalised based on these resources. First, some resources of tenacity, such as *work hard* and *actively participate* build a national image of being dependable and responsible because these words show that China had been working hard to solve problems during the pandemic and had also actively taken part in the global fight against COVID-19, as shown in Example 7 above. Second, positive capacity resources present a capable and powerful image because such words as *swift*, *powerful*, *leading* and *successful*, indicated that China had taken powerful and swift measures in disease control and was leading the world in disease treatment and vaccine research, as presented in Example 8 above. Moreover, as there were many voices that accused China of delayed response as well as of spreading disinformation, the spokespersons used many positive markers of veracity to build the national image of China being open and honest. They also used the positive markers of propriety resources to construct the image of China being a responsible nation, as presented in Examples 10 and 12 above. On the other hand, the spokespersons used many negative markers of veracity and propriety to criticise the improper behaviours and statements made by other countries, especially the U.S.

These comments (see Examples 9, 11 and 13 above) by China's spokespersons alluded to the national images of some foreign countries as being dishonest and irresponsible.

TABLE 4  
FREQUENCY OF APPRECIATION RESOURCES

Reaction	Composition	Valuation
41	38	109
21.8%	20.2%	58%

### C. Appreciation

At 43%, appreciation has the second highest frequency among the three categories. As shown in Table 4, the two subcategories of reaction and composition show a small difference in frequency, at 21.8% and 20.2% respectively. The reaction resources indicate whether spokespersons like or are grabbed by certain performances or speeches. Positive reaction markers which include *good*, *friendly*, *close* were observed several times to show China's recognition of the bilateral communication and international cooperation that it has with other countries, found in phrases such as *good communication* and *friendly cooperation*. In addition, there were negative markers (that include high-frequency words like *frivolous*, *boring* and *ridiculous*) which expressed the spokespersons' disdain and dislike of the lies and nonsense by those who accused China of making mistakes and being incompetent in its handling of the COVID-19 epidemic. This study also found that composition resources mainly help to express that China's statements, responses and measures are clear, consistent and quite easy for the public to follow and understand. Most of the composition markers, such as *clear*, *consistent*, *comprehensive* and *simple*, are positive. The following are some examples of reaction and composition:

- 14) China has maintained **close** and **good** cooperation with WHO. (reaction+)
- 15) It is high time they stopped playing such **ridiculous**, **boring** finger-pointing game. (reaction-)
- 16) China has been **consistent** and **clear** about this all along. (composition+)

Valuation, the third subcategory, is the most observed subcategory in appreciation and it has the highest frequency (58%). In addition, the number of its positive markers has an overwhelming superiority compared with the negative ones, which is 105 out of 107. This high frequency is caused by the high percentage of two kinds of questions. The first kind refers to the questions about China's efforts and comments on international cooperation since China had been attending many international conferences, giving speeches and proposals and providing medical supplies in order to join the global anti-epidemic response. The second kind refers to the questions which focused on the blame that other countries put on China for its alleged misbehaviour and incompetence. In responding to these questions, positive valuation markers were largely used to stress the important role of certain international organisations and partners as well as on China's contribution in terms of carrying out effective measures, making significant progress and giving aid to other countries. The high frequency markers include *important*, *contribute*, *significant*, *timely*, *effective*, *sacrifice* and *leading role*, as shown below in the examples of valuation:

- 17) The SCO (Shanghai Cooperation Organization) is a regional organisation of **important** influence. (valuation+)  
--Responding to the question about how China sees the outcomes of the video conference of SCO and its significance for the joint global response to COVID-19
- 18) We have **timely** updated WHO and other countries on the epidemic. (valuation+)  
--Responding to the question about Donald Trump comparing the coronavirus situation with the coronavirus to the attack on Pearl Harbor and also the 9/11 attack
- 19) ...every family and every citizen nationwide **have been contributing** their strength in this fight against COVID-19. (valuation+)

--Responding to the question about President Trump's letter to the WHO.

Regarding the appreciation subcategory, China's national image is mainly embodied in valuation resources. According to the large number of positive markers, we can infer that the spokespersons aimed at shaping an effective national image of China because words such as *timely* and *effective* were repeatedly used to show that China had shared information in a timely manner and taken effective prevention and control measures. Moreover, a contributive image was also constructed by using the words such as *contribute* and *contribution*. These were the most repeated markers that helped the spokespersons to emphasise again and again that China had made or was willing to make contributions to the global fight against the epidemic, to global health security and world peace, and to development in terms of sharing experience, offering supplies and vaccine research.

### D. Invoked Attitude

Since invoked attitude cannot be recognised by certain markers, this section will explain how it is identified and understood, based on specific examples. The selected examples below are some of those which helped to build China's national image:

- 20) ...despite the daunting task of prevention at home, China has been **providing** other countries with anti-virus **supplies to the best of its ability**. (valuation+)

21) We also hope other countries will join China in promoting international cooperation and mutual trust, rather than **say something nice while doing the opposite**. (judgment-)

In Example 20 above, the spokesperson's comments were made in response to a question on a report that the US fuelled hostility towards China during the pandemic which may result in a military conflict between the two countries. The response compared the measures taken by China and by the U.S. during the pandemic and highlighted China's efforts. As mentioned in Example 20, the expression "*providing supplies to the best of its ability*" suggests that China has been helpful in trying to prevent the epidemic from spreading to the rest of the world. It is identified as a positive valuation here and helps to construct the contributive national image of China. In the other case, Example 21 is an extract from the response to the question about whether China's restrictions on beef imports from Australia was linked to Australia's push for an independent international review of COVID-19 sources. The response stressed that restrictions were placed on imports because of the repeated violations of inspection and quarantine requirements, and that China opposed political manipulation including the so-called independent international review of COVID-19. This extract is taken from the end of the response that called for international cooperation. Moreover, although there are no direct attitude markers, the expression "*say something nice while doing the opposite*" carries a negative judgment of Australia. In effect, the expression accused Australia of not fulfilling its own promise to undertake effective anti-epidemic measures, which implied that Australia was being irresponsible and hypocritical, a national image which China's spokespersons constructed for Australia.

## VI. CONCLUSION

On the basis of AT, this study applied the CDA approach to find out how the appraisal resources of diplomatic responses help to construct a national image. It specifically focused on the attitude system of appraisal and some features were found and summarised after collecting the data. The findings of this study are presented below:

First, among the three categories of attitude, the frequency of affect is the lowest and is much lower than the other two categories, which means China's spokespersons seldom share personal feelings in diplomatic responses. The subcategories that help to construct the national image are happiness and inclination, which reflect the image of a peace-loving, cooperative and responsible nation. Second, the judgment category has the highest frequency because there were many questions about the accusations made against China on its alleged spread of disinformation, and these questions and their responses mostly fell into the two subcategories of judgment, which are veracity and propriety. All the subcategories of judgment, except normality, help to construct China's national image and build the image of a dependable, responsible, powerful and honest nation. Third and last, appreciation has the second highest frequency rating and valuation is the most observed subcategory of appreciation with much more positive markers than negative ones. Valuation helps to build the effective and contributive national image of China.

Therefore, it can be concluded that attitude markers are closely related to the construction of a national image. The analysis of meanings and contexts of attitude markers is targeted at and useful for the generalisation of a national image. National images of China generalised from attitude markers include *peace-loving, cooperative, responsible, dependable, powerful, honest, open, effective* and *contributive*. By forming these images, the spokespersons aim to show that China is responsible for its people's lives and is also taking the responsibility as a major country to help the world with public health security. China is honest and open with the data and information. Moreover, China has taken effective measures and made contributions in preventing the spread of the epidemic at home and abroad. On the other hand, the spokespersons also tend to use many negative markers of attitude to construct immoral and dishonest national images of the countries which accused and attacked China. This also helps to highlight China's positive image by way of contrast.

In addition, the findings of this study prove that the national image in diplomatic discourse can have different emphases according to different periods and events, as mentioned earlier in this study. Compared with the national image of China in previous studies, the image that China's spokespersons tried to emphasise had obviously changed from being a developing and independent country which is stable and united, to one that is honest and effective and contributes to the good of the world. The national image of being a responsible country was consistently stressed, but the images of being peace-loving and powerful were much less mentioned, hence these qualities were not emphasised during the pandemic.

For future studies, it is recommended that the other two systems of engagement and graduation should also be taken into consideration to find out what their impacts are on the construction of national images. Using a wider scope of data is also recommended. In addition, the invoked attitude still remains a challenging subject for analysis. As it is quite possible that researchers could neglect this, more attention should be given to it.

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# Conceptual Metaphors in the Translation of Political Speeches of King Abdullah II\*

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**Abstract**—The research aims to define conceptual metaphor and its types in general, as well as exploring the conceptualization of the metaphorical expressions used in the political speeches of King Abdullah II in English and the translations of the metaphors in Arabic. The study illustrates the techniques and strategies used by the Hashemite Royal Court in translating ST metaphorical expression to the TT. The researcher relies on the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), proposed by the Group (2007) and the Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA), proposed by Charteris-Black (2004), in identifying the conceptual metaphors that King Abdullah II used in his political speeches. As for categorizing the metaphorical expressions, we rely on the Longman and Oxford Dictionaries to determine the semantic field that the metaphorical expression relates to. The study depends on the method proposed by Al-Zoubi, Al-Ali, and Al-Hasnawi (2007) to examine the conceptual metaphors of the two texts and find out whether there are any differences or similarities by comparing the two metaphors, as well as analyzing whether the metaphors are maintained, changed or deleted.

**Index Terms**—conceptual metaphor, translation, speech, King, Abdullah

## I. INTRODUCTION

Political speeches include many types of figure of speech and metaphors are the most notable ones. Politicians constantly use this type of figure of speech in their discourse to deliver their message, as it adds emotions and feelings to the discourse and it creates a powerful impact on the targeted audience, but it is worth mentioning that metaphors are also recognized as conceptual metaphors. Politicians use conceptual metaphors in their discourse to enable them to make a better communication with the target audience in delivering their message and their views about certain topics; it can be described as a bridge between the transmitter and the receiver. This type of metaphor strengthens the connection between the speaker and the hearer, as well as helping the communication wheel to keep rolling. For this reason politicians are keen in using this type of metaphor as it helps them to bond with their audience. So it is understood that conceptual metaphor has a vital role in our lives (Schaffner, 2004).

From a linguistic perspective, metaphor has traditionally been defined and understood as an artistic and rhetorical device, used to make the discourse elegant and emotive using figurative expressions, as a vast majority of people believe that they only use metaphors deliberately whenever they please, but previous studies show that, on the contrary, metaphors are used in everyday discourse subconsciously.

## II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to:

1. Investigate the strategies and procedures used during the process of translating these metaphors by the Royal Hashemite Court.
2. Find out the differences and the similarities between the ST and the TT, as well as finding out whether these metaphors were preserved or not in translating them to the TT.

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3. Define conceptual metaphor and make a better understanding of its theory and to illustrate the types of these metaphors.
4. Identify the conceptual metaphors in the political speeches of King Abdullah II, as well as to clarify their types and to analyze the function of each metaphor.

### III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Generally, people have a misconception that metaphor is just a property of words and used only to describe one thing in terms of another as it is also used for rhetorical purposes. Previous studies show that metaphors are also considered a property of concepts and not just words, as we use them to understand a thing in terms of another. This study will define conceptual metaphors, as well as providing the different types of these metaphors and explaining their function in a certain text. Noting that in some cases, conceptual metaphors can be similar between two different cultures. Therefore the study will focus on whether the conceptual metaphors, used in King Abdullah's speeches, are similar or different in the STs and TTs. Different types of conceptual metaphors could be used in a single text, thus, this research will also look into how different metaphors will be translated and will the translation be influenced by the original text, keeping in mind that disregarding this kind of metaphor in the translation process may lead to a fragile translation and possibly misleading the target audience, as this type of metaphor is considered an important part in communication in every language. So this study will also look into the translation, and find out if there are any differences or similarities between the two texts.

### IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Translating conceptual metaphors in political speeches puts a heavy burden on the translator, as According to Schaffner (2004), the issue of metaphor has frequently caused translation academics to disagree over the difficulties in translating metaphors from one language and culture to another. There are different types of conceptual metaphors used in a single text and the translator must keep in mind the differences between the two cultures and their specific used languages, hence the translator must find the perfect balance between the ST and TT, as he is obligated to deliver the similar function that occurs in the source text. Some translators may not pay full attention in translating these kinds of metaphors, which may lead to vague meaning in the TT, or in worst case scenarios, mistranslating the whole meaning of the metaphors of the ST. It will also be crucial of the translator to reproduce the natural equivalent meaning in the TTs as in the STs, taking into consideration the cultural differences while translating.

### V. METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of the study, the researchers will include three procedures. The first procedure will focus on identifying the conceptual metaphors in the ST. The second procedure aims to distinguish the type of the conceptual metaphor and identifying their conceptual domains according to the semantic field, which the metaphorical expression belong to. The third procedure involves analyzing the translation of metaphors in the TT and discussing the strategies used in the translation process.

#### A. Data Collection

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of this study, the researchers will provide examples, selected from political speeches of King Abdullah II, during the period (9<sup>th</sup> of May 2018 – 29<sup>th</sup> of March 2019). As for the resource, the researchers retrieved the selected written speeches electronically from the official website of King Abdullah II <https://Kingabdullah.jo>. This website was chosen for the accessibility of numerous speeches of his Majesty and the availability of the translation of these speeches. The translations of the selected speeches were retrieved electronically in 14<sup>th</sup> of April, 2019.

#### B. Data Analysis

In this particular stage, the researchers provided the necessary methodological procedures for the translation of conceptual metaphors from (E to A):

##### (a). *Identifying the Conceptual Metaphors in the ST*

This process focused on highlighting the used conceptual metaphors in the provided speeches of King Abdullah II. When it comes to identifying conceptual metaphors, the Group (2007) presents a method that can be used in identifying conceptual metaphors in the discourse, which is called Metaphor Identification procedure (MIP). The MIP is as follows:

1. To get a sense of the meaning in general, read the complete text-discourse.
2. Determine the lexical units in the text-discourse.
2. (a) For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context; that is, how it applies to an entity, relation, or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.



(b) Determine whether each lexical unit has a more basic current meaning in situations other than the one in the context in which it is used. The most common basic interpretations for our purposes are,

- More concrete: It is simpler to visualize, hear, feel, smell, and taste the things they evoke.
- Affects how the body moves.
- More exact (as opposed to vague).
- older historically.

Basic meanings do not always correspond to the lexical unit's most frequent meanings.

(c) Determine whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but may still be comprehended in comparison with it if the lexical unit has a more basic current-contemporary meaning in contexts other than the one provided.

3. If so, indicate that the lexical item is metaphorical.

In this process, the decision as to whether or not a lexical element can be considered metaphorical is based on the disparity between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning. There is another reliable method provided by Charteris-Black (2004) for identifying conceptual metaphors in a text, Charteris-Black suggests the Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) for this particular procedure, which is:

A metaphor is a word or phrase that causes semantic tension by:

- Reification: referring to something that is abstract using a word or phrase that in other contexts refers to something that is concrete.
- Personification: referring to something that is inanimate using a word or phrase that in other contexts refers to something that is animate.

In this procedure, the distinction between the core meaning and the context is used to determine whether or not a lexical element can be called metaphorical. For this specific strategy, Charteris-Black (2004) offers the Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA), which is another trustworthy technique for locating conceptual metaphors in a text.

A word or phrase that creates semantic tension is known as a metaphor.

- Reification is the act of utilizing a word or phrase that in another context denotes something concrete to refer to something abstract.
- Personification is the use of a word or phrase to describe something inanimate that is referred to as animate in other situations.
- Depersonification is the use of words or expressions that, in other contexts, relate to inanimate objects to refer to an animate object.

This research will depend on the two previously mentioned methods, which are the MIP by the Group (2007) and CMA by Charteris-Black (2004) for identifying conceptual metaphors in the ST.

#### *(b). Categorizing the Conceptual Metaphors of the ST*

The procedure of this methodology analyzed the identified linguistic metaphors and determined the conceptual domains according to the analysis of the metaphorical expressions, which are related to a specific semantic domain. For example, expressions like "growth", "thrive", "root" and "flourish" are all part of the semantic field of the LIVING ORGANISM domain.

For this particular procedure, the researcher will rely on the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and Oxford Learner's Dictionary. There are various types of conceptual domains, such as, BUILDING, BURDEN, NATURE and DISASTER, JOURNEY, PERSONIFICATION, LIVING ORGANISM, and WATER. These types will function as source domains for conceptual metaphors, which the researcher will elaborate more in the research.

#### *(c). Analysis of the Conceptual Metaphors in the TT*

The aim of this process will be to identify and to analyze the translator's techniques and strategies in translating the conceptual metaphors of the ST. This procedure will also examine the conceptual metaphors of the two texts and find out whether there are any differences or similarities by comparing the two metaphors, as well as analyzing whether the metaphors are maintained, changed or deleted. The researchers of this study will use the Al-Zoubi et al. (2006) approach for analyzing the translation of metaphors for the current procedure. This technique offers three collections of genuine English and Arabic metaphor examples for metaphor translation:

1. Metaphors of comparable mapping situations, when similar terms in both languages are used to communicate similar concepts.
2. Similar mapping circumstances are represented metaphorically, but in the two languages in different ways.
3. Metaphors of various mapping circumstances without TL counterparts.

They also indicated that the obligations of the translators are not just to be bilingual; they also need to be bicultural as well, and they also should be aware of cognitive and cultural issues when translating between Arabic and English.

## VI. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

### *A. Metaphor*

Metaphor, in the traditional view, is considered a type of figure of speech, which is commonly used in literary text and functions as a device for rhetorical effect. People use metaphors for comparison or symbolism to add some color to their discourse. Metaphors, according to Knowles and Moon (2006), are when language is used to refer to something different from what it was originally applied to or what it means in order to imply some likeness or establish a relationship between the two.

### **Metaphor Types**

According to Newmark (1988) there are six types of metaphor, these are:

1. Dead Metaphors, this type refers to the metaphors that relates to universal terms of time and time, and the main parts of the human body, like, space, field, arm, head and others, it is worth mentioning that this type of metaphor is considered for most people literal language as they cannot recognize them as metaphors.
2. Cliché Metaphors: According to Newmark (1988), this sort of metaphors is used as a stand-in for coherent thought, frequently in an emotional manner but without regard to the actual circumstances.
3. Stock Metaphors: it described this term as an established metaphor, which in an informal setting is a succinct and effective way to referentially and pragmatically address a physical or mental condition.
4. Adapted Metaphor: Proverbs fall under this kind of metaphors. Because this specific form of metaphor has such an important cultural function in the TL, translators frequently go to considerable lengths to render it accurately in the target language.
5. Recent Metaphor: This is a newly created metaphor and often categorized as slang.
6. Original Metaphors: as he describes it (1988) as created or quoted by the SL writer, and these metaphors are describes as complex as they have double meaning.

### **B. Conceptual Metaphor**

As we mentioned before in this research, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) believed metaphors as a means of understanding something in terms of something else, as they indicate that conceptual metaphors and used in everyday language, so it is worth mentioning that conceptual metaphors exist in almost every political speech, and the reason is that these metaphors can help the public to understand easily. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) suggested that "concepts that are used in metaphorical definitions to define other concepts also correspond to natural kind of experience" (p. 118). They illustrate that the understanding of conceptual metaphor occurs in terms of experience and not separate concept, which cannot be understood on their own terms. Lakoff (1993) also refers to conceptual metaphors as "mappings across conceptual domains" he also adds "Each mappings is a fixed set of ontological correspondences between entities in a source domain and entities in a target domain" (p. 245). Conceptual metaphors are an effective tool because they are linked to the conceptual frames such as DISEASES, JOURNEY, BURDEN and other types, which the audience is familiar with these concepts; therefore the message becomes more intelligible and comprehensible (Mehawesh, 2016).

### **C. Translation of Metaphors**

#### **Translation of Linguistic Metaphor**

The interests of many scholars have centered on the translatability of metaphor and the procedures for transferring it to another language, as some of these scholars believe that there is no theory of metaphor translation and a ST metaphor can be translated literary into the TT. But some scholars reject this statement, such as Newmark, explaining that not all metaphors can be translated literally into the TT, since this could result or cause a loss of the intended meaning of the ST metaphor.

Newmark (1985) identifies eight procedures for the translation of metaphor:

1. To create the same image in the TL if the frequency and currency are same in the relevant register.
2. To substitute another well-known TL picture that is similarly prevalent within the register and does not conflict with the TL culture for the SL image.
3. To maintain the image, translate the ST metaphor using a simile.
4. To simileitize and sense-translate the ST metaphor.
5. Making sense of the ST metaphor.
- In order to change the ST metaphor
7. If the ST metaphor is unnecessary, remove it.
8. To replicate the ST metaphor with logic.

## **VII. DISCUSSION**

### **A. Identification and Categorization of Conceptual Metaphor in the ST**

Depending on the selected speeches, the following conceptual domains were identified: BUILDING, BURDEN, NATURE and DISASTER, JOURNEY, PERSONIFICATION, LIVING ORAGNISM, and WATER.

The conceptual metaphors identified in the ST are categorized according to three main cognitive categories, provided by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) which are: Orientational metaphor, ontological metaphor and Structural metaphor.

However, as the researchers mentioned before, these three categories can hardly be differentiated, since they are very similar. In their second version of their book, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) admit that they erred and describe their earlier

categorization as "artificial." Therefore, naming these three categories is pointless. It is worth mentioning in this research that some of the identified conceptual metaphors in the ST will be divided into sub-conceptual metaphors.

Before moving forward, it is also crucial to point out that some of the examples include two source domains simultaneously, which Charteris-Black (2004) introduced it as nested metaphors. Nested metaphor is defined by Charteris-Black (2004) as the rhetorical practice of placing a metaphor from one source domain within a metaphor from another source domain. Consider the following example:

"Our country has been able to stand strong in the face of external storms."

In the previous example, acquired from his Majesty's speech at the London Initiative Conference on 28<sup>th</sup> February, 2019, the researcher was able to identify two conceptual source domains, which are: PERSONIFICATION and DISASTER. Personification is the act of giving human characteristics to a non-human entity, as it is shown in the previous example; Jordan is identified as a person who faces external storms, as external storms is a metaphorical expression that is associated to a certain semantic field, which is called Disaster.

In this study, the researchers were able to identify the following conceptual domains:

(a). *Journey Metaphors*

In *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) introduced this type of metaphor, which is derived from LOVE IS A JOURNEY that developed to LIFE IS A JOURNEY. This conceptual metaphor is used to express the experience, activity and progress of someone or something. The JOURNEY metaphor also highlights the destination that is established or decided in advance. The most notable keywords of this particular domain are: 'path', 'steps'.

The JOURNEY metaphor is frequently used in political speeches, because it provides an opportunity for the politicians to create figurative expressions, as it reflects their own experience to connect themselves with the audience. Charteris-Black (2004) indicates that JOURNEY metaphors are very widely used in political speeches including, Churchill, Thatcher, Blair, Clinton and Bush (senior and junior). Consider the following example:

It is not necessary for all people to be same in order for them to have the same worries, needs, or aspirations. A better future is possible by: we must find a common path.

The JOURNEY metaphor in the previous example, which is retrieved from his Majesty's acceptance speech during the Lamp of Peace Award Ceremony in Assisi, Italy on 29<sup>th</sup> of March, 2019, can be identified by the use of keyword 'path'. In this particular metaphor, King Abdullah II emphasizes the importance of the agreement on unifying their goals and interests to make a better future. The JOURNEY conceptual domain generates the following conceptual metaphor:

**REFORM IS A JOURNEY**

In political and economic discourse, reform is understood in terms of adjustments and improvement of the situation, which cannot be achieved in a single moment. In King Abdullah's speeches, reform is conceptualized as a path or a journey that Jordan must follow and he argues the stages, time, and goals of the reform process. Consider the following examples:

Jordan is actively supporting the growth of opportunity. Now across all sectors, reforms are underway to support and foster a healthy business climate.

The phrases "reform" and "underway" are used in the aforementioned example, which is taken from His Majesty's opening remarks at the World Economic Forum on the Middle East and North Africa in the Dead Sea on April 6, 2019. In this particular example Jordan is personified as a person who is supporting the development of economy, while reforms has started and are in progress. King Abdullah II conceptualizes the process of reforms as a journey, in which it started and has a goal or destination.

(b). *Living Organism Metaphors*

According to the analyzed speeches of his Majesty, This kind of metaphor is common in speeches that are related to economy, while words such as 'growth' and 'thrive' collocate with the term economy. These kinds of keywords are used to refer to living organisms to indicate that economy advances and develops over time. The key words of the metaphorical expression of this particular domain are: 'growth', 'ripe', 'flourish', 'root' and 'thrive'. The LIVING ORGANISM metaphor is the most notable metaphor that was frequently used in his Majesty's speeches about economy. The metaphors identified in the study are intended to interpret them in terms of the plant source domain, as plants are familiar to human beings. Consider the following example retrieved from his Majesty's speech in London Initiative Conference in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> of February, 2019, and his Majesty's opening statement in World Economic Forum on the Middle East and North Africa in the Dead Sea on 6<sup>th</sup> of April, 2019:

-We are actively working with the international community to ensure the fiscal space that is needed for economic growth.

-Our economic strategy prioritizes service sectors that benefit directly from Jordan's high-value human capital. Now these sectors are ripe for growth.

-Joint enterprises thrive when partners invest their hearts and talents and resources into success.

In the first and second examples above, we notice that economy is conceptualized as a plant that grows and a plant that is developed to the point of readiness for harvesting. These metaphorical expressions are specified for the economy of Jordan, as he illustrates in the first example that Jordan is working with the international community to provide the

required budget to develop the current economic status. In the second example, his Majesty explains that the economy of Jordan makes a priority of the service sectors, which are already developed.

In the third example, King Abdullah II conceptualized the joint companies and enterprises as a plant that grows and thrives when the partners, who are related to the matter, work hard to achieve success.

(c). *Personification*

From a cognitive perspective, personification is the act of giving human qualities and characteristics to non-human entities. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) explained that this type of metaphor is identified as the most obvious ontological metaphor, as objects are described as a human being that helps us to comprehend them in terms of human motivations, characteristics and activities, they contend that personification enables us to understand things in the universe in terms that are relatable to our own motivations, objectives, behaviors, and qualities. This particular metaphor is frequently used in political discourse, as most of the politicians use personification in defining their own countries as human beings, as Charteris –Black (2004) argues that countries can be specified using the language of people.

Depending on the analyzed speeches of King Abdullah II, the country Jordan is conceptualized as a person that is attributed with human qualities and characteristics. Consider the following examples:

I can say that Jordan will continue to play a major role in the global effort to end the serious crises that endanger our region and the world.

In the example showed above, which is obtained from his Majesty's opening speech of the 27<sup>th</sup> annual meeting and business forum of the European Bank reconstruction and development in the Dead Sea, Jordan on 9<sup>th</sup> of May, 2018, King Abdullah II conceptualizes Jordan as a human being who has a massive part in the efforts of achieving peace and stability in the Arab region and the world, which also conceptualizes Jordan as a noble person.

(d). *Building Metaphors*

This type of conceptual domain is derived from THEORIES ARE BUILDING. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argued that "expressions such as *construct* and *foundation* are instances of the used part of such a metaphorical concept and are part of our ordinary literal language about theories" (p. 52).

In political discourse, using this type of conceptual domain can be helpful in emphasizing the shared goal. The linguistic metaphor can be realized by the keywords, which are the most notable ones, such as: 'build', 'pillars', and 'shape'. Consider the following example:

It begins with investment in the pillars of stability and moderation; standing up for our world's shared interest in coexistence, harmony, and cooperation.

In the example above, derived from His Majesty's opening speech of the 27<sup>th</sup> annual meeting and business forum of the European Bank reconstruction and development in the Dead Sea, Jordan on 9<sup>th</sup> of May, 2018, his Majesty affirms that to reach a prospering future, the important initial move would be to invest and work on the economical stability and moderation, which king Abdullah II shows emphasis on this particular topic, as it is the first idea that he mentioned. The BUILDING conceptual domain generates the following conceptual metaphor:

**FUTURE IS A BUILDING**

The process of building the future requires foundations, materials, and builders for the establishment. Consider the following examples to verify the fact that future can be described as a building:

This is the traditional, orthodox Islam that is the faith of the vast, vast majority of Muslims around the world—1.8 billion good neighbors and good citizens who are helping build the future, (building) in Jordan and the Middle East; in the US and Asia and Europe; and beyond.

In the examples above, retrieved from His Majesty's speech in Templeton Prize Ceremony in Washington DC, USA on 13<sup>th</sup> November, 2018, King Abdullah II emphasizes the fact that citizens are vital to make a better future in the region, as well as the need to work together, side by side, to make the world with better future. The keywords mentioned in the examples: 'build' is conceptualized in terms of forming and making a prospering and thriving future.

(e). *Burden Metaphors*

This type of metaphorical expression can be realized by keywords such as: 'burden' and 'bear'. In political discourse, this type of metaphor is used to conceptualize enduring and tolerating the crises that a country or people face. For instance, when King of Jordan, Abdullah Bin Al Hussein, talks about the responsibility of Jordan towards the Syrian refugees in hosting them, and emphasizes the burden the Jordanians have on their shoulders. Consider the following examples:

As many of you know, Jordan has carried a massive, disproportionate burden as a refugee host. Our people have opened their homes, schools, public services, hospitals.

Jordanians have borne this refugee burden in full accord with our country's long humanitarian traditions, but we know, and the world knows, that this crisis is a global responsibility.

In the examples above, obtained from his Majesty's speech at the Plenary Session of the 73<sup>rd</sup> General Assembly of the United Nations in New York, USA on 25<sup>th</sup> of September, 2018, King Abdullah II illustrates that his country, Jordan, and its citizens has carried the great burden of hosting and supporting the Syrian Refugees. These metaphorical

expressions were identified based on the keyword 'Burden'. He also conceptualizes his country, Jordan, as a noble person who is carrying an excessive burden helping the Syrian refugees.

(f). *Nature and Disaster Metaphors*

The linguistic metaphors of this particular conceptual domain are realized by the keyword: 'storms', 'sunshine'. This type of conceptual domain is used to describe a tragic natural event or to illustrate a particular condition or state that someone or something is in at a specific time. This metaphor is also used to clarify a political crisis that faced a country in terms of the familiarity of the natural disasters, or to define a situation or a state of a particular country in terms of weather or atmosphere. Consider the following example:

Our countries have been friends through sunshine and storm. And I deeply appreciate the UK's commitment, and the hard work of all those who have helped organize today's conference.

In the example above, acquired from his Majesty's speech in London Initiative Conference in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> of February, 2019, King Abdullah II emphasizes the profound relations between Jordan and UK, as they were united and strong as they have encountered and survived crisis. As it is shown in the example, this type of metaphor provides a vivid image of the situation, which makes the expression more emotive, results in affecting the audience.

(g). *Water Metaphors*

This type of metaphorical expression is used in the political discourse in addressing the situation of the economic sector of a particular country, as well as to conceptualize the production or output of certain energy, and also to conceptualize the investments as a steady or continuous stream of water. This type of metaphor can be identified by metaphorical keywords such as: 'stream' and 'flow'. Consider the following example:

We, like many others, were hit by the global financial crisis and multiple shocks to global energy prices and sources. Regional turmoil disrupted key trade routes and energy flows. And our situation worsened with the Syrian refugee crisis.

In this example, derived from his Majesty's remarks at the London Initiative in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> of February, 2019, King Abdullah II sheds the light on the difficult situation of his country, Jordan, which faces many crises, such as the global financial crisis, the disturbing state of the region, and the burden of the Syrian refugee which damaged the trade route and the energy flows in the region. King Abdullah II conceptualized energy as a river that flows in the region, which is disrupted by the crises. It also could be conceptualized as a river for the importance of energy and its consistent flow for the region.

B. *Analysis of Metaphors in the TT*

This section will focus on examining the translation of the identified conceptual metaphors in the TTs, as well as discussing the techniques that were utilized to convey the conceptual metaphors from (E to A). It is worth mentioning that this part of the study will be divided into three sections:

The first section will include the discussion of the symmetrical TT conceptual metaphors identified in the research. The second section will involve the different TT conceptual metaphors. The third section will focus on the omitted ST conceptual metaphors in the TT.

It is worth mentioning that the translations of the selected examples were retrieved electronically from the official website of King Abdullah II, as mentioned before in the methodology of the research, section (5.2), on 14<sup>th</sup> of April, 2019.

(a). *Symmetrical TT Conceptual Metaphors*

This type of translation technique includes reproducing identical conceptual metaphor of the ST in the TT. This particular strategy frequently depends on the literal translation of the ST metaphorical expressions or conveying different metaphorical expression that is similar to the ST conceptual metaphor.

It is worth mentioning that this type of technique is the most prominent type used depending on the analyzed speeches of King Abdulla II. Consider the following examples:

1. *Journey Metaphors*

Example 1:

ST: The people of the world do not have to be the same in order to have the same concerns, share the same needs, or hope the same hopes. To reach a better future, we must find a common path.

TT: ليس من الضرورة لشعوب العالم أن تكون متشابهة لكي تتشارك في نفس الهموم، أو نفس الاحتياجات، أو نفس الآمال. وحتى نصل إلى مستقبل أفضل، علينا أن نجد طريقاً مشتركاً.

In example above, acquired from his Majesty's remarks during the Lamp of Peace Award Ceremony in Assisi, Italy on 29<sup>th</sup> of March, 2019, the ST metaphorical expression 'path' relates to ST metaphor JOURNEY. In this example, King Abdullah II illustrates the importance of unity of all people, despite the difference, in creating the greater future. This ST expression is translated as 'طريق مشترك'. The TT metaphor is considered identical, which indicates that the ST metaphorical expression is translated literally. In this case, the metaphorical expression of the ST is retained and preserved in the TT.

2. *Nature and Disaster Metaphors*

## Example 2:

ST: I would particularly like to thank my fellow Jordanians. It is solely because of their resilience and capability that our country has been able to stand strong in the face of external storms.

TT: أوجه الشكر والتقدير للأردنيين والأردنيات؛ بفضل ثباتهم وعزيمتهم تمكن الأردن على الدوام من الوقوف بقوة وشموخ في وجه العواصف الخارجية.

In this example, which is obtained from his Majesty's speech at the London initiative conference in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> February, 2019, the keyword 'storms' is related to the semantic field of natural disaster, which indicates to the ST conceptual metaphor DISASTER. In example above, his Majesty expresses his gratitude to his own people, the Jordanians, for their resilience and stability, which helped Jordan to endure and bear the crises it faced. The ST metaphorical expression is translated literary as 'العواصف الخارجية', which points out that the ST metaphor is maintained in the TT.

## 3. Personification

## Example 3:

ST: The United Nations was born in the ashes of the Second World War, out of a deep desire to protect new generations from suffering, destruction, and want.

TT: ولدت منظمة الأمم المتحدة من رماد الحرب العالمية الثانية ودمارها، في مسعى صادق لحماية الأجيال القادمة من المعاناة والدمار والحرمان.

As shown in the example, acquired from his Majesty's remarks at the plenary session of the 73rd General Assembly of the United Nations in New York, USA on 25<sup>th</sup> of September 2018, King Abdullah II used PERSONIFICATION talking about the United Nation. He sheds light to the establishment of this organization, emphasizing the time and circumstances in which it was founded. The ST metaphorical expression is translated literary in the TT; however the translator elaborated this metaphor in the TT, where the translator adds the word 'دمارها', [and its destruction], in this case, it is meant to create a similar expression that can give the reader more clarification in regard to the situation of the Second World War as well as providing a more dramatic effect.

## 4. Living Organism Metaphors

## Example 4:

ST: Joint enterprises thrive when partners invest their hearts and talents and resources into success. And we who are here today are partners in a great enterprise indeed: to energeise economies that are at the centre of global prosperity and peace.

TT: إن المشاريع المشتركة تزدهر وتثمر عندما يستثمر الشركاء ويكرسون جل طاقاتهم ومواهبهم ومواردهم بهدف تحقيق النجاح. ونحن المجتمعون هنا اليوم شركاء في تحقيق هدف محوري، وهو "تنشيط الاقتصادات" التي تصب في صميم الازدهار والسلام العالميين.

In this example, acquired from his Majesty's Speech at the opening of the 27th annual meeting and business forum of the European Bank for reconstruction and development in the Dead Sea, Jordan on 9<sup>th</sup> of May, 2018, King Abdullah conceptualizes economy as a LIVING ORGANISM that grows and thrives. His Majesty argues that the hard work of the partners will definitely lead to success. Depending on the observation of the translation, we notice that the translator conveyed and preserved the SL metaphorical expression in the TT, however he elaborates more in the translation, as he renders it as 'تزدهر وتثمر', [thrive and grow], in this case, the addition of the expression 'grow' is for the clarification purposes for the reader and also to deliver a vivid image of the expression.

## 5. Building Metaphors

## Example 5:

ST: The principles of coexistence and interfaith harmony are deeply embedded in Jordan's heritage. Our country is home to an historic Christian community. All our citizens actively share in building our strong nation.

TT: إن مبادئ العيش المشترك والوئام بين الأديان جزء أصيل من تراث الأردن؛ الذي مثل عبر التاريخ وطننا راسخاً للمجتمعات المسيحية، يتعاون ويتشارك فيه مواطنوه في بناء أمة واحدة قوية.

As shown in this example, which is retrieved from his Majesty's acceptance speech during the Lamp of Peace Award Ceremony in Assis, Italy on 29<sup>th</sup> of March, 2019, the metaphorical expression 'building' is referring to building a structure, which is relates to the BUILDING metaphor. This metaphorical expression is preserved in the TT, but with elaboration as it is rendered as 'بناء أمة واحدة قوية', [building one strong nation]. The purpose of the elaboration here is to provide the TT audience with more illustration, as well as amplifying the idea or the plan by creating more dramatic

## 6. Burden Metaphors

## Example 6:

ST: Jordanians have borne this refugee burden in full accord with our country's long humanitarian traditions.

TT: لقد تحمل الأردنيون عبء استضافة اللاجئين، مستندين في ذلك إلى إرث بلادنا العريق وتقاليد في الترحم والإنسانية.

In this example, acquired from his Majesty's remarks at the plenary session of the 73rd General Assembly of the United Nations in New York, USA on 25<sup>th</sup> of September 2018, King Abdullah II illustrates that his country, Jordan, and its citizens has carried the great burden of hosting and supporting the Syrian Refugees. This metaphorical expression was identified based on the keyword 'Burden'. We notice that the ST metaphorical expression is translated as 'تحمل'

الأردنيون عبء' in the TT, which is considered to be translated literally and identical to the original text. Therefore we conclude that the metaphorical expression in the ST is retained and preserved in the TT.

#### (b). *Different TT Conceptual Metaphors*

The transfer of ST conceptual metaphors into various TT conceptual metaphors via various mappings is included in this type of translation technique. A major motivation behind this technique can be the cultural differences between the two cultures. The translator is sometimes obliged to replace the conceptual metaphor of the ST into a different conceptual metaphor in the TT to be acceptable and intelligible for the target language audience. And in some cases, the translator simply chooses to change the metaphorical expression in the TT for reasons related to the style of the translator himself. Depending on the selected speeches of King Abdullah II, the researcher was able to identify only one different metaphorical expression of a different conceptual domain from the ST, which is:

##### **WATER Metaphors**

###### **Example 1:**

ST: it takes a broad partnership to create a platform for economic growth—private sector investment and productivity at every level, including small and medium enterprises; public sectors that support business confidence and economic success; as well as global partners to flow investments into positive futures.

TT: إننا نحتاج إلى شراكة واسعة من أجل تحفيز النمو الاقتصادي، شراكة تتضمن استثمارات من القطاع الخاص وقدرة إنتاجية على جميع المستويات، بما فيها المؤسسات الصغيرة والمتوسطة الحجم، بالإضافة إلى قطاع عام يعزز ثقة قطاع الأعمال ويدعم النجاح الاقتصادي، وتتضمن أيضاً شركاء دوليين يوظفون الاستثمار لتحقيق مستقبل إيجابي للجميع.

In the example above, retrieved from his Majesty's Opening speech at the World Economic Forum on the Middle East and North Africa in the Dead Sea, Jordan on 6<sup>th</sup> of April, 2019, King Abdullah II calls for unity and cooperation of every sector for the growth of economy, and calls the other world leaders in providing investments to shape a great future. King Abdullah II conceptualizes the required stream of investment from the global partners as a body of water that is consistent and steady which will help to reach a positive future. In this example, we notice that the metaphorical expression in the TT differs from the metaphorical expression of the ST, while the metaphorical expression is rendered as 'يوظفون', [they employ]. The domain of the conceptual metaphor in TT can be categorized as PERSONIFICATION, as we can notice that the investment, mentioned in the TT, is given a human quality, in which the investment is conceptualized as person who is being employed, which differs entirely from the original text.

#### (c). *Omitted ST Conceptual Metaphor*

This type of translation technique involves the deletion of the TT metaphorical expressions. In this case, the motivation behind deleting the metaphorical expression could be because of the cultural differences between the ST and TT. In this strategy, the translator provides the sense of the ST conceptual metaphor without providing an identical or different TT conceptual metaphor. Depending on the selected speeches of King Abdullah II, the researcher was able to identify omitted metaphorical expressions of only 2 conceptual domains, which are as follows:

##### **1. Water Metaphors**

###### **Example 1:**

ST: We, like many others, were hit by the global financial crisis and multiple shocks to global energy prices and sources. Regional turmoil disrupted key trade routes and energy flows. And our situation worsened with the Syrian refugee crisis.

TT: تأثرنا - كما غيرنا - بالأزمة المالية العالمية، تبعثها صدمات متعددة أثرت في أسعار الطاقة العالمية ومصادرها. كما تسببت الاضطرابات في المنطقة بتعطيل الطرق التجارية الرئيسية وانقطاع إمدادات الطاقة وازدادت التحديات وتبعاتها على الأردن بفعل أزمة اللجوء السوري.

In this example, which is acquired from his Majesty's remarks at the London Initiative Conference in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> of February, 2019, we notice that the metaphorical expression 'flow', which relates to the ST metaphor WATER, is used to conceptualize the development of energy in Jordan, as it suffers some damage because of the global financial crisis. We also notice that the metaphor is completely omitted in the TT, where it is rendered as 'إمدادات', [supplies]. This specific TT expression, which usually collocates with water, is used in the TT to demonstrate the progress of the situation; therefore the translator decides to convey the sense of the ST metaphor by this TT expression.

##### **2. Nature and Disaster Metaphors**

###### **Example 2:**

ST: Our countries have been friends through sunshine and storm. And I deeply appreciate the UK's commitment, and the hard work of all those who have helped organize today's conference.

TT: فقد استمرت صداقتنا في أوقات الرخاء والشدة. وأنا أؤمن مواقف المملكة المتحدة والتزامها، والجهود الكبيرة التي بذلها كل من ساهم في تنظيم هذا المؤتمر.

In this example, retrieved from his Majesty's speech at the London initiative conference in London, UK on 28<sup>th</sup> February, 2019, King Abdullah II emphasizes the profound relationship between Jordan and UK, as they stayed united in times of prosperity and adversity. After analyzing the TT, we notice that the ST metaphorical expression is not conveyed in the TT, as the translator chose to provide the sense of the ST conceptual metaphor without providing an identical or different TT conceptual metaphor. One of the reasons for using this particular technique can be to avoid

ambiguity, as the literal translation of the ST expression 'sunshine and storm' is 'أشعة الشمس والعاصفة', which can misguide the TT audience. Therefore, the translator opts to render the ST metaphorical expression as 'الرخاء والشدة', [literary: prosperity and adversity], so as to produce a familiar and acceptable expression to the TL audience.

### VIII. CONCLUSION

The research illustrates that conceptual metaphors are a persuasive device and extensively used in the political discourse, as it also validates the theory of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) regarding to the use of conceptual metaphors in the communication in our daily lives. The researchers concludes that preserving the ST metaphor in the TT by conveying a symmetrical metaphor is the dominant technique in the translation process from E to A, as the preservation of the ST metaphor is achieved by the desire of the translator to maintain the imagery of the metaphorical expression, which suggests that the translation of conceptual metaphors is achievable between two different cultures. While providing different metaphor of the ST or deleting the ST metaphorical expression is the least used techniques in the translation process from E to A, however, these techniques are shown to be successful in the translation of metaphors between the two cultures, as the translator was successful in conveying the sense and the full meaning of the ST metaphor in the TT. It is worth mentioning that, on some occasions, the translator plays the role of the original writer in creating different TT metaphors which facilitates the conceptualization of the ST metaphor to the target audience. The research also highlights the major role of the translator in the translation process of conceptual metaphors, as the translation process is considered to be a hard task on the translator. While mistranslating metaphors can result in an error in conveying the meaning, so it is important in transferring the intended meaning of the ST. It is important to point out that the translator must have the thorough knowledge of both languages and the background of the source and target cultures, keeping in mind the target audience when considering the procedures and strategies in translating metaphors.

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# Exploring the Linguistic Landscape of a Historical and Cultural City in China: From the Perspective of Language Ecology

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**Abstract**—In recent years, “linguistic landscape” has gradually become a hot research topic in the field of sociolinguistics. Compared with the current research situation abroad, the focus of the research in China is still on basic concepts, theoretical frameworks, research methods, and research reviews, with insufficient case studies and relatively narrow research perspectives. This study selects several typical places in Shaoxing, a national historical and cultural city in China, as the research sites. With the quantitative and qualitative research methods, this study investigates the current situation of linguistic landscape, including language use, physical characteristics, cultural and historical elements, translation of texts on bilingual and multilingual signs, multimodal signs, and attitudes and perceptions, and examines the interactions between linguistic landscape and its environment. The study concludes that the linguistic landscape in the city is well constructed with distinctive historical and cultural characteristics and is in harmony with the environment except for a few ecological problems. And it suggests that more researchers pay attention to the protection, inheritance and development of linguistic landscape, and experts and scholars from a wider range of fields jointly conduct research on LL with Chinese characteristics, and finally accelerate the process of globalization and internationalization in China.

**Index Terms**—linguistic landscape, a historical and cultural city, language ecology

## I. INTRODUCTION

In the 1970s, Haugen put forward the concept of “language ecology”, which is defined as “the study of the interactions between any given language and its environment” (Haugen, 1972, p. 57). It is known as “Haugen model” in the study of language and ecology, a metaphorical research model that makes an analogy between the language environment and the natural environment. While the study of natural ecology focuses on the interactions between the various components in the ecosystem, the study of language ecology pays attention to the interactions between language and its geographical, ethnic, social, cultural, historical, and other factors. The focuses of the study of language ecology are language survival and development, language diversity, language standardization, endangered language protection, language vitality, language planning, etc., which are closely related to social development and cultural inheritance. Nowadays, social development and frequent human activities have led to the destruction of the natural environment on which human beings depend, and ecological issues have gradually become a hot topic. The 19th National Congress of the Communist Party of China proposed that the construction of ecological civilization is the millennium plan for the sustainable development of the Chinese nation, and language ecology is also an important part of the construction of ecological civilization. The language ecology of a city is inseparable from its construction and development. A harmonious language ecology can create pleasant environment, help the city’s construction of spiritual civilization, enhance its image, attract more foreign talents and investments, and further promote its development.

The most classic and widely quoted definition of “linguistic landscape” (LL hereafter) is “the language of public signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings” (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 25), which combines to form “the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration” (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 25). Thus, LL refers to any language signs that can be seen in the real world and is an important component of language ecology. The study of LL is a fine method for studying an important aspect of the sociolinguistic ecology of a city (Spolsky, 2008). In addition, the LL of a city has a direct impact on people’s lives, visualizes the city image, and presents the city’s landscape and cultural heritage. And it has a pivotal impact on the shaping of the city image and plays an important role in the construction of language ecology of a city.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, LL has gradually become a hot research topic in the field of sociolinguistics. With the development of society and the deepening of research, the scope of research subjects has been further expanded. LL not only refers to “the language of public signs” but also “words appeared or displayed in changing public spaces” (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009, p. 314). It includes a wider range of language signs on posters, graffiti, slogans, electronic display

boards, advertisements on buses, etc. Furthermore, according to the latest research, non-linguistic symbols such as images, sounds, music, colors, smells, etc. are also considered as the research subjects of LL.

It is believed that research on LL abroad has roughly gone through three stages: the first stage before 1997, the second stage from 1997 to 2007, and the third stage after 2008 (Xu, 2017). In the first stage, the concept of LL has not yet been put forward, and the study of LL is regarded as one branch of language study. However, some scholars have paid attention to the LL in some regions or big cities to study the local language use. For example, Rosenbaum et al. (1977) studied the language characteristics of street signs in Jerusalem. Tulp (1978) investigated the language use of billboards in Brussels, Belgium. And Monnier (1989) found that laws in Quebec, Canada had exerted a great influence on language signs in public spaces. In the second stage, the concept and functions of LL are formally proposed (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), and a theoretical analysis framework is formed. Scollon and Scollon (2003) proposed the theoretical method of “geosemiotics”, which has received great attention. In addition, Gorter (2006) published a collection of theses *Language Landscape: A New Approach to Multilingualism* and Backhaus (2007) published the book *Linguistic Landscapes: A Comparative Study of Urban Multilingualism in Tokyo*, both of which have contributed to the study of LL. In the third stage, LL has been integrated with many disciplines such as geography, sociology, political science, education, economics, etc., forming an interdisciplinary research trend. And a research academic community has gradually formed, and specialized academic conferences and journals, such as *Linguistic Landscape: An International Journal* launched in 2015, have appeared. All these demonstrate the characteristics of scale, organization and systematization of the study of LL. Multilingualism, the globalization of English, language policy, language awareness, etc. are the main perspectives of the study. And the research sites have gradually shifted from small urban places, such as city streets and ethnic minority areas, to relatively large geographical areas.

In contrast, the study of LL begins relatively late in China, and hasn't received enough attention. It is until 2014 that a relatively stable development has been seen (Fu & Bai, 2020), with an introduction to research perspective, theoretical construction, and research methods (Shang & Zhao, 2014). And initial progress has been made in empirical research since 2017. Compared with the research abroad, there is greater possibility of further research in China. Firstly, the case studies of LL are relatively insufficient with confined research sites. As the study of LL has traditionally focused on multilingualism, most case studies have been carried out in multilingual areas, including some large cities and ethnic minority areas. But in the past several years, there have been a small number of LL studies conducted in cities or regions with cultural characteristics (Sheng, 2019; Sheng & Zhang, 2020; Jin, 2020), and some achievements have been made. Therefore, it is essential to carry out more microscopic and solid case studies in broader and specific contexts (Zhang, 2020) to examine the characteristics of language landscapes in more geographical areas and explore the social phenomena behind the language. Secondly, the theoretical construction of research on LL is weak, with relatively narrow research perspectives. There are rich research theories abroad, including “geosemiotics” (Scollon & Scollon, 2003), SPEAKING model (Huebner, 2009), “language choice theory” (Spolsky, 2008), and “four structuration principles” based on sociological theory (Ben-Rafael, 2008), etc. However, since research theories have not yet been established in China, researchers have to carry out local analysis on the basis of those theories abroad. In addition, for there are two functions attached to the LL of a given territory: an informational function and a symbolic function (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), the study of LL should not be limited to the study of language use on the signs. The research perspectives should be extended to the issues such as status, language policy, cultural identity, and ideology behind the language. However, the studies in China have been mostly carried out from the perspective of translation, and there is a lack of in-depth research on symbolic functions.

This case study was carried out in Shaoxing, Zhejiang Province, China, which has a history of more than 2,500 years. Shaoxing was listed as one of the national historical and cultural cities in 1982 and awarded “Culture City of East Asia” in 2021. Instead of being in a large city or a minority area, the research sites are located in an ancient city with a long history. Therefore, in addition to examining the language use, more attention will be paid to the interactions between the LL and the environment in the city.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Research Questions

This study attempts to conduct a case study on the LL of Shaoxing, a historical and cultural city in China, from the perspective of linguistic ecology under the guidance of LL theories. And research questions are as follows: (1) What is the current situation of the LL in the city? (2) How is local language ecology reflected by the interactions between the LL and the environment in the city?

#### B. Research Instruments

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed in this study. Firstly, photographs of the language signs at the research sites were taken with mobile phones or digital cameras. The LL in this study is limited to linguistic symbols, and non-linguistic symbols are not included. Then the photographs were sorted and classified according to Backhaus' classification system in his Tokyo research, that is, an individual sign containing “any piece of text within a spatially definable frame” (Backhaus, 2007, p. 66) is considered one unit of analysis. And the signs with the same language or different languages but the same content are taken as one unit. Based on this, a total of 762 units of analysis

were collected, including road signs, information signs, warning signs, shop signs, posters, etc. After the collection, the frequency and proportion of each type of sign were counted. Secondly, qualitative approach was used by interviewing tourists to understand their attitudes and perceptions towards the LL at the research sites. In order to ensure that the interviewees could have more comprehensive and objective comments on the LL at the research case sites, the author led a student research team, who were conducting an investigation on the LL of Shaoxing ancient towns under the supervision of the author, to visit all the sites. The team, consisting of 10 members, all come from other regions rather than Shaoxing, so they can be identified as tourists. All students had interviews with the author after the visit. Each interview lasted about 5-10 minutes and was recorded by the author.

### C. Research Sites

Shaoxing, a prefecture-level city in Zhejiang Province, is located in the central and northern part of Zhejiang Province, East China, with Ningbo in the east and Hangzhou in the west. As a cultural and ecological tourism city with the characteristics of Jiangnan (south of the Yangtze River) town in China, it is also famous as a city of water, bridge, wine, calligraphy, and celebrities. In this famous ancient city, a large number of cultural relics and former residences of famous people are preserved. Shaoxing also owns splendid “Yue culture”, including the culture of water control, yellow wine, opera, bridge, and Tang poetry. Therefore, it is renowned as a “museum without walls”. In this study, several typical places considered to be the most famous and most frequented by visitors are selected as the research sites. They are The Native Place of Lu Xun, Shen’s Garden, Bazi Bridge, The Calligraphy Sage Historic Site, Former Residence of Zhou Enlai, and Cangqiao Historical Street (for a brief introduction, see Table 1), as well as the two busiest main streets in the central district, JIEFANG BEILU and ZHONGXING ZHONGLU. The LL at these research sites is typical and representative and, to some extent, could reflect the current situation of local LL and language ecology.

TABLE 1  
A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO THE SCENIC SPOTS

Name of the place	Brief introduction
The Native Place of Lu Xun	a place where Lu Xun, the famous writer and thinker, was born and lived in his youth, including several cultural monuments such as Former Residence of Lu Xun, Baicao Garden, Sanwei (Three-flavor) Study, Ancestral Residence of Lu Xun, Tugu (Village God) Temple, Changqing Temple, Garden of Folk Customs in Lu Xun’s Works, and The Memorial Hall of Lu Xun.
Shen’s Garden	a famous private garden in Shaoxing during the Southern Song Dynasty, famous for Lu You’s poem “Phoenix Hairpin”.
Bazi Bridge	a bridge known as the “overpass” in ancient China, which reflects the mature bridge-building technology in the Southern Song Dynasty.
The Calligraphy Sage Historic Site	the former residence of the famous scholars in Shaoxing: Wang Xizhi and Cai Yuanpei
Former Residence of Zhou Enlai	a place where Zhou Enlai, one of the founders of the People’s Republic of China, and his family were lived, typical of the architectural style in the Ming and Qing Dynasties.
Cangqiao Historical Street	a historical and cultural street with the features of the ancient city, which wins UNESCO Asia-Pacific Heritage Conservation Award of Merit Citation.

## IV. RESULTS

Based on “geosemiotics” of Scollon & Scollon and “three dimensions of space framework” of Trumper-Hecht (2010), together with several elements that need to be paid attention to in the study of LL in China, the research framework of this paper is formed. Therefore, the elements to be examined in this paper include language use, physical characteristics, cultural and historical elements, translation of texts on bilingual and multilingual signs, multimodal signs, and attitudes and perceptions.

### A. Language Use

#### (a). Number of Language Codes on Signs

The investigation showed that there were five language codes on the 762 signs. They were Chinese, English, Korean, Japanese, and Tibetan. According to the number of language codes on the signs, they were classified and counted as monolingual, bilingual and multilingual signs. Pinyin, as a tool to help with the pronunciation of Chinese characters, could also be found on the signs. Since Pinyin was inseparable from Chinese, Pinyin and Chinese were classified as one language code. And the results were given in Table 2. The proportion of monolingual signs in either Chinese or English was 65.8%, that is, approximately two-thirds of the signs were monolingual. Bilingual signs existed, but the proportion was not high. Some of them could be found on the road signs. And multilingual signs could only be found in some scenic spots, including S1, S2 and S5, accounting for more than 40%.

TABLE 2  
NUMBER OF LANGUAGE CODES ON SIGNS (PLACE)<sup>1</sup>

Place	Monolingual signs (N)	Monolingual signs (%)	Bilingual signs (N)	Bilingual signs (%)	Multilingual signs (N)	Multilingual signs (%)
S1	42	35.3	29	24.4	48	40.3
S2	37	39.4	11	11.7	46	48.9
S3	24	80.0	6	20.0	0	0
S4	57	73.1	9	11.5	12	15.4
S5	18	42.8	7	16.7	17	40.5
S6	128	91.4	12	8.1	0	0
R1	90	75.0	30	25.0	0	0
R2	105	75.5	34	24.5	0	0
Sum	501	65.8	138	18.1	123	16.1

Drawing on Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2006) dichotomy, LL can be identified into two broad categories: top-down signs and bottom-up signs. The dichotomy can help to facilitate our understanding of the language choices of different producers on signs. Top-down signs generally include road signs, notice signs, and name signs of places and institutions and they are produced by governments at all levels or local organizations. And bottom-up signs are mainly created by companies or individuals, including shop signs, advertising signs, etc. If the collected language signs were classified and counted according to this standard, we could get the results in Table 3. While 85.9% of bottom-up signs were monolingual, multilingualism signs could only be found in top-down signs, accounting for 32.6%. In addition, bilingualism and multilingualism were more common on top-down signs than on bottom-up ones.

TABLE 3  
NUMBER OF LANGUAGE CODES ON SIGNS (TYPE)

Type	Monolingual signs (N)	Monolingual signs (%)	Bilingual signs (N)	Bilingual signs (%)	Multilingual signs (N)	Multilingual signs (%)
Top-down	171	45.2%	84	22.2%	123	32.6%
Bottom-up	330	85.9%	54	14.1%	0	0%
Sum	501	65.8%	138	18.1%	123	16.1%

(b). *Distribution of Language Codes on Signs*

The combination mode of language on the signs presents the distribution of language codes. According to the results of the investigation, there were three modes. The monolingual mode referred to the one that Chinese characters (Chinese characters + Pinyin) or English was the only language code on the signs, while the bilingual mode included the one with the combination of Chinese characters and English, or Chinese characters and Tibetan. And there was only one multilingual mode, namely, "Chinese characters + English + Korean + Japanese". The language signs collected at the research sites were counted and calculated, and the results were shown in Table 4. The most common mode was "Chinese characters only", with a total number of 475 signs, accounting for 62.3%. The number of "Chinese characters + English" bilingual mode is close to that of the "Chinese characters + English + Korean + Japanese" multilingual mode. In addition, the bilingual mode could mainly be found on streets, while the multilingual pattern could mostly be seen in several scenic spots.

TABLE 4  
DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE CODES ON SIGNS (PLACE)

Place	Chinese characters only	Chinese characters Pinyin	+	English only	Chinese characters English	+	Chinese characters Tibetan	+	Chinese characters + English + Korean + Japanese
S1	40	1		1	28		1		48
S2	37	0		0	11		0		46
S3	21	3		0	5		1		0
S4	55	1		1	9		0		12
S5	18	0		0	7		0		17
S6	120	7		1	12		0		0
R1	84	4		2	30		0		0
R2	100	3		2	34		0		0
Sum	475	19		7	136		2		123

If the collected language signs were classified as top-down and bottom-up ones, we could get the results in Table 5. There are four combination modes on the top-down signs, namely, "Chinese characters only" (N=157), "Chinese characters + Pinyin" (N=14), "Chinese characters + English + Korean + Japanese" (N=123) and "Chinese characters + English" (N=84). And "Chinese characters only" was the prominent mode on the bottom-up signs.

<sup>1</sup> As for names of the places, "S" is short for "Scenic spot" and "R" for "Road". S1: The Native Place of Lu Xun, S2: Shen's Garden, S3: Bazi Bridge, S4: The Calligraphy Sage Historic Site, S5: Former Residence of Zhou Enlai, S6: Cangqiao Historical Street, R1: JIEFANG BEILU, R2: ZHONGXING ZHONGLU.

TABLE 5  
DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE CODES ON SIGNS (TYPE)

Type	Chinese characters only	Chinese characters Pinyin + English only	Chinese characters English + Chinese characters Tibetan + Chinese characters + English + Korean + Japanese
Top-down	157	14	0
Bottom-up	318	5	7
Sum	475	19	7

(c). *Code Preference*

The language codes are arranged in some sequence on the bilingual and multilingual signs, and the code in the dominant position is called preferred code. It may also have the most striking color. The results were given in Table 6 after the language signs collected at the research sites were counted and calculated. Though there were 261 bilingual or multilingual signs among 762 language signs, only two preferred codes, Chinese and English, were found. While Chinese was the preferred language code in most cases, English appeared sporadically.

TABLE 6  
PREFERRED CODE ON SIGNS (PLACE)

Place	Chinese	English
S1	75	2
S2	57	0
S3	6	0
S4	20	1
S5	24	0
S6	11	1
R1	25	5
R2	27	7
Sum	245	16

If the collected language signs were classified as top-down and bottom-up ones, we could get the results in Table 7. It showed that the preferred code on all the top-down signs was Chinese, and all the signs with English as the preferred code belonged to the bottom-up signs.

TABLE 7  
PREFERRED CODE ON SIGNS (TYPE)

Type	Chinese	English
Top-down	207	0
Bottom-up	38	16
Sum	245	16

B. *Physical Characteristics*

The physical characteristics of the LL can be summarized from the font, material, form, color of the language signs and the decorations surrounding them. According to the investigation at the research sites, most of the LL was well-designed with unique physical characteristics. As shown in Figure 1, 2 and 3, top-down signs such as direction



Figure 1 A Direction Sign



Figure 2 A Notice Sign



Figure 3 A Notice Sign

signs and notice signs in the scenic spots used dark boards with the same material, and there were white characters or letters on the boards and some pictures next to them. Most of the shop signs in the scenic spots used black boards with golden Chinese characters, the font of which might be in traditional, handwritten forms. And there might be some antique lanterns hanging next to the signs as decorations.

Some shop owners would like to use some shop signs in forms that were rather popular in ancient China, such as horizontal inscribed boards, couplets in Figure 4 and flag-like signs in Figure 5. Different from the shop signs in the scenic spots, those signs along the streets were transformed into the signs with uniform colors and fonts in the government renovation project, as shown in Figure 6. Although the majority of the signs were pleasant to eyes at the research sites, there were a few signs with illegible characters and letters on them. Examples were shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8.



Figure 4 A Shop Sign



Figure 5 A Shop Sign



Figure 6 A Shop Sign



Figure 7 A Warning Sign



Figure 8 A Notice Sign

### C. Cultural and Historical Elements

In the investigation, we found that the LL in Shaoxing contained rich cultural and historical elements. In addition to the fonts, plaques, couplets, and signs with unique characteristics mentioned above, there were many other elements that reflected the ancient atmosphere, including the handwriting of Wang Xizhi, the sage of calligraphy, on the walls of the historic site, advertisement signs of yellow wine popsicles and local snacks, shop signs with the character “Ge (阁)”, “Fang (坊)”, or “Xuan (轩)”, and place names such as “Bazi Bridge”, “Yuhua Bridge”, “Tishan Bridge” and “Duopo Lane” reflecting the culture of bridge or celebrities. As an example shown in Figure 9, information signs introducing celebrities, scenic spots and place names were the most direct way of reflecting of local culture and history.





Figure 9 An Information Sign

#### D. Translation of Texts on Bilingual and Multilingual Signs

After examining the Chinese-English translation on 261 bilingual and multilingual signs, the author found that most of the translation was standard and accurate, and only a few signs had translation problems, which could lead to misunderstanding or failure in understanding. The following were some examples of the existing problems. At the entrance of The Native Place of Lu Xun, the translation of “了解绍兴古文化，从水上开始” was “To know about the ancient culture of Shaoxing shall start from the water”. It might be better to add “we” before “shall start from the water”. In the instructions for taking a boat, some spelling and punctuation mistakes were found, such as “Please do not get no or off the boat” and “Do not put your head, hand or foot out of the boat”. By comparison, there were more mistakes on the warning signs. “办公区域，请勿入内” was translated as “Regional Office Do Not Enter Inside”. “小心落水” was translated as “Drowning carefully”. And “游客止步” was translated as “Tourist Stop”. There were also inconsistent translation versions. For example, “乌篷船码头” was translated in three different ways, as “Wupeng Boat Wharf”, “Wharf of Black-awning Boats” and “Pleasure Boat Pier”.

#### E. Multimodal Signs

LL includes linguistic symbols both in the form of text and in the form of picture, audio, and video. In the investigation, it was found that the multimodal forms of LL had become increasingly common. Pictures next to the texts, videos of the city or the scenic spots, and slogans on electronic screens were all considered as common multimodal language signs. Furthermore, tourists could easily obtain the audio or video introduction to the destination by scanning the QR code (Figure 10) with their smart phones at some research sites. Another example was shown in Figure 11. By scanning the QR code, tourists could listen to 100 stories about this ancient city, which were presented in four languages: Chinese, English, Korean and Japanese. These stories provided tourists with an opportunity to better understand the history and culture of Shaoxing during the trip.



Figure 10. A Multimodal Sign



Figure 11. A Multimodal Sign

#### F. Attitudes and Perceptions

In order to investigate tourists' different attitude towards LL in the scenic spots and on the streets, and also the general attitude towards LL in Shaoxing, they were asked firstly to give their opinion more concretely by evaluating the degree of satisfaction with LL. They gave their response on a Likert scale ranging from 1-“strongly dissatisfaction” to 5-“strongly satisfaction”. According to the results shown in Table 8, interviewees were satisfied with LL at the research sites. But comparatively, they were less satisfied with LL in the scenic spots than that on the streets. Then they were



asked to give their specific opinions on LL. The following were excerpts from the interview.

TABLE 8  
TOURISTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LL

Type	LL in the scenic spots	LL on the streets	LL in general
Mean	3.8	4	4

Excerpt 1

Most of the shops use wooden signs or plaques. The antique linguistic landscape is a major feature of this cultural and historical city, which improves the image of the city. Most signs on the streets, however, only meet the requirements of simplicity and clarity, and the overall style is different and somewhat dazzling.

Excerpt 2

Many signs use a combination of pictures and texts, which is easier for people to understand. However, some QR codes posted in the scenic spots are not waterproof, which makes them unable to be scanned after prolonged exposure to rain and sun. And some wooden signs or stone monuments are also damaged due to the exposure, causing difficulties in recognizing the characters and letters and finally leading to the failure to obtain the information correctly.

Excerpt 3

There are a variety of font styles on the signs, but sometimes they are too complicated to read. And some signs cause confusion for tourists due to translation, typesetting or punctuation problems, which are not conducive to the construction of the city image.

## V. DISCUSSION

### A. *The Interactions Between LL and Its Environment*

“Haugen Model” emphasized the relationship between language and its environment. Language and the environment interact and influence each other, that is, language depends on the environment, and the environment affects the generation, use and development of language; language is not only a tool for understanding the world, but also a tool that acts on the environment (Liu, 2018). The study of LL is first and foremost a study in the field of sociolinguistics, focusing on the study of “language”; meanwhile, LL is a form of landscape and also an important part of the environment. Therefore, there must be close and active interactions between LL and the environment.

The natural environment is a prerequisite for human survival and development and exerts a great impact on human beings. Therefore, the creation and production of LL is also influenced by the natural environment. Shaoxing is a city of water in the south of the Yangtze River, where rivers, lakes and bridges are rather common, so we can find “river”, “lake” or “bridge” in the names of places in Shaoxing. At the research sites, the names “Bazi Bridge” and “Yuhua Bridge” are related to this natural geographical environment. In addition, many signs are made of wood or stone, which brings a sense of nature, neatness, and simplicity, and are well integrated with the surrounding environment. Exquisitely made and properly placed signs will beautify the natural environment and improve the environmental quality.

LL is a mirror of society, reflecting all aspects of the social and cultural environment. First, the national language policy attaches great importance to and strictly regulates the national language. The legal status of Putonghua (standard Mandarin) and standard Chinese characters as “national standard spoken and written language” has been established since “Law of the People’s Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language” was enacted in 2001. And according to “National Standard of Geographical Names—Signs” in 2008, Chinese characters and Pinyin should be used on the signs of streets, lanes, and buildings in urban and rural areas. These regulations have been well implemented in the official signs, determining the dominance of Chinese on the language signs and reflecting the identity of the national language. Second, globalization has led to the diversity of language. In the natural environment, we advocate the protection of biological diversity, and we should likewise protect the diversity of language in the language ecological environment. As every scenic spot receives a certain number of foreign tourists every year, the language set on the signs must meet their needs. English is an international language, so English should be the second language used in the scenic spots in China. And relatively speaking, there are more Korean and Japanese tourists in Shaoxing, so there will be signs in Chinese, English, Korean and Japanese in the better-known tourist attractions. Some shop owners have established English or bilingual signs that seem more fashionable and international to attract more foreign guests and make more money. However, there are some exceptions. In some scenic spots, such as Bazi Bridge and Cangqiao Historical Street, tourists may be more interested in appreciating “cultural experience”, so bilingual or multilingual signs can seldom be found there. Third, the development of society and the advancement of science and technology have contributed to the emergence of multimodal language signs, which can be regarded as a symbol of modernization. The multimodal signs in the form of picture, audio and video provide tourists with rich information, presenting various forms of LL. Fourth, the history and culture of a city influence the creation and presentation of LL. The LL of the city is the carrier of the history and culture of the city, and contains its unique cultural essence. The ancient characters on the signs, the traditional sign forms, the unique names of the places, decorations and advertising signs that carry the regional culture can all give a strong sense of traditional local culture.

At the same time, LL also affects the social and cultural environment to a great extent. Posters on the roads and at the

scenic spots educate the public about socialist core values, social moral models, tradition and virtues, which fully embodies the educational function of LL and helps build a socialist society with advanced ethical standards. Furthermore, by telling stories about the history and culture through the LL, the history and culture of this ancient city could be inherited and developed, and the communication and exchange between different cultures could be realized.

### *B. Existing Ecological Problems*

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that there have been sound interactions between the LL and the environment at the research sites, showing harmonious language ecology at the same time. However, there are also some ecological problems that could exert a negative impact on the language ecology of the city.

First, some of the signs are in relatively bad condition and disorganized. As mentioned by some tourists in the interview, some signs have been damaged due to prolonged exposure to the natural environment. And some shop signs, especially those on the streets, are not standard or too personalized so that they are not in harmony with the surrounding environment. Since these signs have not been maintained and replaced in time by the administrative departments, their functions as instructions and advertisements have been lost. These signs not only fail to serve tourists, but also affect the image of the city. Second, multimodal language signs are not common enough. Nowadays, multimodal signs could only be accessed through electronic screens or QR codes by the tourists in a few scenic spots, which obviously can no longer satisfy and attract more tourists. Third, the proportion of bilingual and multilingual signs is not high. A total of 261 cases of bilingual and multilingual signs were collected at the research sites, accounting for 35.2%. And most of them were top-down signs. Most of the shop signs and direction signs on the streets were monolingual, which could not provide sufficient information for foreign tourists. Moreover, the audio or video obtained through the QR code is mostly in Chinese and can only serve domestic tourists. Fourth, there are still a few mistakes in the translation of the signs. Liu (2020) investigated the local language ecology from the perspective of LL translation in Sanya City, Hainan Province, and found that there were problems in terms of spelling, expression, information, and culture. As mentioned earlier, the author found similar problems in this study.

To address the existing ecological problems, first of all, the government and relevant administrative departments should strengthen supervision and management, and maintain, repair and even replace those unpleasant language signs on a regular basis. At the same time, they are supposed to actively introduce advanced technology and combine the technology with construction of LL to improve the quality of LL and build smart scenic spots and a smart city. Secondly, the staff of relevant departments and the citizens should try to improve their language skills and language ecological literacy. It is essential for them to learn relevant laws and rules on language use, and learn more than one foreign language, for it could help to improve language diversity and the quality of sign translation.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

Taking the LL of Shaoxing, a national historical and cultural city, as the research subject, this study investigated the LL of 6 famous scenic spots and 2 main streets in the old district of the city and conducted a small-scale interview among tourists. The main results of the present investigation can be summarized as follows. About two-thirds of the signs are monolingual with a relatively small proportion of bilingual and multilingual signs. "Chinese characters only" is the most common mode and Chinese is the preferred language code in most cases. The cultural and historical elements can be found not only in the font, material, form, color and surrounding decorations of the signs, but also in naming of the places, and the setting of information signs telling historical and cultural stories. The Chinese-English translation on bilingual and multilingual signs is standard, except for the mistakes on a few signs. The emergence of multimodal signs gives the information function of LL a better play. The results of interviews with the tourists show that the tourists are satisfied with the LL in Shaoxing, and believe that the LL reflects a good city image and has a high degree of cultural recognition, though there are still some areas that need to be improved. Based on the results, the author analyzes the harmonious state of language ecology and some existing language ecological problems from the interactions between LL and the natural, social and cultural environment.

An investigation on the LL of a region provides an insight into the current situation of the LL and discussion on the interactions between the LL and its environment can reveal the language ecology of the region. To a certain extent, the LL of a city can not only objectively reflect the city image, but also present the economic development of the city and the language and cultural identity of the citizens. The results of this study can provide some references for the language policy makers and city planning decision makers, in order to build better LL, create harmonious language ecology, improve the city image, and promote the construction of spiritual civilization and economic development in the city. However, it should be noted that this study is limited by the lack of interviews with residents and sign producers. Collecting information from them could have yielded fruitful insights into how the signs were created and perceived. Moreover, this research does not cover more sites in the city because of the lack of time and researchers. An investigation on LL at more sites and that in the virtual world, such as LL on webpages would produce a fuller picture of LL and a more nuanced analysis of language ecology in this city. Notwithstanding these limitations, it is essential to suggest that more researchers pay attention to the protection, inheritance and development of LL, and experts and scholars from a wider range of fields jointly conduct research on LL with Chinese characteristics, construct theoretical framework suitable for China's national conditions, and finally accelerate the process of globalization and

internationalization in China.

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# Moodle Integration Intervention in EFL Virtual Classroom and Academic Flow on University Students' Achievement in Writing

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**Abstract**—Teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) now have more opportunities to use a learning management system (LMS) like Moodle to enhance EFL learners learning. This study aimed to examine the effect of Moodle as a learning management system based on academic flow on EFL learners' writing skills. The quasi-experimental research was designed to assess the impact of Moodle-based on academic flow on EFL learners' writing skills. This study recruited 69 second-year English Education Department as the sample population. They were divided into experimental and control groups. This study used an easy writing test and Study Work-Related Flow Inventory (WOLF-S) as the instruments. The study applied analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to compare both control and experimental groups' findings. The findings revealed that EFL students' writing skills were improved by using Moodle in an EFL virtual classroom rather than using conventional methods. Academic flow becomes a covariate of influence between the independent and dependent variables. These findings consistently favored the experimental groups. Moodle helped EFL university students to improve their writing skills.

**Index Terms**—academic flow, moodle, virtual classroom

## I. INTRODUCTION

The traditional college education model has given way to an online one due to advancements in technology and access to knowledge. The rise of computer technological advances has affected the development of a new educational paradigm. Increasing diversity in learning methodologies and practices reflects the changing paradigm. In this digital age, electronic learning is fast expanding technologically due to the globalization of computer networks via the internet and the growth of mobile devices (Esichaikul et al., 2011). Changing traditional learning procedures is the impact of online education (Alturise, 2020). Higher education courses progressively integrate online technologies (Padayachee et al., 2018). Due to global information technology, online learning is increasingly integrated into the educational process. (IT). Researchers found that online education enhanced learners' critical thinking and creativity (Chootongchai & Songkram, 2018). The Learning Management System is an example of modern educational technology advancement (LMS). LMS is widely utilized in e-learning (Alturise, 2020; Zanjani et al., 2017). Using an LMS should help students learn more quickly and efficiently. A well-known LMS is Moodle, a web-based platform for providing educational services to individuals and institutions.

Moodle is an LMS platform that may be used for teaching and learning. Interactivity, multimedia content, collaboration, following guidelines, providing and receiving feedback, and strengthening previous learning materials have made Moodle a successful learning platform (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020). Moodle has been shown to improve students' language learning skills, develop metacognitive awareness, and promote learners' autonomy (Amandu et al., 2013). Other research indicates that Moodle can improve students' metacognitive awareness and independence in university English learning (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018). Students can use Moodle-based learning to learn languages outside of class, and they can choose internet resources that meet their needs (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020). Moodle has also been shown to help people actualize themselves and meet societal needs (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018). Using Moodle as a learning tool, students are satisfied with an encouraging, optimistic, and positive approach and attitude (Meray & Alkan, 2015). In other words, as mentioned earlier in Moodle, the application is expected to overcome low student engagement in learning.

The student's lack of academic engagement due to a lack of academic flow during the learning process makes the problems. Flow is an optimal state of focus on an organically driven task (Buil et al., 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Flow can be defined as a feeling of total immersion, joy, and internal drive (Bakker, 2008; Bakker et al., 2017). Enjoyment is expressed as the individual's comfort while executing the work. In contrast, intrinsic motivation becomes a driving factor, more commonly called internal drive. Academic flow affects the academic achievement of students (Özhan & Kocadere, 2020). Flow positively correlates with students' learning, satisfaction, and perseverance (Kim &

Seo, 2013; Lee, 2005; Park et al., 2020). Thus it can be known that flow becomes one of the factors related to academic achievement.

This study aims to determine how Moodle and academic flow affect university students' writing. Some researchers have previously focused on Moodle as a teaching moment and its impact on student motivation and learning attitudes. While the use of Moodle to improve writing skills is primarily understudied, academic flow is a mediator variable that has not been studied concerning Moodle use. This current study also analyses how the role of academic flow in improving students' writing skills.

#### Research Questions

This study aims to determine to what extent Moodle integration Intervention in EFL Virtual Classroom and Academic Flow influences university students' writing achievement. It is expected from this study that the intervention of Moodle integration based on academic flow can be identified as an effective strategy for improving university students' achievement in English Writing. The following research questions are:

1. Are the university students taught by Moodle integration intervention significantly better in university students' achievement in Writing than those providing other teaching methods?
2. To what extent does Moodle integration intervention based on the academic flow significantly affect students' achievement in Writing?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Moodle E-learning Platform at Higher Education

Moodle is a dynamic online learning platform that empowers students to take an active role in their education (Gulbinskienė et al., 2017). Moodle is part of the most popular LMS that can focus on learners-centred learning (Gulbinskienė et al., 2017). Lately, popular Moodle has been used in education (Gulbinskienė et al., 2017). Moodle is a web-based learning management system that enables educators to create learning resources with various functionalities, including hosting files, quizzes, assignments, chats, discussion forums, glossaries, and surveys (Schettini et al., 2020).

As an online education platform, Moodle was created to set up an LMS to manage a learning system (Costa et al., 2012). Moodle is a software platform that provides a systematic structure for participants to access numerous online learning resources that allow them to communicate using different communication methods (Schettini et al., 2020). Thus, it can be said that Moodle is an e-learning platform that is part of LMS. Moodle is a web learning media application program that serves as a medium of text and multimedia content, and this application provides facilities to access learning materials in virtual classrooms. This is because Moodle is interactive multimedia and provides students with a wide range of chances to participate, receive feedback, and reinforce their prior learning resources. The results also show that Moodle is currently one of the most effective LMS (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020).

From an educational perspective, Moodle is flexible to the learning community. Through this, lecturers with LMS can manage the student learning system when giving assignments, delivering materials, quizzes, etc. Likewise, Moodle will help students be more disciplined in doing tasks, answering exams, collaborating, and working with friends and others. As a tool for knowledge exchange and online instruction, Moodle is widely used. Moodle provides easily accessible communication suggestions such as forums, messages, chats, and comments (Amandu et al., 2013; Schettini et al., 2020). It allows both lecturers and students to communicate even outside the classroom. Moodle also has the function of creating collaboration and cooperation between groups. We can also upload and share sources of supporting materials, articles, videos, images, and anything else that participants may need to complete exercises and tasks. Moodle also does not limit the submission of tasks and the evaluation process. Moodle can schedule task submission and assessment. It can also be accessed via mobile phone (Papadakis et al., 2018). Moodle as a learning platform can be viewed as a means of collaboration in educational technology that can motivate students to learn independently actively and encourage them to think creatively and innovatively.

### B. Moodle and Writing Instruction

Encouraging students to write better can be done with Moodle-based learning systems. The Moodle program can offer a variety of writing teaching materials. The learning system is unlimited in space and time (Zelinskiy, 2020). A lecturer can provide materials, exams, questions, and quiz materials not bound by place and time, and a student can follow him from anywhere. PowerPoint presentations, Flash animations, and audio and video files can be used as instructional resources. These are some of the learning activities that Moodle enables: Assignment, Chat, Forum, Quiz, Survey, Lesson, and Scorm (Zelinskiy, 2020). The assignment is a facility used to distribute homework to students through the internet. They can obtain task materials and collect task outcomes by providing work results files. While Chat is a facility of Moodle that provides chat process facilities. Lecturers and students can conduct text dialogue online. Moodle also allows lecturers to create quizzes using multiple-choice, true-false, and short answer questions. These questions will be saved in a database that will be used to categorize reuse opportunities. Moodle also provides online discussion forums to discuss material on learning topics in a discussion forum. Another facility is the survey. The use of this feature is made possible through online polls. As well as lesson capabilities, Moodle provides the ability to design activities that are both entertaining and versatile in their content. Lessons consist of several pages, and at the end of

each page, there are generally questions accompanied by an answer key. Moodle is also equipped with Scorm (Ueda et al., 2018).

Storm supports the distribution of learning packages in Scorm format. Scorm is a standard distribution for electronic learning packages that supports text, animation, audio, video, and other learning materials. It is a standard distribution that the international standards organization developed. Using the Scorm format, writing learning materials can be used anywhere in other e-learning applications. Therefore, lecturers can exchange e-learning materials in writing learning that support each other's electronic learning materials. Lecturers create an e-learning material, store it in files in Scorm format, and provide the learning material anytime and anywhere.

### *C. Moodle and EFL Writing Skills*

A rising number of scholars are interested in incorporating technology into the EFL classroom. They study the effects of technology on EFL learning extensively (Almalki, 2020; Butarbutar & Simatupang, 2020; Hakim, 2020; Raygan & Moradkhani, 2020; Sosas, 2021). Many EFL teachers currently utilize technology such as Moodle to deliver learning materials. These studies are interested in using Moodle to help EFL students improve their writing skills (Bataineh et al., 2019; El-Maghraby, 2021; Fathi & Torabi, 2019; Ghoulali & Cecilia, 2021). Many language practitioners and linguists have used Moodle to teach EFL. Moodle helps EFL teachers to combine traditional classroom teaching methods with innovative technological tools (e-learning with the internet and learning platforms). Some students may feel uncomfortable studying in front of teachers, depending on their personality. Moodle can help teachers write English, manage their teaching materials, improve their methods of communication, and track interactions with students when needed. Moodle allows EFL students to continue their learning outside the classroom. Teaching is important, but students can benefit from working with technological media. Several activities help EFL learners improve their learning skills within the Moodle platform. It contains grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and writing activities. Lecturers can use several interactive activities in their courses.

Many collaborative tools are available in Moodle, such as a wiki that actively encourages students to participate in class discussions. It has a considerable impact on students' argumentative writing abilities when a wiki is integrated into Moodle (Alwaleedi et al., 2019). It's an excellent way for students to work together on a group project. Moodle allows students to write together in groups in every activity and course. Moodle's activities are based on the concept of communicative language instruction. Students can utilize the Wiki to collaborate on projects (Alwaleedi et al., 2019). Moodle content can be integrated into EFL lectures to create a collaborative learning environment. Authors can convey their feelings and thoughts in meaningful ways through textual communication. Authors can effectively share their feelings and thoughts through textual communication (Jani & Mellinger, 2015). Well-written essays allow students to express themselves verbally and in writing (Quvanch & Kew, 2020).

### *D. Student's Academic Flow*

On the nature and conditions of enjoyment for athletes, artists, and musicians, Csikszentmihalyi (2014) studies flow and its impacts on performance. Csikszentmihalyi (2014) initially presented the notion of flow to explain why some tasks are completed for intrinsic motivation (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). This best experience is called flow (Buil et al., 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Flow is described as the ideal state of attention on a job that is intrinsically motivated by something else (Buil et al., 2017). In a state of flow, time moves more quickly; the individual feels in command, and consciousness and activity merge into one seamless experience. There is no self-reflective thinking or concern for evaluation when the individual is so absorbed in the activity that the goals and actions are clear, and the feedback is unequivocal (Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Sumaya & Darling, 2018).

Individuals are said to feel the experience of flow when feeling absorption, enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation (Bakker, 2008; Bakker et al., 2017). Absorption is the ability to focus on the activity at hand, and enjoyment is expressed as the individual's comfort level while completing it. A person's self-motivation becomes a driving factor, more commonly called internal drive. As Csikszentmihalyi and colleagues point out, flow is a motivational driver for continuing activities that lead individuals to choose higher challenges beyond the flow experience (de Manzano et al., 2013). Individuals who experience flow are motivated to return to this rewarding experience (Buck et al., 2008). This condition is compared to when individuals have a low academic flow, and then they will show intense enthusiasm for learning and doing their tasks (Sumaya & Darling, 2018). Therefore, flow is considered a motivational component and motivation driver that facilitates a conducive learning process with a high level of engagement.

This study's findings revealed that flow might be experienced in the academic domain, among other things (Elias et al., 2010). Scauffelli et al. (2016) reported that 38% of students experience flow while studying. Flow has a positive relationship with students' learning, satisfaction, and perseverance (Kim & Seo, 2013; Lee, 2005; Park et al., 2020). Based on some results of practical analysis, the flow was found to be related to student engagement and learning (Gilman et al., 2009; Mesurado et al., 2016; Shernoff et al., 2003). Thus, it can be known that flow becomes one of the factors related to academic achievement. The learners and the learning context need to interact balanced to produce a sense of flow in the learning setting.

### *E. Components and Characteristics of Academic Flow*

The three flow components are absorption, enjoyment, and a person's motivation (Bakker et al., 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Flow theory relies heavily on these three elements. Absorption, enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation are the three most essential qualities. In the condition of absorption, one's full attention, awareness, and concentration are focused on the project at hand. For the individual to be unable to see or hear what is going on in the world around him. In the workplace, people who enjoy what they do are more likely to be happy and to provide good evaluations of the quality of the work they do. Flow experiences are enjoyable because of assessing cognitive and emotional aspects of the experience. When you're doing things, you get a sense of personal ease. Having a long-term interest in academic pursuits can be a motivating factor for people. Individuals who are intrinsically motivated seek joy and fulfilment from their work. This type of motivation is known as intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is a drive that originates from within the person to do things even when no one else notices. Self-motivation is a sort of intrinsic motivation. Therefore, students who are immersed, at ease, and genuinely driven in their academic learning activities are considered to be experiencing academic flow. This concludes that the flow of students' educational activities is composed of three components: absorption, enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation.

Csikszentmihalyi (2014) have divided the characteristic of academic into nine aspects (Buil et al., 2017; Maeran & Cangiano, 2013; Mesurado et al., 2016). (1) a goal, which is clear about what a person needs to do to attain the objective and understand what barriers and challenges may arise in the process. Clarity of purpose will lead to more satisfying results, which can be achieved in harmony with one's abilities. (2) Feedback, in the form of ongoing access to information about one's performance, is a second factor. Feedback pertains to the specifics of a task's success or failure. Its purpose is to enhance performance and identify potential improvements. Instantaneous feedback is offered. (3) A balance between abilities and challenges, or the individual's skills and the obstacles they confront, can be achieved. You can have fun in the classroom if you balance difficulties accepted with your skill level. While a challenge might serve as motivation, it can also serve as a means of victory. (4) A balance between attention and action makes actions appear effortless. The effect of this component is a narrowing of one's field of awareness and total immersion in the activity. As a result, conscious actions fade away and integrate with the effort. (5) Focused concentration, something related to focus and no space can interfere. Concentrated feelings occur when an individual is focused on one subject solely. Also, the focus is related to a high concentration degree on attention limits. This practice allows participants to focus and deepen their exploration. (6) A sense of control, a sensation of personal control over a circumstance or action, i.e. what individuals love, is not a sense of being controlled but a sense of being trained to exercise control over a challenging situation. (7) Loss of self-awareness attention disappears because the individual is integrated with the activity. (8) Time distortion occurs (there is a time unconsciousness when a person has dissolved in the activity being performed, making him unconscious of how much time has passed. Time seems to be running faster than usual. (9). A person acts in self-interest and does not expect a reward. According to Csikszentmihalyi (2014) experience combines autotelic and exoteric events. Exotic experiences are done for external motives, like receiving a gift. Autotelic experiences are driven by intrinsic motivation, delight, control, and self-desire and are not destined for future contributions.

Since it was first presented in 1990, these nine flow characteristics have emerged and are still being investigated in most studies today. The nine qualities could not be lowered; nevertheless, they noted that reducing one feature could omit critical sections of the flow description (Engeser & Rheinberg, 2008)

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Research Design

This research employed a quasi-experiment with an experimental and control group. This design is appropriate for causal relationships of two groups since external variables do not control the independent variable. There were two independent variables in the study using Moodle learning management system and conventional teaching managements. The covariate of academic flow was also included in the study. Extraneous influences were avoided to ensure the internal validity of the results acquired during the experiment's treatment. Internal threats such as sample selection bias, instrumentation bias, and regression bias were presumably considered.

#### B. Population and Sample

The participants in the study were undergraduate students from the Department of English Education in Malang, Indonesia. They were divided into two groups. Sixty-nine students from the academic year 2021/2022 served as the sample for this study. The participants were purposively selected from two groups, A and B, through a targeted recruitment process. Class A consisted of thirty-five (35) university students, whilst class B comprised thirty-four (34). The university students were drawn from two different classrooms and divided into two groups: the experimental group (35 students), which used Moodle, and the control group (34 students), which used traditional methods. The following criteria were used to determine which groups to put together: (1) the same lecturer taught A and B in both English courses; (2) because this was educational setting research, it was impossible to rearrange the lessons in either English class.

#### C. Instruments

The tests and Work-Related Flow Inventory (WOLF-S) were the instruments employed in the research. The test was separated into two types: a pre-test and a post-test, presented to the experimental and control classes, respectively, before and after the intervention. Meanwhile, WOLF-S was utilized to gather information about university students' academic flow and the impact on writing skills. The results of writing tests are evaluated using evaluation methods developed by (Oshima & Hogue, 2014). The kind of test offered to learners was a test of writing descriptive paragraphs in English that has been tailored to the theory of writing descriptive paragraphs in good and correct English. Learners were presented with a variety of themes that have been tailored to the general framework of descriptive paragraphs. An expert validated the test of writing descriptive paragraphs.

#### D. Data Analysis

This study used ANCOVA to examine whether or not the academic flow variable affected the writing skills of EFL university students in both experimental and control groups. This analysis used two different sorts of statistical tests. The T-Test was the first, and the ANCOVA was the second. Both the T-Test and the ANCOVA tests were used to determine whether or not the results were statistically significant. Tests were administered to determine whether or not there was a difference in writing skills between the experimental and control groups.

### IV. RESULTS

Both the experimental and control groups have identical mean scores, which allows us to compare the influence of Moodle and traditional learning on students' writing skills. They had scored before receiving Moodle as a management system of learning. The T-Test findings are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS BEFORE TREATMENT WITH MOODLE

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviations	t	DF	Sig.
Experiment	35	73.83	7.168	1.941	67	.056
Control	34	70.24	8.187			

Table 1 showed no statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups' mean scores (70.24) and the experimental group (73.83). The pre-test scores of the experiment and control groups were also compared;  $p = .56 > .05$ . It was not significant at .05. The two groups did not differ in their pre-test performance before the treatment was administered as a result.

TABLE 2  
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AFTER TREATMENT WITH MOODLE

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviations	t	DF	Sig.
Experiment	35	82.06	8.633	2.777	67	.007
Control	34	75.74	10.235			

Table 2 showed a statistically significant difference between the experiment group's mean post-test scores (82.06) and the control group's mean post-test scores (75.74). The post-test scores of the experiment and control groups were also compared;  $p = .007 < .05$ . It was significant at .05. The two groups differed in their post-test mean score after the treatment. As a result, it is possible to conclude that there was a statistically significant difference in students' writing skills between the experimental and control groups after Moodle treatment was implemented. The following ANCOVA in Table 3 illustrates the influence of the academic flow covariate as a mediator variable on students' writing skills.

TABLE 3  
THE IMPACT OF MOODLE AND ACADEMIC FLOW ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING SKILLS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1847.463 <sup>a</sup>	4	461.866	6.117	.000	.2177
Intercept	2514.616	1	2514.616	33.304	.000	.342
Academic Flow	663.349	1	663.349	8.786	.004	.121
Moodle	475.724	1	475.724	6.301	.015	.090
Error	4832.305	64	75.505			
Total	436677.000	69				
Corrected Total	6679.768	68				

Note: a R Square = .277 (adjusted R Square = .231)

Table 3 showed a statistically significant difference in students' writing skills ( $F_{\text{value}} = 6.301 > F_{\text{table}} = .45$ , and the level of statistical significance is  $.015 < .05$ ). It demonstrated that giving Moodle treatment impacted the students' writing achievement. It can also be shown in Table 3 that  $F_{\text{value}} = 8.876 > F_{\text{table}} = .45$ , and the level of significance was  $.004 < .05$ , indicating that the covariate academic flow has a substantial impact on the students' writing skills. The difference in mean scores of students' writing skills between the experimental group (82.06) and the control group (75.74) indicates that giving Moodle had a more significant impact on students' writing skills than the receiving Moodle. Also revealed in the study was the importance of academic flow in the development of students' writing skills.



## V. DISCUSSION

The findings indicated a meaningful difference between the group given treatment with Moodle and those treated conventionally. The experimental group had better writing skills than the control group. The findings of this study are corroborated by prior research, which found that Moodle could assist EFL students in improving their writing skills through online courses (Bataineh et al., 2019; El-Maghraby, 2021; Fathi & Torabi, 2019; Ghouali & Cecilia, 2021). The experimental group performed significantly better in EFL writing than the conventional group. This is since learning through Moodle provides an opportunity for a wide variety of students to collaborate, give and receive feedback from lecturers, and strengthen previous learning materials (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020). While in conventional learning, the atmosphere in the classroom tends to be teacher-centred, resulting in students who are passive and less able to encourage themselves, as well as fewer opportunities to collaborate in learning. Students are more likely than not to merely listen to material delivered by their instructors rather than participating in the direct performance. As evidenced by prior studies, Moodle can drive students to improve their language abilities and help students build metacognitive awareness and foster a sense of self-determination in the subject they are studying (Amandu et al., 2013). Other studies have found that Moodle can help students enhance their metacognitive awareness while increasing their sense of autonomy when learning the English language at universities (Gulbinskienė et al., 2017). Moodle-based learning can encourage students to learn languages online outside of the classroom, and they are free to choose the internet resources that best suit their interests (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020). These findings reveal that Moodle helps students enhance their EFL writing skills. This is because students will quickly overcome their social needs. The results are also in accordance with prior studies that reported that Moodle helps individuals actualize themselves and cope with social demands (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018).

Due to Moodle's flexibility, EFL students can continue their education even when not in class. For teachers, enforcing this Moodle is vital in teaching via electronic media. Moodle provides a platform for students to collaborate on their writing. This study's findings lead us to conclude that Moodle can assist EFL teachers in combining traditional classroom teaching methods with internet-based technology tools and learning platforms to improve student outcomes. Through Moodle, EFL students can continue their learning outside of the classroom. The importance of teachers' rules in learning aids EFL students in developing their writing skills.

Likewise, students' academic flow becomes a covariate influence between students' treatment and writing skills. This is confirmed by prior research findings, which revealed that Moodle could motivate students to improve their language learning skills, help develop metacognitive awareness, and encourage autonomy of learners' subjects (Amandu et al., 2013). Additionally, Moodle increased students' metacognitive awareness and promoted their sense of independence in university-level English learning (Gulbinskienė et al., 2017). Moodle-based learning is a factor that can motivate students to learn languages online outside the classroom, and they are free to choose internet resources (Aikina & Bolsunovskaya, 2020). These findings also supported previous research reporting that Moodle helps individuals actualize themselves and cope with social needs (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018). It was also in line with an earlier study identifying the use of Educational technologies such as Moodle applications in learning and teaching (Goh et al., 2020). This study also showed that academic flow had a significant influence. The findings indicated that flow might be perceived in education (Elias et al., 2010). Another study reported that 38% of students experience flow while studying (Scaufelli et al., 2016). Flow is positively correlated with learning, satisfaction, and perseverance (Kim & Seo, 2013; Lee, 2005; Park et al., 2020). The flow was related to students' academic involvement (Özhan & Kocadere, 2020) and referred to perfectionists through engagement as a mediator (Ljubin-Golub et al., 2018). When one is in a state of flow, time seems to move faster, one has a greater sense of control, and one's consciousness and activity become one. There is no self-reflective thought or dread or worry about evaluation in a state of total immersion in the action so that nothing else matters (Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Rogatdo, 2007; Sumaya & Darling, 2018).

Furthermore, based on some results of practical analysis, the flow was found to be related to student engagement and learning (Gilman et al., 2009; Mesurado et al., 2016; Shernoff et al., 2003). Students with a high academic flow can help to focus on all educational activities. Every student needs flow in the academic field because it can provide positive results to improve their academic achievement. Thus, it can be known that flow becomes one of the elements related to academic involvement. Flow in the context of learning can be created due to interaction between learners with education, namely a balanced combination of challenges and skills.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the statistical analysis results, this study identified two conclusions: (1) it was found that Moodle integration in EFL virtual classrooms was more effective than conventional in enhancing university students' achievement in writing English. The use of Moodle in the global era can be a substitute solution for effective and more exciting learning strategies. Using Moodle as a learning tool makes students have an approach and attitude that is encouraging, optimistic, and positive, satisfaction in learning. (2) Academic flow becomes a covariate of influence between the independent and dependent variables. As a covariate, the academic flow has a role in influencing independent and dependent variables in this study. Students with a high academic flow can help to focus on all academic activities. Every student needs an academic flow because it can provide positive results to improve their

academic achievement. Thus, it can be known that academic flow becomes one of the factors related to academic achievements, such as writing skills.

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# A Review on Vocabulary Learning-Designed MALL Applications in the EFL Context

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**Abstract**—This review synthesizes the role of applications designed for vocabulary learning in Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in previous studies in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context from 2010-2022, according to a set of criteria: (quasi) experimental studies, open access peer-reviewed articles and book chapters, types of applications installed on smartphones, vocabulary learning in the EFL context, students, and publication period (2010-2022). Specifically, the paper emphasizes the role that vocabulary learning-tailored applications have played in impacting learners' EFL vocabulary learning (henceforth EFLVL) process. The papers that have met the criteria (51 out of 146) were examined using a set of categories: context of the study, level of education, types of applications, learning impact, major, and gender. The analysis showed that specifically designed mobile applications play an important role in boosting learners' EFL vocabulary knowledge, motivation, attitudes, and perceptions. Research gaps and future recommendations are suggested based on the findings.

**Index Terms**—applications, mobile-assisted language learning, review, vocabulary learning

## I. INTRODUCTION

Mobile technology has been introduced to almost all sectors of our life, and education is no exception (Celik & Yavuz, 2018). This is due to the unique features that these devices offer (such as mobility) so people can use them anytime and anywhere. Learning vocabulary through mobile devices has received significant attention from researchers in the past two decades; more specifically, there has been extensive research on the use of mobile technology for learning English as a foreign language (EFL). In order to emphasize the benefits and drawbacks of mobile devices in the EFL context, the existing research on utilizing mobile devices in EFLVL requires a synthesis. Therefore, the current study reviewed designed mobile applications devoted to vocabulary learning in the EFL context; the existing research on the use of mobile applications on EFLVL was reviewed in various aspects, such as research features and learning impact to assess the effectiveness of mobile applications in boosting vocabulary learning in the EFL context, provide suggestions to apply such applications in vocabulary learning, and highlight research gaps for future investigation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. EFL Vocabulary Learning

Learning vocabulary is a critical issue in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). In order for a learner to speak, write, read, or listen in English, they must have a good command of vocabulary to better understand and communicate in that language. However, the process of EFLVL may be hindered by various obstacles such as demotivation, lowered interaction, and decreased engagement, as it is widely claimed that learners learn vocabulary in class for exams and grades, but rarely maintain that vocabulary for the long term. This claim pushes teachers to go further and cultivate in learners the love of words and their importance in every practice of the EFL learning process. This can be achieved by engaging learners in attractive and pleasing modes of learning such as games and animations as well as augmented and virtual reality centered on topics they like. Therefore, stakeholders, namely teachers, need to ensure that learners maximally benefit from in-class education through practicing the targeted vocabulary in the outside world (Nisbet & Austin, 2013). Learners and educators cannot sit aside and merely observe the technological changes in education; they must explore and attempt to utilize these technologies (Deng & Trainin, 2015). For ensuring an effective educational process for vocabulary, Graves (2009) proposed a four-pillar model for instruction: teaching individual vocabulary, learning vocabulary strategies such as games, flashcards, and dictionaries, making language experiences available through listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and raising awareness of word usage and meaning in learners. This model can be best utilized by putting mobile technologies such as mobile applications in the learners' hands, to stimulate their desire to employ the vocabulary they learn in real life and thus feel the benefits of the vocabulary-learning process.

### B. Mobile Applications

At present, technology is being introduced in all parts of our life due to its numerous advantages, such as ease of use, access anytime and anywhere, efficiency, safety, time and cost savings, etc. The English language is considered an

important part of the technological world; therefore, learners need to master the English language to interact and communicate with friends, classmates, teachers, and people on social media, as well as search for information, make purchases, etc.

A mobile application is a software program for a mobile phone operating system (Nisbet & Austin, 2013). A high percentage of students, especially in wealthier countries, have smartphones connected to the internet. Thus, they can make use of these devices to download free applications to assist them in learning, memorizing, recalling, and employing new words effectively. Nisbet and Austin (2013) argue that mobile applications can be effective means for vocabulary improvement among EFL learners. There has been a large positive connection between mobile technology use and the EFLVL process (Lin & Lin, 2019).

With the advent of mobile technology and learners' urgent need to improve their EFL vocabulary knowledge, stakeholders must consider the benefits of this technology being in the learners' hands and work on solutions that draw their attention to improve their EFLVL process. Some solutions include using mobile devices to write software in different modes, such as games, flashcards, animations, and virtual reality, to help learners acquire more vocabulary. Alzahrani (2015) argued that mobile technologies help develop vocabulary in the EFL context through short messages, games, and digital flashcards. Ball (2011a) argued that technology can contribute to language learning by enhancing learner autonomy, transferring skills to other parts of life, increasing learners' interaction and engagement, boosting their motivation, providing them with quick feedback, and tracking their progress easily. Yuditseva (2015) synthesized the role of games in terms of EFLVL enhancement and suggested effective strategies, such as word repetition, use of contextual clues, interaction with native speakers of the English language, and images.

The employment of mobile applications depends on the design of the application. While some applications are commercially programmed, others are made based on the context of the material, especially those designed and used by researchers. Commercial mobile applications for vocabulary improvement impose challenges, such as a lack of opportunity to produce in the target language, absence of context to present in the new vocabulary, and a lack of instruction on some aspects of word knowledge (Pires, 2018). Celik and Yavuz (2018) argued that mobile applications for vocabulary learning are classified into literal and contextual. The literal applications include learning vocabulary in isolation through tools such as lists and flashcards whereas contextual applications assist learners with vocabulary acquisition through strategies such as guessing, predictions, previewing, making inferences, etc.

In light of the existing literature on EFL vocabulary learning and the related use of mobile technology, this review contributes to the literature by examining the research features and impact of mobile applications specifically designed for EFLVL in previous research from 2010-2022. Therefore, this review aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the research features of the reviewed studies on vocabulary learning-designed applications in EFL contexts?
2. In what ways do mobile applications designed for vocabulary learning impact learners' vocabulary learning process in EFL contexts?

### III. METHODS

#### A. Data Collection

A two-step filtering process was carried out in searching for the previously published related studies on the use of mobile applications in the EFLVL process. While searching for the related studies, the title and abstract of the study were checked against the proposed criteria. After the initial screening, the study was downloaded, and a thorough investigation following the criteria for inclusion was applied.

In searching for the related studies, some key terms were employed, including vocabulary learning, vocabulary acquisition, mobile-assisted language learning, mobile applications vocabulary learning/ development, dictionaries, flashcards, and games. Also, the key terms were combined to find the targeted papers. The main search engines used to search for the papers included Google scholar, researchgate, academia, ScienceDirect, Sage Open, Springer, ProQuest, EBESCOhost, Eric, IGI InfoSci Journals, Tylor & Francis Online, and IEEE Access through Saudi Digital Library (SDL).

In order to meet the exclusion and inclusion criteria of papers, the following table (Table 1) shows the inclusion criteria used in this review.

TABLE 1  
INCLUSION CRITERIA OF THE STUDIES

N	Category	Criteria
1	Research design	Quasi-/experimental studies
2	Publication	Open access articles or book chapters published in peer-reviewed journals.
3	Period	Between 2010-2022
4	Field of study	EFL vocabulary learning
5	Technology	Vocabulary learning-designed applications installed on smartphones

The study aims to analyze the studies carried out on the impactful role of mobile applications on EFLVL. Therefore, the review's criteria have included quasi-experiments and true experiments in papers published as book chapters and articles in open access, peer-reviewed journals between 2010 and 2022. Also, the review considered the studies that focused on specifically tailored mobile applications devoted exclusively to vocabulary learning. In addition, the review included only studies on learning vocabulary in English as a second language (EFL). The data collection resulted in 146 studies. After applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria, 51 articles were selected to be analyzed in the review: book chapters (N = 2) and journal articles (N = 49).

### B. Data Analysis

The research features in the coding sheet were developed based on the study by Persson and Nouri (2018). These features must exist in any study. The coding sheet analyzed 51 studies that met the inclusion criteria. In addition to the research features, it included basic information such as the title, author, publication type, and year. Each publication had a coding sheet. Table 2 shows the major features synthesized in the review.

TABLE 2  
RESEARCH FEATURES OF THE EXAMINED STUDIES

N	Category	Details	Purpose
RQ1	What are the research features of the reviewed studies on vocabulary learning-designed applications in EFL contexts?		
1	<i>Educational level</i>	- Level (school, university)	- sheds light on research areas and existing gaps for research in the future
2	<i>Instrumentation</i>	- Instruments used in the studies to address the research questions	- sheds light on research areas and existing gaps for research in the future
3	<i>Context of the study</i>	- The country where the reviewed studies took place	- emphasizes the regions and countries that take care of investing in mobile applications to facilitate the learning of EFL vocabulary
4	<i>Participants' genders</i>	- Gender (male, female, both)	- assists in revealing any differences in EFL vocabulary learning based on gender
5	<i>Course subject</i>	- The learning subject in which learners utilized mobile applications to improve their EFL vocabulary learning	- helps highlight how effective mobile applications were in vocabulary learning based on the learning subject
6	<i>Treatment period</i>	- How much time the treatment programs lasted in the examined studies	- helps assess the effectiveness of the treatment period on learners' use of mobile applications to learn vocabulary in EFL contexts
7	<i>Mode and type of applications</i>	Software (researcher-developed, commercial, etc.)	- sheds light on specific mobile applications used and highlights future research gaps
RQ2	In what ways do smartphone applications designed for vocabulary learning impact learners' vocabulary learning process in EFL contexts?		
8	<i>Vocabulary Learning impact</i>	- Listing the findings of the impact of mobile devices EFLVL process in EFL contexts	- overviews the impact of using mobile devices in EFL contexts on the EFLVL process (RQ2)

Table 2 includes the suggested research features to be examined in this review in finding answers to the research questions. The research features will explore the educational levels, both non-tertiary ("school") and university. Also, the research methods—quantitative, qualitative, or mixed—will be investigated. In addition, the context of the studies will be synthesized, as well as the participants' gender. Furthermore, the course subjects and treatment period will be analyzed to check the effectiveness of time on the learners' use of mobile applications in the EFLVL process. Moreover, the type of mobile applications and modes of learning will be studied to uncover the learners' improvements in EFLVL concerning knowledge, motivation, attitudes, and perceptions. Finally, the review will scrutinize the impactful role of mobile applications on the EFLVL process.

For the purpose of data collection and analysis, a coding sheet was prepared and checked via inter-coding reliability. Another rater coded a sample (11 out of 51) of the criteria-met studies using the sheet. The rapprochement between the two raters reached .92.

## IV. RESULTS

RQ 1: *What are the research features of the reviewed studies on vocabulary learning-designed applications in EFL contexts?*

### A. Educational Level

The table below (Table 3) displays the educational level examined in the reviewed studies (N = 51).

TABLE 3  
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Educational Level	Number	Percentage
Tertiary level	36	71%
Nontertiary (school) level	15	29%
Overall	51	100%

According to Table 3, 36 out of 51 studies examined the use of mobile applications designed for vocabulary learning in the EFL context at the tertiary level of higher education institutions. This number ( $N = 36$ ) represents 71% of the reviewed studies whereas only 15 (29%) studies were conducted at the school level.

### B. Instrumentation

Table 4 shows the research design methods applied in the reviewed research. The methods come under three classifications: quantitative instruments, qualitative instruments, and mixed methods. The quantitative methods came first: Thirty (69%) studies utilized quantitative instruments such as tests, questionnaires, or checklists. The use of tests, such as pre-post-delayed tests was reported in all the quantitative studies.

TABLE 4  
INSTRUMENTATION

Instrumentation	Instruments	Frequency	Overall	Percentage
Quantitative instruments	Test	17	30	69%
	Questionnaire & test	11		
	Test & checklist	2		
Mixed methods	Test, interview, & open questionnaire	5	17	33%
	Test & open questionnaire	3		
	Test & interview	3		
	Observation, interview, & questionnaire	1		
	Open & closed questionnaires	1		
	Interview, test, & diaries	1		
	Test, focus group, observation, & self-reflection	1		
	Test, logs, & observation	1		
	Questionnaire, interview, observation, & test	1		
Qualitative instruments	Interview	2	4	8%
	Observation & interview	1		
	Records	1		
Overall			51	100%

The use of mixed methods, such as tests, interviews, questionnaires, observation, and reflections was reported in 17 (33%) studies. Only four studies (8%) applied qualitative instruments—interviews, observation, and records. The use of tests received the majority share, with 44 out of 51 (78%) of the reviewed studies reporting this instrument. This result is not surprising, as the most examined studies explored learners' EFL vocabulary knowledge and retention through mobile applications.

### C. Context of the Studies

Table 5 overviews the context of prior research on using mobile applications designed specifically for EFL vocabulary learning (EFLVL). As seen in the table below, all the reviewed studies centered on three continents: Asia, Europe, and Africa. Asia came in first place with 35 (69%) studies, followed by Europe with 13 (25%) studies, while Africa came in last place with only three (5%) studies.

TABLE 5  
CONTEXT OF THE STUDIES

Country	Frequency	Total	Continent	Percentage
Taiwan	8	35	Asia	69%
China	7			
Saudi Arabia	5			
Iran	4			
Malaysia	3			
Japan	3			
Indonesia	3			
Oman	1			
Thailand	1			
Turkey	9	13	Europe	25%
Spain	2			
Netherlands	1			
Czech Republic	1			
Egypt	2	3	Africa	5%
South Africa	1			
Total	52	51	3	100%



At the level of countries, the review process revealed that 15 countries are interested in researching vocabulary learning via mobile applications. Specifically, Turkey (Europe) was reported as the most active and interested country in researching the utilization of mobile applications in learning EFL vocabulary, followed by Taiwan ( $N = 8$ ) and China ( $N = 7$ ) in Asia. Oman and Thailand in Asia, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic in Europe, and South Africa in Africa were the least reported countries, with ( $N = 1$ ) for each. These results may reflect the amount of importance and interest that learning vocabulary mediated by mobile applications in EFL contexts has for these countries.

#### D. Gender

Figure 1 depicts the genders of the participants who had contributed in past research on mobile applications for learning EFL vocabulary.

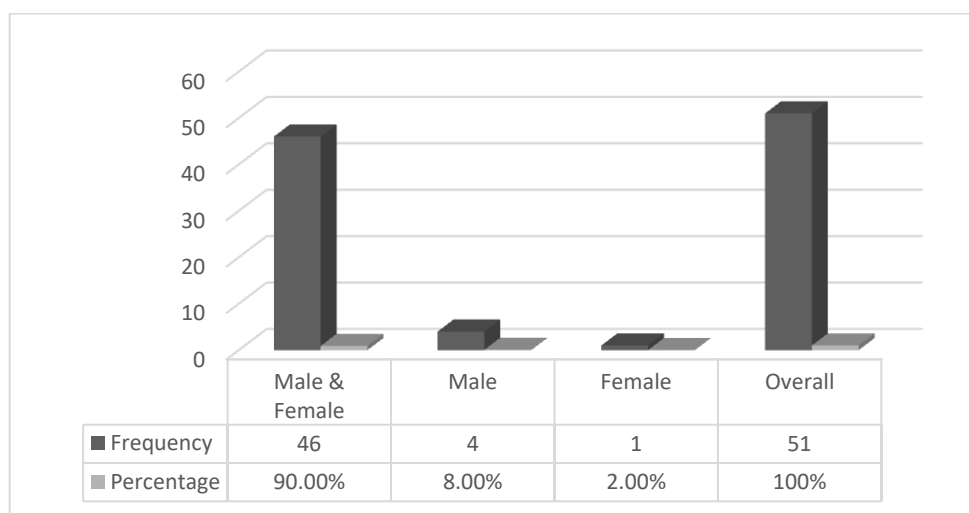


Figure 1 Participants' Genders in the Examined Studies

Figure 1 shows that the majority of the reviewed studies ( $N = 46$ : 90%) had both genders—males and females—whereas four studies (8%) in Saudi Arabia were sampled exclusively from male students. Only one (2%) study in Iran had female participants. According to the analysis of the coding sheet, the studies that had only male or only female participants were located in countries such as Saudi Arabia and Iran, where the education system is gender-segregated due to religious beliefs.

#### E. Subject

Figure 2 displays the course subjects where mobile applications were utilized to learn EFL vocabulary in prior research.

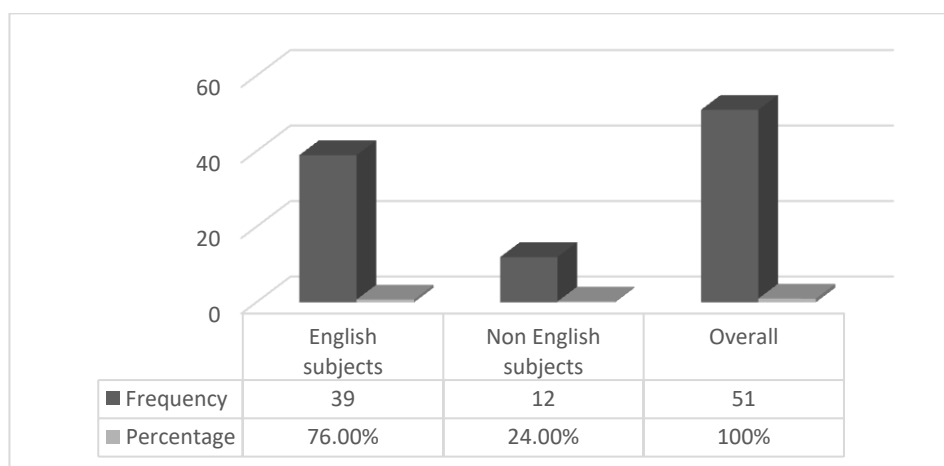


Figure 2 Course Subjects in the Examined Studies

English subjects were examined in 39 (76%) studies whereas non-English subjects such as arts, management, engineering, pharmacy, statistics, etc. were examined in 12 (24%) studies that utilized mobile applications to learn EFL vocabulary.

#### F. Treatment Period

Figure 3 overviews the treatment periods that were applied in using mobile applications in learning EFL vocabulary in the reviewed studies. As seen in the figure below, the treatment was split into two phases: 1-10 weeks and above 10 weeks.

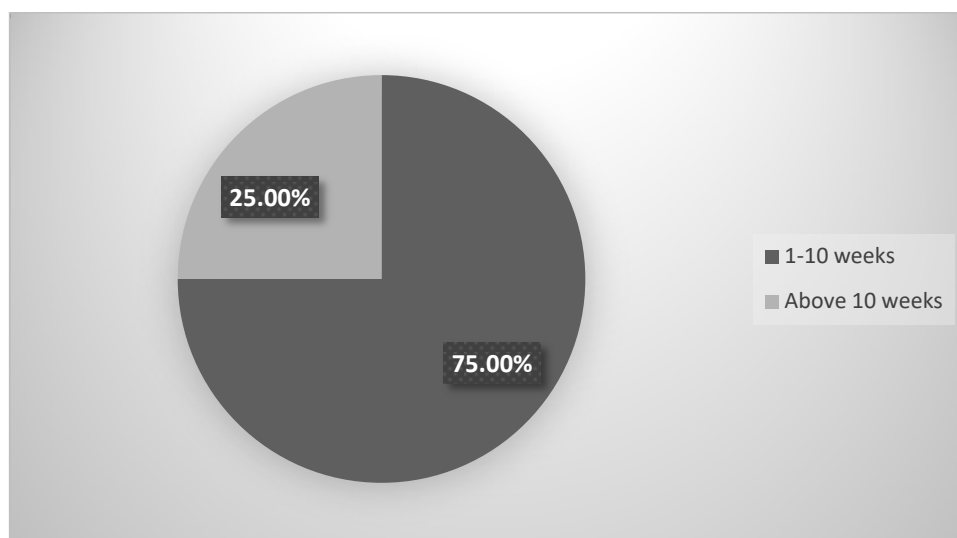


Figure 3 Treatment Period in the Examined Studies

The analysis revealed that 38 (75%) studies had a treatment period between one and ten weeks whereas 13 (25%) studies applied a treatment period longer than ten weeks. This result indicates that the short treatment periods may not reflect the real efficiency of mobile applications in the EFL vocabulary learning (EFLVL) process very well.

#### G. Mobile Applications

Table 6 presents the modes and names of the mobile applications designed for learning EFL vocabulary. The coding sheet revealed that there were two types of mobile applications tailored for EFL vocabulary learning (EFLVL): commercial applications (N = 12) and self-developed applications (N = 30). Also, it was revealed that the self-developed mobile applications offer a curriculum-based context, whereas the commercial applications are not part of the curriculum taught in schools or universities. The commercial applications outside the course context have raised issues related to students' boredom and decreased motivation due to the lack of the materials' relativity to the course and assessments, especially in treatments that last longer.

TABLE 6  
APPS USED IN THE EXAMINED STUDIES

Mode	Application	Frequency	%
Flashcard-based mode	Quizlet, Memrise, Cram, AWL Builder Multilingual, ECTACO vocabulary system, AR Flashcards, Rememba, MyEVA Mobile	18	35%
Game-based mode	Mobile English Learning Application, Detective ABC, Role-play adventure video game (RPG), gamified word learning app Books vs Brains@PolyU, Mobile English Vocabulary Learning App designed with game-related functions (MELVA-GF), VocabGame, Game-based vocabulary learning APP, Mobile game-based English vocabulary practice system, English vocabulary learning app with a self-regulated learning mechanism (EVLAPP-SRLM)	10	19.6%
Others	Lexical Spreadsheet Application, The Spaced Repetition System, White smoke, VocabTutor, The mobile app, VocUp, MALL program, VocaStyle, Word Learning, Agnlictina	10	19.6%
Dictionary-based mode	Mobile dictionary (SPEARA), E-dictionaries, Online dictionary, Electronic dictionaries, BlueDict, Oxford Dictionary, Android Online Dictionary, CollocatApp	8	15.6%
Animated-based mode	(My English Idiom Learning Assistant (MEILA), Mobile vocabulary system, Mondly	3	5.9%
Augmentation-based mode	Augmented reality under visuospatial bootstrapping (AV-VSB), ARealSpeech Application	2	3.9%

The table above shows that six learning modes were reported in previous research on EFL vocabulary learning (EFLVL): flashcards, games, dictionaries, animations, virtual reality, and others. Eighteen (35%) studies implemented mobile applications that included flashcards, such as Quizlet, Cram, Memrise, and Rememba. Ten (19.6%) studies used game-based applications, such as Detective ABC, VocabGame, and Game-based vocabulary learning APP. Very few studies used animations (N = 3; 5.9%) and virtual reality (N = 2; 3.9%) in EFLVL.

RQ 2: In what ways do smartphone applications designed for vocabulary learning impact learners' vocabulary learning process in EFL contexts?

#### H. Learning Impact of Mobile Applications on EFLVL

Figure 4 depicts the EFLVL impact through the use of mobile applications.

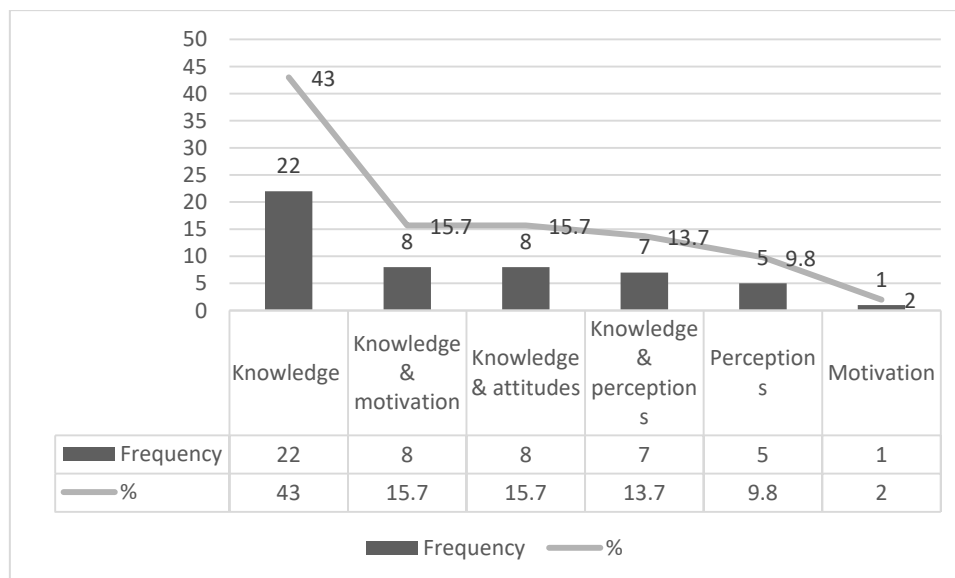


Figure 4 Learning Impact of Mobile Applications on EFLVL

It is revealed that 22 (43%) of the studies examined only the learners' knowledge gain of EFLVL through mobile applications. The knowledge aspect was investigated through the learners' performance and achievement in pre-post and delayed tests. Perceptions of EFLVL through mobile applications were explored in 12 studies whereas the motivational aspect of EFL vocabulary learning via mobile applications was examined in nine studies. Finally, learners' attitudes towards EFLVL via mobile applications were examined in eight studies.

The measurement of the reviewed studies' effect on learners' EFLVL progress can be seen in Figure 4 and is illustrated in four aspects: knowledge, motivation, attitudes, and perceptions. The majority of the reviewed studies agree on the learners' knowledge improvement levels in various aspects of the EFLVL process in spelling (Al-Malki, 2020; Hao et al., 2019), vocabulary retention (Alhuwaydi, 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Costuchen et al., 2020; Ma & Yodkamlue, 2019; Tai et al., 2020; Yüksel et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Kohnke et al., 2020), learning idioms (Wu et al., 2021), pronunciation (Che Hashim et al., 2018; Hao et al., 2019), grammar and punctuation (Al-Wasy & Mahdi, 2016), learning collocations (Re Okumuş Dağdelen et al., 2020), meanings (Grami & Hashemian, 2017; Shen, 2013; Govindasamy et al., 2019; Çelik & Yavuz, 2017), and etymology of words (Fageeh, 2014). However, some reviewed studies reported no effects between the two modes of learning—traditional and mobile applications—in aspects of spelling and capitalization (Al-Wasy & Mahdi, 2016) or vocabulary retention (Chen & Chan, 2019).

Past research on the learners' use of mobile applications in the EFLVL process indicated that the learners were more motivated to learn vocabulary using mobile applications such as Mobile English Learning among Netherlands school students (Sandberg et al., 2014), mobile game-based English vocabulary practice systems among Taiwan students at university (Wu, 2018), VocabGame by Malaysian university students (Elaish et al., 2019), Quizlet among Indonesian school students (Setiawan & Wiedarti, 2020), game-based vocabulary learning APP by Chinese university learners (Li, 2021), VocaStyle by Turkish university students (Gürkan, 2018), Android Online Dictionary by Saudi university students (Fageeh, 2013), and Rememba by Turkish school students (Kose & Mede, 2018). Nevertheless, it was reported that the game-mode mobile applications did not motivate learners to spend more time learning EFL vocabulary, as revealed by Sandberg et al. (2014). Also, the Chinese university students' motivation did not predicate any improvement in their vocabulary knowledge perceived via a game-mode mobile application, as suggested by Li (2021).

Learners' attitudes towards using mobile applications to learn EFL vocabulary were examined in the reviewed studies. Findings revealed that the Taiwanese school learners felt relaxed and enjoyed the learning materials and the way of learning, considering the aspects of learning anytime and anywhere (Hao et al., 2019). Also, Chinese university learners enjoyed using a lexical spreadsheet application in vocabulary-learning activities (Wang et al., 2019). In addition, Online Dictionary was seen as being conducive to encouraging Saudi learners to learn word etymology (Fageeh, 2014).

Previous research has revealed positive perceptions of using mobile applications in the EFLVL process in association with the applications' usefulness and learners' intention to continue using Quizlet to learn vocabulary (Yükse et al., 2020), satisfaction with learning EFL vocabulary using game-based applications (Chen et al., 2019), provision of

information (Simanjutak, 2020), benefits of the practice, storage, and vocabulary teaching in and out of the class (Korlu & Mede, 2018), convenience and ease of use for vocabulary learning (Kose & Mede, 2018; Ma & Yodkamlue, 2019). However, the use of mobile applications for independent EFLVL learning may lack the human interaction needed for students' understanding and exchange of ideas (Simanjutak, 2020).

## V. DISCUSSION

This review synthesized the impact of mobile applications designed for EFLVL between 2010 and 2021. The inclusion and exclusion criteria resulted in 51 studies chosen out of the original 146. The analysis targeted research features and the learning impact of mobile applications on the EFLVL process. Therefore, the study aimed to answer the following questions:

*RQ 1. What are the research features of the reviewed studies on vocabulary learning-designed applications in EFL contexts?*

The analysis has revealed that the level of university education was the researchers' main focus in examining the use of mobile applications in the EFLVL process. This may be an indication that using mobile applications to learn EFLVL requires learners to be mature enough to have some responsible and independent roles to enable them to learn on their own.

It was also found that quantitative research methods, such as tests and closed questionnaires, were widely used in past research on mobile applications in the EFLVL process. Tests were the most used instruments, as most past research explored learners' EFL vocabulary knowledge and retention through mobile applications. On the other hand, qualitative research methods were the least reported, appearing in only four studies.

In addition, the review found that only three continents have been very active in applying mobile applications in the EFLVL process. Asia stood first while Africa came last. Furthermore, it was revealed that 15 countries have been interested in EFL vocabulary learning via mobile applications. Turkey was reported as the most active country in terms of interest in researching the utilization of mobile applications to learn EFL vocabulary, followed by Taiwan and China in Asia. Oman and Thailand in Asia, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic in Europe, and South Africa in Africa are the least reported countries. These results may reflect the degree of interest these countries have in the importance of learning vocabulary mediated by mobile applications in EFL contexts as well as their keenness to employ cutting-edge technologies and keep pace with the times in developing EFLVL methods for the educational process.

As for the participants' gender in the reviewed studies, it was shown that male and female participants were mostly examined in the studies. However, a few studies conducted in countries such as Saudi Arabia and Iran, where their educational system is gender-segregated because of religious rules, had either exclusively male or female participants.

Moreover, the review showed that English subjects were mostly examined in past studies whereas non-English subjects such as arts, management, engineering, pharmacy, and statistics were the least explored in utilizing mobile applications for learning EFL vocabulary. Also, it was found that the majority of the examined research had a treatment period of between one and ten weeks, which may raise questions on the efficiency of mobile applications impacting the EFLVL process due to the short treatment period.

Finally, it was revealed that the mobile applications designed for EFLVL fall into two main categories: commercial applications (N = 12) and self-developed applications (N = 30). This classification leads to the efficient role of mobile applications. Also, it was revealed that self-developed mobile applications operate in a curriculum-based context whereas commercial applications were not part of the curriculum. The commercial applications outside the course context have raised issues related to students' boredom and decreased motivation due to the materials' lack of relativity to the course and assessments, especially in the treatments that last longer. Additionally, six learning modes were reported in previous research on EFL vocabulary learning (EFLVL): flashcards, games, dictionaries, animations, virtual reality, and others. Flashcard applications such as Quizlet were widely explored whereas animation and virtual reality were the least examined avenues in the EFLVL process.

*RQ 2: In what ways do smartphone applications designed for vocabulary learning impact learners' vocabulary learning process in EFL contexts?*

The analysis of past research on utilizing mobile applications in EFLVL showed that the process of vocabulary learning had been classified into four major areas: Knowledge, motivation, attitudes, and perceptions. The knowledge aspect was the most examined, whereas the attitude aspect was reported the least.

The learning impact of mobile applications in the EFLVL process was scrutinized, and the analysis revealed promising and positive effects of mobile applications if they are employed well. Learners witnessed tremendous improvements in EFL vocabulary knowledge such as spelling, retention, idioms, pronunciation, grammar, punctuation, learning collocations, meanings, and the etymology of words. Also, the learners were motivated to learn EFL vocabulary through mobile applications in various learning modes: flashcards, games, animations, and virtual reality. In addition, learners' attitudes toward using mobile applications in EFLVL were positive: Learners felt relaxed and enjoyed the learning materials and the way they learned, given the aspects of learning anytime and anywhere. Finally, the learners perceived mobile applications such as Quizlet in EFLVL as useful and interesting for learning vocabulary. Also, the learners were satisfied with vocabulary learning through game-based applications. Furthermore, mobile applications were appreciated for their provision of information, benefits of the practice, storage and vocabulary

teaching in and out of the class, convenience, and ease of use for vocabulary learning. The findings on the effectiveness of mobile technologies in supporting learners' vocabulary improvements in EFL contexts reported in this review are in line with Alzahrani (2015), who found positive impacts of employing mobile technology in EFL vocabulary development.

However, some aspects of the EFLVL process have seen no improvement, such as capitalization. Also, decreased motivation was reported in terms of spending more time using mobile applications to learn EFL vocabulary, and no correlation was shown between learners' vocabulary knowledge and motivation. The lack of the human interaction needed for understanding and exchange of ideas was perceived as one of the drawbacks of mobile applications for EFL vocabulary acquisition.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This review has examined the role of mobile applications designed for learning vocabulary on various EFLV-associated aspects such as knowledge, motivation, attitudes, and perceptions. It has also reviewed major research features such as educational level, instruments, context, gender, course subject, treatment period, and the mode and type of mobile applications. This review suggests an increasing role for specifically designed mobile applications for EFL vocabulary learning, which has been proven by past research. This result encourages stakeholders to invest more in such learning technologies, to flow with the current latest educational methods. Also, the review has highlighted the issue of integrating authentic learning materials provided through mobile applications as part of the learners' curriculum to encourage them to learn and avoid boredom. Another important issue is that teachers should guide their students to use mobile applications effectively to achieve the maximum benefit of vocabulary learning.

More research on meta-analyzing the impact of experimental studies on integrating mobile applications in EFLVL is recommended. Also, further investigation on utilizing mobile applications in EFLVL is suggested in Africa and South America, due to the lack of studies there. In addition, future studies exploring animations and virtual reality applications are emphasized. Finally, more focus should be placed on improving the learners' independent vocabulary learning skills mediated by mobile applications.

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# The Positive-self and Negative-other Representation in Bashar Al-Assad's First Political Speech After the Syrian Uprising\*

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**Abstract**—This study examines Positive-self and Negative-other representation expressed in the Syrian president Bashar Al-Assad's first political speech in March 2011. This study investigates the way Al-Assad uses language as a tool to express his ideology and attitudes towards protests and the world's leading countries, and thus to win conflicts and gain power. Therefore, this study scrutinises the negative-other representation of Al-Assad's opponents and rival parties and what ideologies are reflected in this speech. It also examines the positive-self representation in relation to Al-Assad's ruling party (Ba'ath) and the Syrian regime's supporters. T. van Dijk (2002) Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is utilised to highlight the way these representations are exhibited in the speech. An in-depth analysis is conducted to allow the identification of the strategies and techniques used in the speech analysed, following T. van Dijk (2002) ideological square.

**Index Terms**—political speech, ideology, positive-self, negative-others, critical discourse analysis

## I. INTRODUCTION

After a decade of the Syrian uprising which turned into a civil war, Al-Assad's first political speech attracted the attention of rhetoric scholars. His speech during the first year of the uprising had one common goal: to stop protests that aimed to topple his regime and to guarantee that he remained in power. He aimed at portraying himself as people's protector and underlining his claims of strong bonds between him and his public. Therefore, on the one hand, he tries to persuade his audience with political arguments, utilising different tools and strategies, such as positive-self representation to spark people's emotions, gain their support, and enforce certain ideologies. On the other hand, he tries to remind his audience that opposition to his regime may have dire consequences by the negative-other representation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Political Speeches

Political speeches as part of political discourse can be defined as a "coherent stream of spoken language that is usually prepared for delivery by a speaker to an audience for a purpose on a political occasion" (Reisigl, 2008). They function due to their political activity; they are directed to a wide audience; and their topics are related to politics. Beyond this, political speeches are associated either with the struggle for power or the maintenance of it (Sharndama, 2015).

They are a vital communicative tool for politicians, with which political opinions and views as well as ideologies can be expressed, the latter not always explicitly. Their textual conditions have been seen as "directing oneself to an audience and respecting a topical (semantic) organization that is compatible with the issue on the (political) agenda at hand (Charteris-Black, 2018). Any political speech can exist prior to when it is delivered, and it is usually multi-authored. Yet, every politician differs in their adaptation of a written speech; this depends on their audience's level of knowledge and affects grammatical and word choices as well as other language features.

### B. Features and Characteristics of Political Speeches

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The language used in political speeches has certain characteristic features that differentiate it from other varieties of language use. Political speeches are among political texts that are written to persuade, affect and change public opinions (Irvine et al., 2009). This can be achieved by incorporating linguistic devices in the speeches. Many linguists (Babaii & Sheikhi, 2018; Clark et al., 1991; Qianbo, 2016) have focused on the ideologies reinforced by politicians when analysing certain strategies and techniques in the languages of political speeches. Rojo and Van Dijk (1997) also focuses on the influence of politicians on public discourse and hence on public opinion; for example, he points out that political discourse plays a major role in garnering popular support and the legitimization of certain policies. Therefore, the main goal of any politician is to persuade their audience of their views (Van Dijk, 1993).

Furthermore, some of the structures that typically exhibit underlying ideology are to be found in most political speeches delivered by leaders or politicians, specifically in time of war or conflict. For instance, rhetoric in Arabic aims to enrich and varnish the linguistic competence of writing and speaking. It is used by political speakers to provide an effective stylistic mechanism to produce powerful discourse. For example, Arrdaini (2021) argues that “the use of metaphors in politics is not mere coincidence, but that they have an important role to play”. Al-Hamad and Al-Shunnag (2011) argue that politicians employ various features, rhetorical devices, and tools as “a powerful means of conveying their feelings and attitudes towards critical political issues. For instance,

### C. *Political Discourse and Ideology*

Much has been written about ideology and plenty of definitions of the concept have been offered. Dunmire (2005), for instance, defines ideology as “any social policy which is in part or whole derived from social theory in a conscious way”. He also adopts a Marxist definition that presents ideology as “ideas which arise from a given set of material interest. He argues that ideology is presented in language, and that modern social sciences should focus on the ideological nature of language. He also introduces ideological power and relates it to discourse, where types of discourse function ideologically to sustain unequal power relations and practices. These ideological powers are “institutional practices which people draw upon without thinking” and that “often embody assumptions which directly or indirectly legitimize existing power relations” (Charteris-Black, 2018).

Ideologies consist of socially shared beliefs that are associated with the characteristic properties of a group, such as their identity, their position in society, their interests and aims, their relations to other groups, their reproduction, and their natural environment (Van Dijk, 2000).

In relation to ideology, Van Dijk (2000) introduces a multidisciplinary framework to analyse any discourse, specifically political discourse. His framework consists of discourse, cognition, and society, and is introduced as, Language use, text, talk, verbal interaction, and communication will be studied under the broad label of 'discourse'. The mental aspects of ideologies, such as their nature as ideas or beliefs, their relations with opinions and knowledge, and their status as socially shared representations, will all be covered under the label of 'Cognition'. And the social, political, cultural and historical aspects of ideologies, their group-based nature, and especially their role in the reproduction of, or resistance against, dominance, will be examined under the broad label of Society (Van Dijk, 2000).

Van Dijk (2000), in this sense, presents ideology as the attitude a group of people held towards certain issues. In order to reveal the ideology generated in discourse, the scholar draws on social analysis, cognitive analysis and discourse analysis of a text. In relation to ideology in discourse, ideology can exist in the form, content and meaning of discourse. While the first two can be ideologically marked, the ideological meaning can be reproduced through interpretation of the text (Matić, 2012). The analysis of ideology in discourse is, in fact, one of the main concerns of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). van Dijk (2002) socio-cognitive approach is primarily concerned with the interconnection between discourse, cognition, and society; or to put it differently, it is concerned with the relationship between discourse and society, a relationship that is cognitively mediated.

Research has shown a vast interest in the relationship between power, culture and ideology. Uncovering manipulations in target texts have been investigated from an ideological perspective by many researchers (Baker, 1996; Clark et al., 1991; Irvine et al., 2009; Qianbo, 2016). Some scholars have contributed to drawing a link between linguistics, pragmatics and TS (Baker, 1996; Irvine et al., 2009). Babaii and Sheikhi (2018) state that TS focuses on: Social, cultural, and communicative practices, on the cultural and ideological significance of translating and of translations, on the external politics of translation, on the relationship between translation behaviour and socio-cultural factors. In other words, there is a general recognition of the complexity of the phenomenon of translation, an increased concentration on social causation and human agency, and a focus on effects rather than on internal structures (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010).

The significance of ideological issues varies from one text to another since some texts are more ideologically ‘loaded’ than others. In addition, political organisations, such as governments, parties and regimes propose ideologies that serve their political views and stances. As discussed by Van Dijk (1993) the concept of the exclusion of rival ideologies manifests itself through positive self-representation and negative-other representation, whereby opponent ideologies are presented in with negative attributes versus a political group’s own ideology which is presented with positive attributes.

### D. *Van Dijk’s Approach to CDA*

Since the primary focus of CDA is on the structure of text and talk, one of its main applications is to study the way in which a speaker or a group exhibit power in discourse. Particularly, the way in which discourse influences an audience,



and the strategies involved in that process (Van Dijk, 1993). Van Dijk (1993) the discursive reproduction of dominance as the main object of his two-dimensional study: production and reception. He asserts that:

We distinguish between the enactment, expression or legitimation of dominance in the (production of the) various structures of text and talk, on the one hand, and the functions, consequences or results of such structures for the social minds of recipients, on the other. (Van Dijk, 1993)

Van Dijk (1993), for instance, describes the concept of dominance and asserts that the fewer surface structures are controlled by legal or moral rules, the more “unofficial exercise of power” emerges. He provides an example and speaks of the disrespectful tone of a judge or a police officer that might be interpreted as “impoliteness”, but which does not break the law, so that this may be one way to exercise dominance. Another point of view might say that this impoliteness is an expression of power, but not of social power or dominance (Van Dijk, 1993).

One key challenge for the user of CDA is to find ways to relate micro-patterns that are revealed in the textual analysis to the macro-patterns of the culture / society of which the discourses analysed operate. Therefore, Van Dijk (1993) shows the relevance of socio-cognitive interface between discourse and dominance and argues that this approach is essential in relating macro and micro-level notions. He then elaborates on this by arguing that: Indeed, the crucial notion of reproduction, needed to explain how discourse plays a role in the reproduction of dominance, presupposes an account that relates discourse structures to social cognitions, and social cognitions to social structures (Van Dijk, 1993).

This multidisciplinary approach represents participants who have greater authority over the content of the text: “public discourse, such as that of politics or the media, usually features institutional speakers or representatives who have more authority and hence more credibility” (Rojo & Van Dijk, 1997). In the same context, it is illustrated that, a socio-cognitive approach not only makes explicit the fundamental role of mental representations, but also shows that many structures of discourse itself can only (completely) be described in terms of various cognitive notions, especially those of information, beliefs or knowledge of participants (Rojo & Van Dijk, 1997).

Knowledge, in this context, is an essential factor of context models; hence it influences linguistic structures of the discourse and can be regarded as the common ground for language users. He elaborates that this is “possible because social members represent both social structures as well as discourse structures in their minds, and thus are able to relate these mentally before expressing them in actual text and talk” (Van Dijk, 2011). Accordingly, knowledge is arranged to fit the intentions of discourse initiators that aim to influence readers /receivers of the discourse. The most common features between critical and ideological analysis, as outlined above, are the concepts of power, domination and hegemony. Van Dijk (2011) model of analysis can provide a theoretical framework for the examination of the ideological manipulation on the social and the political level.

The analysis of ideology according to Van Dijk (2006) can be implemented at all levels of the discourse. For that, he presents ideological structures that will help exhibit hidden ideologies. One example is the strategy of positive-self representation and negative-other representation, which mainly examines participants as social groups and present them in terms of ‘Us vs. Them’. He presents this as a strategy that “is very typical in [the] biased account of the facts in favour of the speaker’s or writer’s own interests, while blaming negative situations and events on opponents or on the others” (Van Dijk, 2006). He then elaborates that these two strategies, influence the structure of various levels of any discourse (Van Dijk, 2006). Through this, he introduces the theoretical concept of the ideological square, in which he summarises the positive-self and negative-other characteristic of a group; these principles are as follows:

1. Emphasise positive things about Us (ingroups);
2. Emphasise negative things about Them (out groups);
3. De-emphasise negative things about Us (in groups);
4. De-emphasise positive things about Them (out groups).

These principles examine the representation of in-groups and out-groups within text and talk through using the ideological pronouns ‘We vs. They’ or ‘Us vs. Them’. Underlying political ideologies are typically expressed in political discourse by emphasizing ‘Our’ good things and ‘Their’ bad things, and by de-emphasizing ‘Our’ bad things and ‘Their’ good thing (Van Dijk, 2006). In this context, the ideological square constitutes a “manifestation of the group relations category of the ideology schema” (Van Dijk, 2006). Van Dijk (2006) critical analysis of texts tends to make explicit the ideological dimension of ‘Us vs. Them’ and to demonstrate the discursive structures and strategies used in exercising the dominant power (Jahedi et al., 2014). He presents ideological structures as in the following figure.

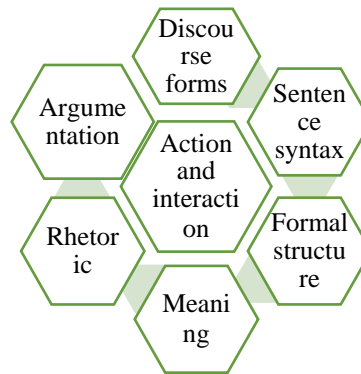


Figure 1: van Dijk's Levels of Discourse Structures

Concerning meaning level, Van Dijk (2000) argues that ideology is “most directly expressed in discourse meaning”. He then categorises this level as shown below in Figure 2.

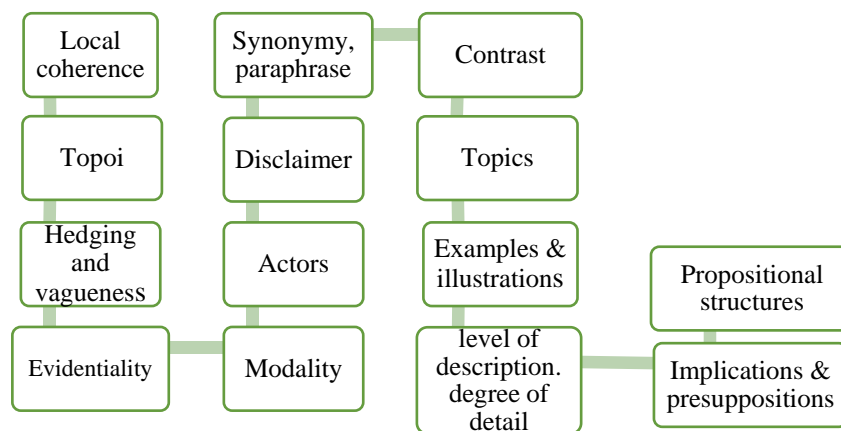


Figure 2: van Dijk's Discourse Meaning Levels

The importance of Van Dijk (2000) approach is related to each of these approaches' understanding of discourse and ideology; this approach highlight correlations between language, ideology and power relations. It can also be noted that Van Dijk (2000) considers discourse as a form of knowledge and memory. In addition, Van Dijk (2000) approach understands 'power' as a way of reflecting abuse in society. Social inequality and injustice have been the main concern of CDA theorists. Van Dijk (2000), for instance, emphasised the importance of methodological and theoretical integration that would help “the realization of a common aim, namely, to analyse, understand, and combat” social inequality and injustice.

### III. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

The data analysed consists of one televised political speech in Arabic. The primary data (Al-Assad's original speech) were delivered in March 2011.

The four (transcribed) speeches analysed in this study depict the escalation of violence in Syria and increasing intervention by regional and world powers that have been drawn into the conflict in Syria. This speech has a specific theme and message that was expected to be more powerful in expressing Al-Assad's viewpoint and political position. Another important point is that this material represents the Syrian regime's political standpoint in the first year of the uprising; a controversial topic among national, regional and international communities. As such, the ideological structures that could have influenced Al-Assad's audience were expected to be present in such key speech, and therefore were thought to be influential to the Syrian regime's opponents and allies. In addition to this, the availability of the original Arabic texts is another reason for selecting the speech under examination. Al-Assad's original Arabic speech have not been analysed before, other than from a socio-political point of view. Therefore, the current analysis will draw on a body of literature from the field of Linguistic, in order to identify the role of ideology in the shaping of this speech.

### IV. ANALYSIS

#### A. Contextual Background of Al-Assad's First Speech

The Syrian President Bashar Al-Assad makes his first public address to the Syrian parliament on the 30<sup>th</sup> of March 2011 after two weeks of widespread unrest that challenged his regime. The protests that started in Daraa (Dar'a)

demand reform. The protests were violently repressed by the government, so this speech is indeed so crucial for Syrian people who were waiting for it and hoping for a reassuring and drawing a clear feature of the new phase in Syria. This speech was televised on the same abovementioned day.

### *B. Practices and Strategies*

Al-Ba'ath is the ruling party in both Syria and Iraq. The party's ideology and its narrative, call for secularism, socialism, and pan-Arab unification, as well as freedom from western influence. For instance, Al-Assad reinforces the desire for Pan-Arabism when speaking about the Palestinian - Israeli conflict as well as the freedom from Western influence. He also addresses the unrest, which is affecting his country extensively, by highlighting factors that might cause social and economic problems in the future. The party's official narrative emerges evidently in the presidential speech. A further social practice that is displayed in the speech is Al-Assad's opposition against Western domination in Syria and the region, specifically in relation to the country's enemies - the US, Israel, the EU, and the GCC which are hoping to topple his regime in Syria. Referring to the Lebanon war in 2006, Al-Assad infers that his relationship with Iran and with Lebanon's Hezbollah might stand out as a reason why these countries oppose him and his regime (ibid). These might be some of the reasons why the conspiracy narrative is found to be the most crucial theme of the speech, allowing Al-Assad to assert his point of view against these countries (his perceived enemies).

The following discursive strategies, discernible in the speech, will also be examined: positive self-representation and negative other-representation, membership and topoi. On the one hand, the speaker's aim is to convince his audience of the conspiracy against Syria in order to gain people's trust and support. And yet, the use of negative-other representation is also evident to the reader or listener of Al-Assad's speech which was delivered a short time after the unrest. By reinforcing the negative outcomes of the unrest, for instance, Al-Assad triggers people's fear for their country's future. In this sense, he uses the negative-other attribute when describing conspirators, i.e. the out-group. Group membership, as described by (Van Dijk, 2000), "has to do with who belongs or does not belong to Us". In these terms, Al-Assad regards the members of the in-group and out-group as the following:

1. In-group: Al-Assad, his regime and his allies
2. Out-group: conspirators which include: opposition, demonstrators, saboteurs, Western countries, Israel and some Arab countries

The third discursive strategy used in the speech is topoi, or "ready-mades" in argumentation, that is, topics that become standardised and publicised (Van Dijk, 2011). The emergency law is one such topoi in Al-Assad's speech: he refers to the country's emergency law which has been in place since the Al-Ba'ath party gained power in Syria in 1963 and which gives the Syrian government "a free hand to arrest people without charge and extended the state's authority into virtually every aspect of citizens' lives" (Hamad, 2020); this can be seen in the following example 'عندما أعلننا زيادة رواتب والحديث عن موضوع الأحزاب والطوارئ' (when we announced wage raise and discussed the parties and the emergency law). This example is used by Al-Assad as one of the reforms he offers to stop the demonstrations that might destabilise his regime: he promises to withdraw the emergency law, in the future, which had caused controversies for many decades.

Social practices and discursive structures are going to vary from one speech to another, due to the progression from a long-term conflict into a civil war in Syria. These variations are going to be discussed in detail throughout this study to highlight the change in Al-Assad's discourse over the five year period of the conflict.

### *C. Structure of the Speech*

Despite the important role of the narration of conspiracy in Al-Assad's speech, a variety of other themes, which are perhaps not as prominent but which are equally important, are also introduced in this discourse. The structure of his speech, for instance, also serves the message that is being conveyed, so that the structure may have influenced the speaker's lexical choice, degree of formality, speech acts and discourse structures. The structure of the speech is concerned with the internal organisation of the text, and it should be coherent, organised and logical to persuade the audience; this is considered to be crucial in order to generate and convey a specific message (Fairclough, 1992). This strategy explores how the speech is organised, to whom it is addressed, and how it begins and ends. Al-Assad starts and ends his speech by glorifying Syria and the Syrian people. He begins his speech by greeting the Syrian parliament and directs his speech at his people, calling them 'أبناء سورية الأعزاء' ("children of Syria"). He then concludes the speech addressing his people with 'يا بنات وأبناء هذا الشعب العظيم' ("Great sons and daughters of Syria").

In the first part of his speech, Al-Assad addresses all children of Syria to emphasise the good relation between the regime and the people of Syria, while also responding to accusations and allegations of torturing fifteen children in Daraa who were demonstrating against the regime: "A local uprising erupted in the southern town of Daraa as a response to the arrest and torture of fifteen children by the regime" (Üngür, 2013). He then emphasises the importance of "unity and self-denial" throughout this crucial phase, describing it as a test of the nation's unity. Al-Assad describes the situation in Syria as a test. He does not use the word "revolution" to describe the unrest, and this might reflect his opposition to another "Arab Spring" in Syria. He moves on to talk about Arab Nationalism and links what is happening in Syria to the changes in the Arab world, thus emphasising the distinctive nature of Syria amongst the other Arab countries. Following on, Al-Assad elaborates on the protests; on their cause, their main objectives, and on how the regime is reacting in these situations. This part of the speech is crucial as the people are waiting for the regime's reform

plan following the demonstrations. Amongst other newspapers in the world, *The Guardian* (Everson & Joerges, 2014), for example, reported that “in a highly anticipated speech he offered none of the reforms that protesters had hoped for”. This may be regarded as one of the main causes for people’s discontent after the speech. Later on in the speech, Al-Assad continues to attempt to convince his audience of the conspiracy against Syria, as to prepare them for the fight against conspirators. This can be seen in the following examples: ‘علينا مواجهة الأزمات بثقة كبيرة’ (“We have to face the crises with big confidence”) and ‘وَأَدِ الْفِتْنَةَ وَاجِبٌ وَطَنِيٌّ وَأَخْلَاقِيٌّ وَشَرْعِيٌّ’ (“To bury sedition is a national, moral and religious duty”). This specific part of the speech plays a significant role in shaping the entire speech, as do the references to the demonstrations that started in Daraa. Despite the fact that Al-Assad insists on the loyalty of people from the city of Daraa, he never offers an apology for their deaths. On the contrary, he uses the word ‘فوضى’ (“chaos”) to describe the unrest in Daraa and only justifies the brutal attacks on the people of Daraa by calling them ‘أخطاء اللحظة’ (“instant mistakes”). This might be another reason that following the speech further protests broke out all over the country.

In the conclusion of his speech, Al-Assad clearly appeals to the audience’s emotions by declaring himself equal to his people, chanting that they will sacrifice their souls and blood for him, and that he would do the same. This way he portrays himself as the hero who would sacrifice himself for the sake of his country and its people, in an attempt to win the audience over. Furthermore, he seeks to refute the idea of a dictatorship, to reassure his allies that he will not step aside, and to send a message to his opponents that he will do anything to stop the demonstrations.

#### D. Conspiracy

This section examines the way in which Al-Assad narrates the conspiracy against Syria. By applying Van Dijk (2000) socio-cognitive approach, this section aims to highlight hidden ideologies contained within the speech. With this approach I will also introduce an analysis of the meaning level which includes meaning, discourse forms, argumentation, formal structures and rhetoric.

Narrative theory places an emphasis on the role and power of the narrative, whereby narratives are understood as “the stories which belong to us as well as shape who we are” (Baker, 1996). In this, a public narrative as one type of narrative is presented as “stories elaborated by and circulating among social and institutional formations larger than the individual” (Baker, 1996). Any individual can “either buy into the official or semi-official versions of such public narratives or dissent from them”. Therefore, politicians play a major role in circulating public narratives to make sure that they are “socialized into the view of the world promoted in these shared stories” (Baker, 1996). In any narrative, as Baker (1996) illustrates, there should be a plot that guides the selection of events. In this context, conspiracy is seen as a public narrative which is plotted by Al-Assad and his regime. Baker argues that ‘the special doubt that arises over the definition of the situation’ is often experienced by different parties of a conflict as a by-product of competing attempts to legitimise different versions of the relevant narrative (1996). The use of any “lexical item, term or phrase to identify a person, place, group, event or any other key element in a narrative” reflect certain “viewpoints, beliefs or political commitments of a community” (Baker, 1996); in that sense, Al-Assad’s reference to “conspiracy” embodies his viewpoint of the unrest in Syria. As has been pointed out previously, the conspiracy narrative is a salient theme in Al-Assad’s speech and plays a significant role in shaping and directing this discourse. Al-Assad reinforces the conspiracy narrative in order to strengthen his argument and to convince his audience.

The events of the Arab Spring affect the way in which Al-Assad narrates conspiracy, as numerous regimes in the Arab world were overturned during the uprisings, such as, for instance, in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya and Yemen. Al-Assad is aware that the outcome of the Syrian uprising might be ousting him, similarly to the way in which other Arab dictators were forced out of office. Interestingly, some elements of Al-Assad’s speech can also be found in other Arab presidents’ speeches during the uprisings; what they all share is the idea of holding on to power at all costs. For instance, the speeches of Bin Ali and Mubarak, both of which were addressed right after the eruption of the protests, were blaming “foreign agents” and “external forces” that aimed at undermining their countries. Therefore, it can be said that Al-Assad uses the same justification of the unrest, holding foreign agents as well as inside conspirators responsible for the recent situation in Syria.

Al-Assad begins his speech with the “extraordinary moments” that Syria is facing. He presents “the test” and “conspiracy” against Syria which would affect its stability. He discusses the chaos this conspiracy is causing, sending a message to his opponents and calling for people’s support. Van Dijk (2000) argues that any information that is placed at the beginning of a text has a specific function, unlike information that is positioned at the end of the discourse. In doing so, Al-Assad puts reform plans, which were supposed to be the main theme of his speech, to the end, causing significant public discontent. In this sense, Al-Assad’s speech disappoints his broad audience and was thus regarded as deceptive, “a well-choreographed effort to showcase his firm grip on power, as he refused to offer concessions and labelled pro-democracy demonstrators as either “duped” or as conspirators in a plot to destroy the nation” (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). Hence conspiracy is the major theme of the speech; Al-Assad is pointing fingers and blaming external forces that manipulate protestors to undermine his regime and cause the unrest. He attempts to engage people with the conspiracy against Syria, by mentioning specific events that become مرحلة من الضغوط (“a period of pressure”). He presents conspiracy at the beginning of the speech, emphasising the idea of the continuous attempts to destabilise Syria. However, each time this happens, Al-Assad then reinforces the idea that Syria has passed all these tests. This is reflected in the use of positive attributes, such as, for example, أن ننجح في مواجهته في كل مرة (“succeed in passing the test every time”).

In political speeches, speakers are accountable for what they say. Thus, if they express a belief, they are often expected to provide some 'proof' and engage in a debate with those who deny it (Van Dijk, 2000). In this regard, some evidence, and examples from the present and past are introduced to support Al-Assad's narrative. He accuses the TV satellite channels of deceiving their audience when reporting on the two weeks of demonstrations in Syria and illustrates this with much detail. Van Dijk (2000) discusses levels of description that are concerned with detailed or general ideas that a speaker introduces about a topic in any discourse. In this, being specific about a topic might be considered as a way of showing *our* good representation as opposed to being more general in order to show *their* bad representation. When a speaker makes a general statement about a negative representation of the other, s/he finds it more reliable to illustrate providing certain examples (Van Dijk, 2000).

Al-Assad also provides examples of the present when speaking about sectarianism. In this example, he draws on people's fear of this issue and reinforces their anger towards sectarian violence to increase and strengthen the unity of Syrian people against such conspiracies. The use of repetition in this example is emphasising this. Al-Assad repeats the word 'طائفة' ('sect') eight times in this example.

#### Example 1:

اخذوا المحور الآخر وهو المحور الطائفي

*The other axis the conspirators worked on was sectarianism...*

Lexical repetition is defined as "repeating a word that has already been used, either exactly or with some changes" (Al-Kl-Iafaji, 2005). There are other forms of repetition, such as repetition in structure and content. It is argued that in some languages repetition is used more often than in others; the Arabic language is among those that use repetition frequently.

Repetition in Arabic is used to serve "didactic, playful, emotional, artistic, ritualistic, textual and rhetorical functions". However, as illustrated by Lahlali (2011), lexical repetition might also function ideologically in discourse in order to impact on the receiver, which is how Al-Assad's use of repetition may be interpreted. Repetition is frequent in his speech; it varies from the repetition of a word, repetition in word structure and repetition of a stem. Repetitions of a word, for example, can be found throughout the entire speech. Lexical and word structure repetition can also be seen in the following example, where he addresses the people of Daraa city:

#### Example 2:

ان أهل درعا هم أهل الوطنية الصادقة والعروبة الأصيلة.. أهل درعا هم أهل النخوة والشهامة والكرامة

*The citizens of Daraa Governorate are the people of true nationality and Pan-Arabism; they are the people of generosity and dignity...*

In this specific example, the speaker's strategy of repeating the phrase 'أهل درعا' ("people of Daraa") is related to the brutal attacks against demonstrators in the city of Daraa, the city where the unrest began. The President glorifies the people of Daraa by using a repetition in the word structure and by using a frame in which positive attributes are introduced in subsequent order. The intention may be to gain the trust of the people of Daraa after the brutal attacks of the regime. Another example is the repetition of the lexical item "lahum", which is also indicative. Al-Assad addresses his conspirators using the word "lahum", then glosses it with a negative attribute, such as 'نقر لهم بغيالهم' ("we acknowledge that they have been so stupid"). Repetition of a word stem, on the other hand, can be found in these examples: 'السليمة والسالمة' ("pacific, safe"), 'الأسباب والمسببين' ("causes and causers") and 'نؤثر ونتأثر' ("influence and get influenced"). The excessive use of this speech act is designed to convince the people of his message and to draw the audience's attention (AL Khafaji p.16) as well as to increase people's fear of the consequences of the unrest.

Al-Assad recognises the impact of the Arab Spring on the demonstrations, so he continues to refer to "Arab Spring" and insists on the uniqueness of his country and regime, which sends a clear message to his audience: he will not allow another Arab Spring in Syria. He justifies his reasons by reinforcing the unity of the Syrian people, using the phrase 'اجماع شعبي' ("popular convergence"). He then emphasises the conspiracy against Syria that threatens Syria's stability through three elements: 'الفتنة والإصلاح والحاجات اليومية' ("people's daily needs, sedition and reform"). Al-Assad elaborates on these three elements as the causes of the unrest. He gives examples, including raising wages, and illustrates the efforts that have been made during his time of leadership to meet people's demands in the hope of winning people's support.

A rhetorical device used in this speech to support Al-Assad's conspiracy narrative is the "use of reference". This device is applied implicitly or explicitly, whereby the speaker leaves information in relation to positive self-representation implicit as opposed to dealing with information that is explicitly expressed in relation to negative other-representation. According to Van Dijk (2000), the implication and presupposition level of meaning is based on the mental model of the recipient towards an event. Retelling past narratives is considered as a means of control. "It socializes individuals into an established social and political order and encourages them to interpret present events in terms of sanctioned narratives of the past". The long history of Al-Assad and his party's opposition to Western domination in the region, and its stance against the Israeli occupation, motivate Al-Assad to bring back these past narratives to validate his story and to make people believe in his ability to overcome these events (Van Dijk, 2000).

Al-Assad supports his argument with an implicit analogy which he draws between the events in Syria now and the events that took place in 2005:

#### Example 3:

ان جانباً مما يحصل اليوم متشابه مع ما حصل في 2005 هي الحرب الافتراضية

*Part of what has happened is similar to what happened in 2005. It is a virtual war...*

In this example, he implicitly refers to the assassination of the former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafiq Al-Hariri in 2005, and how this incident affected the Syrian military presence in Syria. He also refers to the conspiracy against Syria during the war against Afghanistan and Iraq, with which he may suggest that Syria is paying the price for opposing the American and Western intervention in Iraq.

The use of the word المقاومة ("resistance") in Al-Assad's speech is referring to the Palestinian conflict, and might indicate to what extent the Syrian position against the Palestinian occupation may be the conspirators' primary concern. The reference to the Israeli war on Lebanon in 2006 can be seen in this context: "ولاحقاً حرب عام 2006 وتداعياتها" ("the 2006 war and its consequences"). Al-Assad also refers to the Syrian sanctions when saying "قبلها في عام 2004" ("before that in 2004"). Supporting this is also the use of contrast: Al-Assad strengthens these sanctions, which were authorised by the United States, are part of the conspiracy Al-Assad is implying in his speech narrative by contrasting his version of the narrative with an opposing one, so that he is able to label in-groups and out-groups. This is described by Van Dijk as "underlying attitudes and ideologies that are represented in polarized terms" (Van Dijk, 2006). In this sense, specific strategies are employed on the level of contrast. The first one is the use of disclaimer; with this the speaker uses a positive description of somebody, then rejects or negates it by using coordinating conjunctions such as /لكن/ ("but") in the subsequent sentence. Van Dijk (2000) defines a disclaimer as "briefly save face by mentioning our positive characteristics, but then focus rather exclusively, on their negative attributes" and this "directly instantiates the contradictions in ideological based attitudes". In Arabic, this coordinating conjunction tends to contrast two complete sentences (Babaii & Sheikhi, 2018), as can be seen in the following example:

#### Example 4:

ان سورية ليست بلداً منعزلاً عما يحصل في العالم العربي ونحن بلد جزء من هذه المنطقة نتفاعل ونؤثر ونتأثر ولكن بنفس الوقت نحن لسنا نسخة عن الدول

*Syria is not isolated from what is taking place in the Arab world. We are part of this region. We interact, influence and get influenced, but at the same time we are not a copy of other countries...*

Al-Assad refers to the distinctness of Syria to refute the outcomes his opponents might think of gaining from the hostile situation; he puts an emphasis on the "uniqueness" of his country.

Repetition of contrast sentences are also employed in the speech. For example, Al-Assad uses the repetition of the phrase من أجل, to convey a message to Syrian people from different groups (out-groups and in-groups), as to consider closely the negative consequences of the uprising. This repetition frame is emphasising the negative-other vs. positive-self strategy, whereby he uses the phrase من أجل followed by a positive attribute, such as 'وحدة' ("unity"), 'قوة' ("strength") and 'ضرب الفتنة' ("thwarting sedition"), while inserting the negation لايس before the affirmative phrase من أجل followed by another negative attribute, such as: 'تفريقهم' ("dismemberment"), 'ضعفه' ("weakness") and 'تأجيلها' ("sowing").

#### Example 5:

وإذا كان الجرح قد نزع فليكن ذلك من أجل وحدة أبناء الوطن وليس من أجل تفريقهم.. من أجل قوة الوطن وليس من أجل ضعفه.. من أجل ضرب الفتنة وليس من أجل تأجيلها

*If the wound has bled, let it be for the sons of the Homeland and not for their dismemberment, for the power of the Homeland and not for its weakness, for thwarting sedition and not for sowing it...*

The speaker could not have achieved the same degree of negativity if he had used أو (or) instead.

Binary statements are another rhetorical tool that is used in Al-Assad's speech in order to imply contrast. This is shown in the following example:

#### Example 6:

لا يوجد خيار امامكم الا ان تستمروا في التعلم من فشلكم اما الشعب السوري فلا خيار امامه الا ان يستمر بالتعلم من نجاحاته

*You don't have any choice except to continue in learning from your failure. The Syrian people however have only one choice which is to continue in learning from their successes...*

This device is used to compare and contrast between the conspirators and his allies, reinforcing the idea of the expected failure of all those who oppose the President and his regime. On the other hand this rhetorical device might be used as a way to emphasise Al-Assad's point of view, as the following example indicates:

#### Example 7:

أن نبحث ن الأسباب والمسببين ونحقق ونحاسب

*It is necessary to contemplate about the causes and causers, to investigate and punish...*

Ideology becomes visible through the application of other strategies in this discourse, such as in the use of the word "actors". Analysing this level of meaning in any ideological discourse is very important, since it can be presented individually or as a group; either the in-group or the out-group. This indicates which groups support the speaker and which ones do not (Van Dijk, 2000).

In the speech examined here three main actors are presented: Al-Assad who, throughout the entire speech, does not refer to himself as a president or a leader. He indicates out-group actors that fit his conspiracy narrative by using different lexicalisation to refer to these actors, such as, for example, "regime's opposition", "conspirators", "saboteurs", "Syrian enemies", "protestors", "some Arab countries", "Israel" and "Western countries". However, it becomes clear

that he considers all of them to be conspirators and enemies of the country. In-group actors, on the other hand, are those to whom he addresses his speech and for whose support he asks 'بنات وأبناء هذا الشعب' ("Sons and daughters of Syria") and ("children of Syria").

One of the strategies also used in this discourse is speech act which does not only "have a political function as part of various political relevant speech acts (such as promises, threats or recommendations), but also have a more general persuasive function" (Rojo & Van Dijk, 1997). One of these speech acts is declarative, in that it is stating, claiming and testifying. Al-Assad statements can be seen as a way to serve his general argument about the uprising and the situation in Syria. However, this type is the most dominant speech act in the speech. Al-Assad's claims refer to his people as well as to his enemies. On the one hand, his claims support the idea that the decisions that were made by him and his regime were in compliance with his people demands 'ان ما حصل يعبر عن إجماع شعبي' ("what has happened reflects popular convergence"). On the other hand, his claims towards his enemies are pursuant to his stance towards the uprising and the conspiracy against Syria, as can be seen in: 'وسر قوة سورية هو الأزمات الكثيرة التي واجهتها' ("The secret of the Syrian power is the many crises the country has faced").

## V. CONCLUSION

In this section, a detailed analysis of the inaugural speech of President Bashar Al-Assad at the beginning of the unrest in Syria has been presented. The analysis contains the main themes of Al-Assad's speech and, more importantly, it presents the alleged conspiracy against Syria, a topic that dominates the speech. Al-Assad insists on this specific theme for a purpose: his aim is to gain his people's trust and approval so that they will support him against the country's enemies.

Moreover, 'positive-representation' of the *self* and 'negative-representation' of the *other* as part of van Dijk's ideological square are employed in this discourse to support Al-Assad's argument regarding the bad consequences of the uprising, in comparison to the regime's efforts towards a political, economic, and social change. This ideological structure introduced in the STs analyses was meant to achieve two aims: first, to emphasise the negative impact of the uprising and opposing groups on the country's stability. Second, to reflect the Ba'ath Party's ideology of resistance and pan-Arabism which aimed to increase enmity towards the countries leading the opposition to Al-Assad and his regime. The analysis of this throughout the four speeches led to the conclusion that a negative-representation of the *other* in Al-Assad's four speeches contribute to the regime's ideology of undermining rival parties or groups of the Syrian regime and its allies.

Positive self-representation, on the other hand, can be said to achieve two aims for Al- Assad: first, to support his argument in relation to the bad consequences of internal and external opposition, and protests on Syria's future; secondly, to serve his national rhetoric, and enhance the image of the current regime. To achieve this, semantic macro-strategies, such as patriotic language, self-glorification, hope, and praise served to promote a positive image of Al-Assad's regime and its allies. For example, the use of patriotic language is sometimes employed at the beginning and/or at the end of the speech to arouse people's emotions and gain their trust as 'ولن يخيفنا رصاصهم ولن يرهبنا حقدهم' (their bullets will not scare us, and their grudge will not terrify us).

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# A Study on the Use of Hedges in English Writing of College Students at Different Levels\*

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**Abstract**—This paper explored features of hedges in college students' English writing at different language levels and their differences from native students' writing. The 2000 writing texts by students from 3 key universities and 8 ordinary universities in Chongqing and Sichuan Province were offered by China Wordnet Company who initiated English writing campaign in 2016. The result showed that compared with native students, students from key and ordinary universities used more hedges, relied on a narrow range of hedges and offered stronger commitments to statements. Language level did not play a decisive role in these aspects.

**Index Terms**—hedges, English writing, language level

## I. INTRODUCTION

Hedges can clearly convey the author's views and attitude towards the reader, which is very important in any form of writing (Hyland, 1998). Authors use hedges not only as a persuasion and interpersonal strategy to express skepticism, thereby reducing their own responsibility for a point of view, but also to express attitudes toward the reader's point of view (Milton & Hyland, 1999). The ability to correctly express doubts and affirmations in English is an important manifestation of the language ability of second language learners, but hedges are generally considered to be difficult for second language learners to master. Many foreign studies have explored second language learners' use of hedges (Hu et al., 1982; Allison, 1995, Hyland & Milton, 1997, Milton & Hyland, 1999, Chen, 2010). For example, Hu et al. (1982) found that compared with writings of native speakers, writings of Chinese second language learners appeared more direct and authoritative in tone, and used more modal words with strong tone. Allison (1995) also stated that L2 learners in Hong Kong often made unreasonably strong assertions. Hyland and Milton (1997) compared the use of hedges between Hong Kong middle school students and British middle school students at different levels (divided into A to F grades, F stands for failing grades), and the results showed that the higher the level, the closer it was to native language students. Low-level students used more affirmative words, while A and B students used more words expressing possibility. Milton and Hyland (1999) examined the words expressing doubt and affirmation in the writings of native language students and non-native language students. The study found that Chinese non-native language students often inappropriately overused prescriptive and authoritative assertions in argumentative essays. Chen (2010) compared five different educational levels (high school, college English level 4, college English level 6, and primary level of English majors) by analyzing the English corpus of Chinese learners and the native language corpus (BNC academic text sub-corpus) in order to discover differences in the use of modal words between Chinese English learners and native speakers. The study found that there were significant differences in the use of modal words between Chinese English learners and native language authors, with native language authors using almost three times as many modal words as Chinese English learners. An analysis of the writings of Chinese learners of five different levels found that as the level increased, they increased their awareness of using modal words, which were closer to the essays of native language authors.

In China, the research on hedges mainly focuses on academic papers. For example, Xu et al. (2014) analyzed the similarities and differences in the use of hedges in English scientific research papers of Chinese mainland scholars and English native speakers. The results showed that the proportion of hedges used by mainland Chinese scholars was slightly higher than that of native speakers. Wang et al. (2016) analyzed the use of hedges between Chinese science and engineering doctoral students' academic writing and international journal scholars' papers, and found that the hedges used by science and engineering students were slightly higher than those used in journal papers. Chinese students are more likely to use fixed and limited hedges. There are relatively fewer studies on the use of hedges in Chinese college students' writing, with one exception being Chen and Huang (2015) who compared the differences in the use of hedges in English newspaper editorials and advanced English learners' eight compositions, and found that Chinese advanced English learners were more inclined to use hedges in their compositions, but the type of hedges they used was relatively simple. In general, previous studies have found that Chinese scholars overused certain hedges.

So far, few studies have considered language proficiency, that is, comparing the differences in the use of hedges among students with different language proficiencies. Hyland and Milton (1997) and Chen (2010)'s research provided

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great inspiration for this research. However, Hyland and Milton (1997) studied secondary school students in Hong Kong, while Chen (2010) compared Chinese students' compositions with published academic texts by native-language authors. The two texts belong to different genres and are not comparable, as Hyland and Milton (1997) mentioned, it is inappropriate to compare non-native language students' writings with the unrealistically high standard writings of "experts", because "experts" academic research texts are rigorously reviewed and revised before publication. In view of this, on the basis of previous research, this paper compares the use of hedges in English writings by students in key universities and ordinary universities, and compares it with the writings of native language student to explore the use of hedges by college students at different levels in order to provide some inspiration for English writing teaching.

## II. RESEARCH DESIGN

### A. Research Questions

The questions that this study intends to answer are: 1) What is the difference between the hedges used by students from key universities and those used by ordinary university students? 2) What is the difference between the hedges used by students of key and ordinary universities on the one hand and the hedges used by native language students on the other hand?

### B. Research Material

The data analyzed in this article comes from the writings collected by a writing campaign held by China Wordnet Company in 2016. The title of the essay is "How will AI affect our life?". The title has a paragraph in English that introduces the background of Alphago (artificial intelligence program) defeating the Korean Go master Lee Sedol, and requires students to write an argumentative essay on the impact of AI on human beings, with a word count of 180-400 words. This paper selects 1,000 writings from 3 key universities in Sichuan and Chongqing, with a total of 240,383 words; 1,000 writings from 8 ordinary universities in Chongqing, with a total of 184,973 words. We then compare the results with the Leuven Native Language Composition Corpus (LONCESS). We choose LONCESS as the reference corpus, because LONCESS contains the writings of British and American college students. Because some of the writings of British college students are literary essays, this paper selects the writings of American college students, all of which are argumentative essays, which are comparable to those of Chinese college students in subject matter. There are 176 argumentative writings selected from American college students with a total of 150,591 words.

### C. Research Object

Hedges used for comparison were selected from Hyland and Milton's (1997) classification of hedges. Hyland and Milton (1997) classified hedges into five categories according to their degree of certainty: Certainty, Probability, Possibility, Usuality and Approximation. The author admitted that this distribution is somewhat arbitrary (Hyland & Milton, 1997), and since Chinese college students often do not distinguish between probability and possibility, we combined them into one category, called Possibility. Hyland and Milton (1997) divided hedges into five categories according to their grammatical categories: modal verbs, adjectives, nouns, verbs and adverbs. Considering the reality of Chinese college students' writings, this study added another category: phrase. Finally, from the list of Hyland and Milton (1997), the hedges that may be most commonly used by L2 learners were selected as research object. The modal verbs such as *can/could/can't /couldn't/should/shouldn't, must/mustn't* were not selected in this study because these modal verbs can express obligation meaning as well as modal meaning, and manually excluding obligation meaning in large amounts of data is time-consuming and almost impossible to accomplish. The following table listed categories and examples of hedges for analysis.

TABLE 1  
HEDGES FOR ANALYSIS

category	modal verb	adjective	noun	verb	adverb	phrase
Certainty	will, won't	certain, sure, clear		think, believe	actually, certainly, definitely, clearly, obviously, essentially, indeed, surely, undoubtedly, quite	there is no doubt, in fact, of course, as we (all) know, as far as I am concerned, in my opinion
Possibility	would, may, might, wouldn't	probable, possible, likely	possibility, probability	seem, argue, appear, indicate, predict, assume, claim, doubt	probably, rarely, possibly, generally, perhaps, relatively	generally speaking
Usuality					always, never, often, frequently, usually, sometimes	
Approximation					about, almost, around	to a certain extent

#### D. Research Tools

The research tool used in this paper is the corpus analysis software AntConc.

#### E. Research Process

To answer questions 1 and 2, we used AntConc to extract all concordances of hedges, and then manually excluded concordances that do not contain modal meaning (e.g., we can *clear* our room), and finally calculate its absolute frequency and relative frequency. The absolute frequency is the number of times the hedges appear in the corpus. The calculation method of the relative frequency is: the original frequency of the hedges / the total number of words in the corpus \* 100,000.

### III. RESEARCH RESULT

Table 2 showed the total word count of hedges in the three corpora.

TABLE 2  
THE TOTAL NUMBER OF HEDGES IN THE THREE CORPORA

hedges	Key university students' writings	ordinary university students' writings	Native language students' writings
total word count	6937 (2.89%)	4985 (2.69%)	2737 (1.82%)

From Table 2, we can see that the proportions of hedges used by Chinese college students in the entire corpus are 2.89% (key universities) and 2.69% (ordinary universities), and the proportions of hedges used by American college students in the entire corpus is 1.82%. Chinese students use more hedges than native language students, and students from key universities use slightly more hedges than ordinary university students. It can be seen that compared with native language students, students in both key universities and ordinary universities use more hedges, and students in key universities use more hedges. This also confirms the previous hypothesis of overuse, that is, Chinese students and scholars as a whole overuse hedges.

Below, we extract top 10 most commonly used hedges. To make the data comparable, we calculate the relative frequency of hedges and the results are shown below:

TABLE 3  
THE MOST COMMONLY USED HEDGES IN THE THREE CORPORA

Key university students' writings			Ordinary university students' writings			Native language students' writings		
ranking	hedges	relative frequency	ranking	hedges	relative frequency	ranking	hedges	relative frequency
1	will	1283	1	will	1342	1	would	428
2	think	304	2	think	372	2	will	321
3	may	278	3	may	171	3	may	133
4	believe	108	4	believe	111	4	think	88
5	would	103	5	would	89	5	believe	73
6	in my opinion	97	6	always	58	6	never	58
7	never	67	7	as far as I am concerned	48	7	claim	58
8	always	64	8	won't	34	8	often	50
9	possible	41	9	there is no doubt	33	9	always	48
10	won't	35	10	as we (all) know	32	10	seem	43
TOTAL		2380			2290			1300

Hedges used in the two Chinese college students' corpora are roughly the same, but the order is slightly different. The hedges that Chinese students have in common with native language students are: *would*, *will*, *may*, *think*, *believe*, *always*. It is worth noting that the frequency of the modal verb *will* in Chinese college student corpus is about 4 times that of its native language student corpus, while the modal verb *would* appears in the native language student corpus about four times as often as its Chinese college student corpus. This trend is basically consistent with the findings of Hyland and Milton (1997), who found that the frequency of *will* in non-native language compositions is twice as high as in native language compositions, while *would* is the opposite. Their explanation for this is that second language learners tend to make more confident prediction, while native language learners tend to predict tentatively (Hyland & Milton, 1997). Students in key universities use *will* slightly less than students in ordinary universities, and use *would* more than students in ordinary universities. The frequency of the modal verb *may* in Chinese college students corpus is higher than that of native language students, which is basically consistent with the research results of Hyland and Milton (1997), who found that the frequency of *may* in non-native language compositions appeared twice as often in native language compositions, and it appeared to be an idiom used by non-native language students to express possibility. Students from key universities use *may* slightly more than students at ordinary universities. The occurrence frequency of the verbs *think* and *believe* in the corpus of Chinese college students is higher than that of native language students, which are almost the main verbs used by Chinese college students to express affirmative meaning. Students at key universities use *think* and *believe* slightly less than students at ordinary universities. The high-frequency hedge phrases commonly used by Chinese students, such as *in my opinion*, *as far as I am concerned*, etc., do not appear in the native language writings. Hedges such as *seem*, *often*, *claim* commonly used by native language students do not appear in Chinese college students' writings. It can be seen that the high-frequency hedges in native language writings are not completely consistent with the hedges commonly used by Chinese students. In addition, we found that the top 10 most commonly used hedges accounted for about 82% (key universities) and 85% (ordinary universities) of all the hedges used by Chinese college students, respectively. Hedges accounted for about 71% of all the hedges used by native language students. This shows that the Chinese college students heavily rely on a narrow range of hedges.

Next, we compare the distribution of hedges across grammatical categories in the three corpora.

TABLE 4  
DISTRIBUTION OF HEDGES ACROSS SIX GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THREE CORPORA

grammatical category	Key university students' writings	Ordinary university students' writings	Native language students' writings
modal verb	1726	1668	931
adjective	84	59	74
noun	14	7	6
verb	456	517	313
adverb	355	255	446
phrase	250	189	48

It can be seen from Table 4 that all the students use modal verbs (especially *will*, *would*, *may*) the most, and Chinese college students, especially those from key universities, use more modal verbs. This is consistent with the findings of Hyland and Milton (1997), which may result from an overemphasis of modal verbs in second language writing textbooks (Hyland, 1994). In Chinese writing classes, teachers may also overemphasize the use of modal verbs to express modal meaning to students. After modal verbs, Chinese students rely more on verbs (especially *think* and *believe*) rather than adverbs to express modal meanings, while native language students are just the opposite. Hyland and Milton (1997) also found that native speakers used more and varied adverbs. Students from key universities use

fewer verbs and more adverbs than students from ordinary universities. In this respect, students from key universities are closer to native speakers. Nouns and adjectives are used less in the three corpora, and Chinese college students use more phrases (especially *in my opinion, as far as I am concerned*) than native language students. These phrases have been deeply rooted in the minds of Chinese college students and have become their fixed phrases for expressing their views.

Below, we compare the degree to which hedges represent certainty across the three corpora.

TABLE 5  
THE AFFIRMATIVE DEGREE OF HEDGE EXPRESSIONS IN THE THREE CORPORA

The degree of certainty	Key university students' writings	Ordinary university students' writings	Native language students' writings
Certainty	2122	2130	668
Possibility	566	415	896
Usuality	165	133	212
Approximation	33	16	41

From Table 5, we can see that Chinese college students use far more hedges expressing certainty than those expressing possibility. This is consistent with previous studies (e.g. Hyland & Milton, 1997; Milton & Hyland, 1999; Chen, 2010) that many L2 learners often used stronger assertions and had a more authoritative tone than native language authors. Chinese college students use more than three times as many hedges to express Certainty as native language students, and students from key universities use slightly less hedges to express Certainty than students from ordinary universities. Native language students use more hedges to indicate Possibility, Usuality and Approximation than Chinese college students. Students from key universities use more hedges expressing Possibility, Usuality and Approximation than students from ordinary universities. In this regard, students from key universities are closer to native language students. This is consistent with the findings of Hyland and Milton (1997), who found that students with higher proficiency were closer to native speakers, while students with lower proficiency used more hedges expressing certainty. Among the hedges expressing the Usuality, Chinese college students use *always* (64 in key universities, 58 in ordinary universities) and *never* (67 in key universities, 32 in ordinary universities) the most, while native language students use *never* (58) and *often* (50) the most. For examples:

- AI will **always** be under mankind's control and be utilized by mankind.(key universities)
- The artificial intelligence will be enduring technology of being eliminated by The Time and **never** change. (key universities)
- This event showed that the AI **will** have human's thought and wisdom one day. (key universities)
- I **think** school life will be different from now.(ordinary universities)
- I **believe** it will be the direction of the future. (ordinary universities)
- If euthanasia was ever argued as an act of consequence it **probably would** not have the impact that it has by handling it a values issue. (Native)
- In this case, criminals **seem** to model their behavior after the state. (Native)
- Forty years ago, starting the day off in a public school **often** meant reciting the pledge of allegiance and a group prayer. (Native)

From these examples, it can be seen that the tone of Chinese college students' writing is too affirmative, while the tone of native language students' writing is much softer.

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper uses the network platform to collect students' writings, builds a corpus, and compares it with the native language corpus LONCESS in order to systematically analyze the use of hedges in the writings of Chinese students at different levels and find out the differences in the use of hedges from native language students. The research results show that: 1) Compared with native language students, Chinese college students as a whole overuse hedges in their writings, and students from key universities use slightly more hedges; 2) Compared with native language students, the hedges used by Chinese college students are more limited and they rely too much on modal verbs, that is, Chinese college students do not know how to properly use other grammatical categories (such as verbs, nouns, adverbs, etc.) to express doubts or uncertainty. Both students from key universities and ordinary universities have this problem; 3) Compared with native language students, Chinese college students from key universities and ordinary universities use more hedges to express Certainty, and use less hedges to express Possibility, Usuality and Approximation. Students from key universities use slightly more hedges to express Possibility, Usuality and Approximation. 4) Language proficiency does not play a big role here in distinguishing writings by students from key universities and students from ordinary universities, since both group of students shows similar tendency in the use of hedges, so it can be seen that hedges indeed pose great difficulties for students no matter what their language level is.

There may be two reasons for this phenomenon: first, as Hyland and Milton (1997) pointed out, Chinese writing tends to be more implicit, and Chinese students may mistakenly believe that English writing must be explicit and direct, so they may adopt a way of conveying meaning that can be overly direct and arbitrary. Second, in traditional writing classes, teachers hardly emphasize and guide students to use hedges correctly, and the existing writing teaching

materials lack this content, which makes it difficult for students to master the use of hedges (Milton & Hyland, 1999).

In 1997, Hyland and Milton found that non-native speakers in Hong Kong could not use epistemic devices appropriately in their writing. However, after 25 years, the situation does not see much improvement. According to our study, Chinese students both at key and ordinary universities do not know how to use hedges in their writing and their writing sounds assertive. That means hedges have not received adequate attention in English teaching, which for years have focused on vocabulary and sentence structure. The fact is that hedges can be acquired through effective teaching. As Hyland and Milton (1997) pointed out, explicit instruction may help students acquire the usage of hedges. In order to address this problem, teachers can start by explicitly teaching students the writing norms of English, in which the tone of possibility (rather than affirmation) and the expression of caution (rather than overconfidence) are appropriate, while the expression of strong imperative tone is considered offensive (Hyland, 2006, cited in Chen, 2010). Moreover, teachers can raise students' awareness of different degrees of probability by providing students with examples that convey Certainty, Possibility, Usuality and Approximation and tell students the difference between them. In addition, teachers can provide students with hedges in various grammatical categories, so that students can have a variety of hedges to convey modal meanings instead of excessively relying on modal verbs. Lastly, writing textbooks also need to address this inadequacy by adding relevant examples and exercises concerning hedges in their materials. Only through efforts from all sides, can students master this device and communicate appropriately in English discourse community.

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# Maritime Lexicon as Language Identity of Coastal Community in Tuban Regency, Indonesia

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**Abstract**—The coastal community of Tuban Regency has a distinctive language identity. This language identity becomes a distinguishing element with the surrounding speech community. It appears in the marine lexicon they use. This study aims to examine the linguistic identity by describing (1) the linguistic situation of the community, (2) the marine lexicon, which is their language identity, and (3) the relationship between the lexicon and its socio-cultural conditions in terms of Redfield's theory. The researcher collected data by observation and interviews in an ethnolinguistic framework to achieve this. The results of the study show (1) the linguistic situation of the coastal community of Tuban Regency has Mataraman Javanese as their mother tongue but is interfered with Arek Javanese and Madurese languages. (2) The naming of fish, ship parts, fishing equipment and fishing activities becomes a marine lexicon as a marker of the language identity of the speech community. (3) The marine lexicon is also a link to the socio-cultural conditions of coastal communities following Redfield's theory, namely coastal communities in small town areas that are developing. However, these coastal communities do not develop in harmony with the surrounding social communities.

**Index Terms**—lexicon, maritime, coastal community, ethnolinguistics

## I. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is a maritime country where most of its territory consists of oceans. The coastline in Indonesia stretches for more than 90 thousand kilometres and continues to increase. This long coastline is inhabited by 3.07 percent of Indonesia's population, also known as coastal communities (Sui et al., 2020). According to Redfield (Choi & McNeely, 2018; Welsch et al, 1994), coastal communities have a distinctive cultural identity as a social community. Coastal communities in Indonesia are part of various forms of social community scale. Coastal communities can exist in the demographics of cities, towns, peasant villages, or even tribal villages.

Redfield categorises coastal communities from their parent demographics to identify the cultural position of coastal communities as well as their development potential. Coastal communities living in big cities, towns, villages, and traditional villages have opportunities and challenges in maintaining their existence (Choi & McNeely, 2018).

In addition, the reach and mobility of coastal communities are much higher than agrarian communities, urban communities, or other types of communities. High mobility and broad reach make coastal communities have adaptive social skills. This adaptability can lead to acculturation and even the construction of a new culture.

One of the constructions of this new culture is illustrated by the use of language. From a language perspective, the adaptiveness of coastal communities is reflected in the lexicon and language structure used. The lexicon that appears can be so diverse. This is because coastal communities absorb language from the places they visit. The language structure of coastal communities also adapts to their communication needs (Tondo, 2020). Uniquely, the language of coastal communities in Indonesia is a paradox.

On the one hand, their language is very flexible and absorbent. On the other hand, this flexibility excludes coastal communities from the surrounding communities regarding language use. This linguistic phenomenon was captured by researchers in the coastal community of Tuban Regency.

Tuban Regency has a coastal area that extends from the Districts of Palang, Jenu and Bancar. Palang District is adjacent to Lamongan Regency, while Bancar District is adjacent to Rembang Regency in Central Java. There are fishing villages along the area. According to initial observations, residents in the fishing village have distinctive linguistic features such as greeting words, interjections, lexicon about marine matters, and shortening words that show their different identities with the speech community outside them. The speech community outside the fishing village can easily recognise the residents of the fishing village from the way they interact using distinctive linguistic features.

This study chose to focus on the marine lexicon as a marker of the identity of the coastal community of Tuban Regency. The lexicon was chosen because it is sensitive to cultural transformation as a linguistic feature (Lubis & Widayati, 2022). Cultural development affects the development of lexicon or terms related to a particular culture. The lexicon appears along with the human need to identify existing cultural products. The development of culture in a

particular society can be seen, for example, by developing the lexicon of that culture. Language is the most important manifestation of the mental life of the speaker. A language is also a tool for classifying experiences. Therefore, the diversity of existing languages can be understood if it can classify human experience differently (Fernandez, 2008). Often this is not realised by speakers of the language. Thus, as stated by Palmer, the classification of human experience can be reflected, in addition to the grammatical system that reflects the mindset, the classification also has a relationship with the psychological problems of the speakers. Lexicon and cultural identity are two interrelated substances (Moon, 2018).

Coastal communities are a cultural entity that is very interesting to study. Indonesia's geographical conditions cause coastal communities to be the gateway to a larger colony. In the area where coastal communities live, there is always a trade centre which causes a mix of coastal communities and migrants. Not to mention related to their mobility, which on average is higher than that of an agrarian society. The language or culture they get from encounters with their external speech community is not a little that they bring to the internal speech community to create such plural acculturation. Tahir (2020) sees this as an unavoidable acculturation potential. However, Tondo (2020) considers coastal communities to be a periphery, a community that is marginalised from the hustle and bustle of development.

Based on Redfield's opinion, coastal communities' view depends on many factors. Coastal communities with a solid economic foundation can become the "gateway of civilisation" and part of a sustainable cultural transformation (Choi & McNeely, 2018). Meanwhile, not a few coastal communities have finally had to leave their lands because they were forced to sell them to developers. Researchers are trying to get a portrait of the coastal community of Tuban Regency by taking an ethnolinguistic approach.

Ethnolinguistics becomes the right binocular when a research study is needed to discover a speech community from within the community. Researchers do not position themselves as people who put their research subjects in a glass box but fuse with them and experience empirical experiences with them (Humaedi, 2016). With these binoculars, researchers also try to see the marine culture of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency through one of its linguistic features, namely the lexicon. Finally, researchers can have a picture of being included in the category of the Redfield version, which is the coastal community in Tuban Regency.

During the literature review, the researcher found several studies on language in coastal communities in the context of everyday language use (Welsch et al., 1994), education and border issues (Cavaion, 2020), local language maintenance in the middle of the world. The onslaught of immigrant languages (Tahir et al., 2020), and there is research that is so relevant to this research in terms of the research subject and the scalpel used, namely Chafidhi's research (2019) which reviews the verbal and nonverbal expressions of coastal communities in Sidoarjo. With an ethnolinguistic scalpel, Chafidhi relates the linguistic features of coastal communities to the beliefs they profess. Research that researchers do will not link it. Researchers are more interested in the socio-cultural picture of the research subject in Redfield's framework.

To achieve this, the researchers formulated the formulation of the problem: (1) as an initial view, what is the linguistic situation of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency?; (2) how is the marine lexicon that appears in the coastal communities of Tuban Regency; and (3) how is the marine lexicon related to the socio-cultural description of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency and the categorisation of coastal communities according to Redfield?

## II. METHOD

This research approach is qualitative within the framework of ethnolinguistics or by Duranti (1997), also called anthropolinguistics, which views language as a source of culture and communication interaction as a cultural practice. This study will use language as the primary data; then, the findings will be linked to culture to find certain relationships or patterns. Therefore, researchers need a qualitative approach to present a holistic research picture and complex data building (Rose et al., 2020).

Following the initial explanation, this research is ethnolinguistic. This study seeks to investigate the life behaviour of a speech community and explore their habits, values, and practices in language. The speech community referred to here is the coastal community of Tuban Regency with the boundaries of the indigenous people who live in fishing villages and work as fishermen. This research also puts forward the natural context in the data collection process. With this estuary, the researchers used an ethnographic research design.

The research data were collected using observation and in-depth interviews. Researchers are individuals from outside the coastal community of Tuban Regency. However, the researcher lives and grows up close to the coastal community so that, as an initial provision, the researcher has a linguistic sensitivity to the language differentiation of the coastal community of Tuban Regency with the surrounding community. However, to further deepen the researcher's understanding of the linguistic phenomena, the researchers interacted with coastal communities in fishing villages and fish markets for one month. This interaction process then became one of the observations in this study.

The researcher also conducted in-depth interviews with three informants, A, B, and C. Informant A is a cultural guardian of the coastal community of Tuban Regency. From informant A, the researcher explores data from the perspective of practices, values, and cultural habits of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. Informant B is a fisherman who lives in Kingking Village. From informant B, the researcher explores data about the linguistic features that appear in the speech of the fishing village community. Informant C is a fishing village resident who works as an



Indonesian language teacher. The researcher deliberately took informants with a linguistic background to complete and clarify the linguistic data the researchers obtained. These three informants also function as data validators who check the validity of the researcher's data.

The results of observations and interviews were then analysed thematically. The thematic analysis attempts to analyse data by identifying patterns or themes through the desired data. Thematic analysis is pursued by (1) seeking a complete understanding of the data at hand; (2) after that, the researcher begins to classify the data according to the problem formulation; and (3) researchers identify significant themes that can link the pieces of findings and results of the discussion into a whole big picture related to the existence of language and culture in a speech community (Spradley, 2007).

### III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

#### A. *The Linguistic Situation of the Coastal Community of Tuban Regency*

The coastal communities of Tuban Regency, like most residents of Tuban Regency, basically use the Mataraman dialect of Javanese (Hutari et al., 2019). However, as previously explained, the geographical location causes the coastal communities of Tuban Regency to be influenced by the Javanese dialect of Arek because it borders Lamongan and also the Mataraman influence, which is getting more robust because it borders Rembang Regency. In addition, interactions with fishermen from Bawean, Madura, and Kangean created interference in the speech of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency.

(1) "... ati-ati teri lanjhangmu lugor lo..."

Speech data (1) is evidence that language interference around appears in the speech of the coastal community of Tuban Regency. *Lugor* diction is a diction that appears in Arek Javanese speakers. Mataraman Javanese speakers will tend to choose *ceblok*, *tibo*, or *jeglok* to refer to falling, while Arek Javanese speakers will tend to choose *lugor* or *rutuh* to refer to the meaning of falling. What is unique in this data is the naming of fish names. On the data appears anchovy *lanjhang* diction. Anchovy *lanjhang* referred to here, is a type of anchovy from *lanjhang* fish, a fish that is small but elongated and more prolonged than anchovies in general. *Lanjhang* itself interfered with *lanjhang* in the Madurese language, which means long. Mataraman Javanese speakers will tend to choose the word *dowo* to refer to the long meaning, not *lanjhang*, which is closer to the Madurese language.

Data (1) may not necessarily be understood by the non-coastal Tuban community, who mostly use Mataraman Javanese. This is where the language differentiation of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency can be identified. As in the example data (1), the fish name lexicon data can show a different language identity from the coastal community of Tuban Regency. The coastal communities of Tuban Regency absorb languages from their surroundings and then construct them into a new language pattern that is sometimes very unique to the internal speech community and difficult to understand by speech partners who come from outside the community. According to the researcher's observations, these lexicons can become linguistic features that distinguish the language of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency from the surrounding languages. Because coastal communities' communication interactions will not be far from marine and fisheries, the lexicon markers of cultural identity have great potential to emerge from the terms marine and fisheries.

#### B. *Fish Naming Lexicon*

The naming of fish in some areas can be different. Some fish whose populations may be easily found throughout Indonesia have widely known names, such as mackerel, snapper, or tuna. However, some fish with populations that are not extensive, even tend to be endemic, usually have local names (Chafidhi et al., 2019). This tendency also appears in naming fish in the Tuban Regency's coastal communities. There are several considerations that people use to name the fish. The language chosen also shows that it often represents a specific identity. Non-coastal communities do not know the history of naming these fish but accept them and use them in communication voluntarily. Researchers classify several lexicons of naming fish by coastal communities of Tuban Regency, which show their unique identity as shown in the table below.

TABLE 1  
FISH NAMING LEXICON

Num	Fish Name	Naming Reference	Categorisation
1	Gadung kuncir	It has a slightly twisted lower fin and resembles a pigtail (pigtails are called <i>kuncir</i> in Javanese)	Physiological Features
2	Pá	A type of anchovy that is flat like a stingray (stingrays are called <i>iwak p é</i> in Javanese)	
3	C ãn ð	The type of puffer fish that fits in the palm, so it is easy to squeeze (squeezing is called <i>c ãn ð</i> in Javanese)	
4	Dolo	Has the physiological characteristics of glaring eyes (glaring is called <i>mendolo</i> in Javanese)	
5	Naja	Fish that often attract fishermen's nets (attract is called <i>naja</i> in Madurese)	Movements or ways of life
6	C ãrut	Small fish that can quickly be released when gripped (onomatopoeia: naming derived from imitation of sound)	
7	L ãngan	Often hides in hollow bottom coral (cavities or holes are called <i>l ãng</i> in Javanese)	
8	Jogo boyo	It is believed that it can only be found on certain days (people make an analogy with the Jogo Boyo, village apparatus, which can also only be found on certain days)	
9	Dudut	The motion back and forth as if pulsating	Uptake from other languages
10	Ndoro siri	Often avoids by swimming to the left side of his body (people make an analogy with his boss's wife, who is not legally married, so they always avoid when guests visit)	
11	Sungkril	The name comes from Sungril ( <i>Elagatis bipinulata</i> )	

In fact, during the observation and interview process, much lexicon was collected related to the names of fish and the origins of these names. However, researchers have conducted preliminary verification to see how general the fish's name is used elsewhere. The lexicon presented in table 1 is a lexicon that is not found in other areas, so it shows the exclusivity of speakers who use the lexicon.

Table 1 shows that the naming of fish can be classified from their physiological characteristics, movements or habits of the fish's way of life, and absorption from other languages. The data also shows that language interference still occurs in this lexicon list. For example, the name *naja* fish is suspected to be interfered with by the Madurese language *najha*, which means interesting because, according to the explanation in the table above, it comes from the fish's habit of pulling on fishermen's nets. In addition, interference was also found in the name of the arm fish. The name of this fish is derived from the word *l ãng*, which means a hole or nest in the form of a hole. This word is more productive in the Rembang, Blora, or Pati areas. Non-coastal Javanese speakers of Tuban Regency tend to choose *bolongan* or *longan* to refer to the same meaning as *l ãng*.

### C. Boat Parts Lexicon

Fishing activities cannot be separated from the means of transportation used, namely boats or boats. The fishing culture of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency is closely related to outboard diesel engine boats and outrigger boats. These two types of boats are the types most widely used by coastal fishermen of Tuban Regency. The reasons for choosing these two boats will be explained in the next section. Outboard diesel engines and outrigger boats are boats with a small catch scale and a reach that is not too far away. These two boats are still the mainstay of traditional fishermen, such as coastal fishermen of Tuban Regency.

Researchers found lexicons not recognised by non-coastal communities of Tuban Regency, mainly related to parts of outboard diesel engine boats.

TABLE 2  
BOAT PARTS LEXICON

Num	Lexicon	Reference
1	Gadingan	Steering that serves to stabilise and steer the ship
2	C ãntik	The front and back of the boat are tapered
3	Plipitan	The usual side of the boat is also a place for holding and adding an outrigger
4	Pulangan	Part of the ship is made of wood as a barrier for the ship's captain and crew. Please note that the captain of the ship usually sits in front of the diesel engine because the rudder is also there
5	Tonggol	The mast on which to attach the sail
6	Bangkalan	Part of a ship made of wood to which the diesel engine is attached
7	Tatapan	Footsteps on the boat

In addition to the lexicon in the table, there is a particular lexicon that refers to the boat part. However, the researcher decided not to include it because the lexicon that appears borrows terms from Indonesian and is generally used by coastal communities in Indonesia. The lexicon is, for example, the sail, the hull, or the keel (the wooden main frame of the boat).

For the record, after the researchers verified the data, it turned out that the boat part lexicon was also used by fishermen in the Java Island region, with the mother tongue being Javanese, especially in the north coast area. So, the

lexicon in the table above is not exclusively used by the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. Researchers still present it in the data because this lexicon is foreign to non-coastal communities.

#### D. Marine Device Lexicon

In addition to boats which are a vital part of the fishing culture, there are also tools or equipment from the sea that usually serve to catch fish or survive while sailing. In the coastal communities of Tuban Regency, researchers also found that coastal communities use a particular lexicon and are not understood by non-coastal communities.

TABLE 3  
MARINE DEVICE LEXICON

Num	Lexicon	Reference
1	Garit	Iron rod for catching clams
2	Pêngirit	A slap rope is attached to a garit as support in catching clams
3	Waring	The nylon webbing acts as a net and is placed under the surface of the water
4	Trol	A variation of the waring which is used by a boat drawn and woven to form a large shovel
5	Walisan	Special flexible fishing rod for catching crabs
6	Badong	Traps used to help catch crabs

In addition to the lexicon in the table, there is a particular lexicon that refers to fishing equipment. However, the researcher decided not to include it because the lexicon that appears borrows terms from Indonesian and is generally used by coastal communities throughout Indonesia. The lexicon is, for example, a net, a trawl, or a fishing rod.

For the record, after the researchers verified the data, it turns out that this lexicon of fishing equipment is also used by fishermen in the Java Island region with Javanese as their mother tongue, especially in the north coast area. So, the lexicon in the table above is not exclusively used by the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. Researchers still present it in the data because non-coastal communities do not use this lexicon.

#### E. Fishing Activities Lexicon

Coastal communities in Java have a particular verb for fishing activities: *miyang*. *Miyang* here tends to be carried by small-scale traditional fishermen. Meanwhile, for fishermen with boats and large-scale catches, the term *longlenan* is used (Puspita, 2018). *Miyang* in the coastal community of Tuban Regency is transformed from a verb to a noun. *Miyang* is not only a verb for fishing activities; its meaning is generalised into a noun that refers to both profession and identity. In the communication process, these two meanings of *miyang* are used interchangeably by coastal communities and non-coastal communities of Tuban Regency.

(1) "... bar miyang ko ndi ké?..."

(2) "... cah miyang biasané awaké ndadi kabèh, mbêndino kênèk sréngéngé..."

Data (2) shows the grammatical context of using the word *miyang* as a verb concerning going to the sea to catch fish. Meanwhile, data (3) is evidence of the generalisation of the meaning of the word *miyang*. This word expands and attaches to a noun indicating identity. The coastal communities of Tuban Regency, especially those who work as fishermen, are also known as *wong miyang*. Allomorphs of that, to refer to fishermen who are still very young and even classified as children but have joined the sea, the term *cah miyang* is used. This term is transformed into an identity. Community speakers and speech partners, if in a speech situation, the *wong Miyang* lexicon appears immediately able to catch the reference that the lexicon means fishermen from coastal communities in the three sub-districts.

In addition to *miyang*, as a general word for going to sea to catch fish, the coastal communities of Tuban Regency also have a particular lexicon in the form of verbs that refer to fishing activities according to the duration of the fishing activity itself, as illustrated in the table below.

TABLE 4  
THE VERB LEXICON OF FISHING ACTIVITIES

Num	Lexicon	Meaning	Reference
1	Mâhâk	Go to sea from morning to evening	Derived from the type of ship used
2	Ngothok	Go out to sea all day (leave in the morning, come back the next morning)	It comes from the sound of the boat used
3	Ngðbok	Go to sea for about a week	It comes from a place to store fish that is usually brought during the activity
4	Nggândong	Going to sea for more than a week but less than a month	It comes from a place to store fish that is usually brought during the activity
5	Ngapal	Go to sea for 1 to 3 months with cross-island and even cross-country distances.	Derived from the type of ship used

*Mâhâk* is a fishing activity that starts around 4 am and then returns at 4 pm. *Mâhâk* activities usually use outrigger boats that still rely on the wind to move, namely, *pethek*. The reach of this ship is very close because it only relies on the wind as its driving energy. Fishermen who are still alive can still be seen from the mainland. The fishing scale for *mâhek* is not much because the nets are not too big. Even dead fishermen usually get shallow water fish and crabs whose habitat is not far from the shoreline. It is not uncommon for the coastal communities of Tuban Regency to only meet their daily food needs without leaving any for sale.

*Ngothok* has a longer duration of fishing than *mâhek*. The persistent fishermen leave at 4 am and only return at 4 am the next day. The lexicon of this *ngothonok* activity comes from imitating the sound of the outboard engine that drives the boat used. Because it uses an outboard engine, the range of this boat is certainly further than the *mâhek*. The fishing scale for *ngothonok* is much larger than for *methek*. Fishermen who carry out *ngothonok* activities do intend to catch fish for trade. After being caught in the net, the fish are not put in a particular place. They are placed in the hull of the boat. Most fishermen in Tuban Regency choose *ngothonok* as their daily activity. This is related to the resources in the skills and equipment they have.

*Ngâbok* has a longer duration than *ngothonok*. The *ngâbok* fisherman will survive in the ocean for approximately one week. Therefore, the ship, equipment, and preparations differ from the previous two activities. Fishermen use boats with larger engine capacities and are equipped with small cubicles where they can store their goods and rest. Usually, fishermen will also prepare supplies during *ngâbok*. The *ngâbok* lexicon arises because the fish successfully caught during this activity will be stored in fish boxes. This is to maintain the freshness of the fish because the fish are not immediately sold. Usually, once doing *ngâbok*, fishermen will bring 5–10 fish boxes and try to fill them during the *ngâbok* period. Fishermen who carry out fishing activities have an orientation to sell their catch in boxes. The results of this *ngâbok* are usually also traded outside Tuban Regency.

*Nggândong* has a duration of fishing that is not much different from *ngâbok*. The fish storage container brought during the sea is the most distinguishing between these two activities. If the *ngâbok* brings a fish box, the *nggândong* brings *gândong*, a blue drum with a tamping capacity three times larger than the box. It is from the name of this drum that the lexicon *nggândong* comes. Fishermen who carry out activities also try to fill the blue drum at sea. Therefore, the duration they need is more than a week. However, the ship they use is the same as when doing *ngâbok*. As a result, this *nggândong* also has limitations in terms of the duration and range of the ship. Economically, holding is more profitable than *ngâbok*. With the cost of travel and supplies that are not much different, the profits obtained by fishermen can be doubled because the carrying capacity is much larger than the box. The fishermen carrying out the *nggândong* are also oriented towards long-distance trade. For *nggândong*, trade can be carried out between provinces. The catch of *nggândong* coastal communities of Tuban Regency is usually traded to DKI Jakarta.

*Ngapal* is a different level of activity than the previous four levels. The *ngapal* lexicon itself comes from the type of ship used. *Ngapal* uses a large boat with a capacity of 50–100 people. This activity is more modern and has a much larger economy of scale. The coastal communities of Tuban Regency usually ship by joining a crew on boats owned by large fishermen or companies. The range of the ship can reach the border with Kalimantan, so the catch is different. The fish obtained are deep sea water fish, such as tuna. The duration of this activity can be 1–3 months. Ironically, the coastal communities of Tuban Regency personally do not have boats that can be used to ship. The results obtained by the coastal communities of Tuban Regency for fishing are wages, not marine products because they are counted as freelance workers by the ship's owner.

#### F. Cultural Portraits of the Marine Lexicon

In the research process, the researcher found many other marine lexicons, which, indeed, when the lexicon is used in communication involving external speech partners from coastal communities, the communication process can be hampered—for example, the lexicon about ship parts and fishing gear. However, the researcher chose not to present the lexicon because it turns out that coastal communities outside Tuban Regency also use the lexicon. Researchers want to present the authenticity that is only owned by the coastal community of Tuban Regency. For example, in naming fish *jogo boyo*, which in other regions is called fish Sembilang. This *jogo boyo* lexicon is a typical example of the marine lexicon of the coastal community of Tuban Regency.

The fish naming lexicon found in this research process more or less shows that the coastal communities of Tuban Regency feel they are part of the extensive northern coastal ecosystem where they live and depend on their livelihood. Cultural relations between humans and the environment are also depicted there. The coastal community of Tuban Regency has knowledge related to the behaviour of marine life, making it a marker of fish identity. Usually, the names of marine biota are named according to physiological characteristics (Pujiono et al., 2013). If the naming comes to the habits and behaviour of marine biota, it means that it has passed through frequent observations before finally an "agreement" on its identity label occurs.

From another point of view, the lexicon of the fishing activity described in the previous section also shows the socio-economic situation of the coastal community of Tuban Regency. From fishing activities based on duration emerge five distinctive lexicons. Of the five, three are formed from language references originating from the inner speech of coastal communities, at least from Javanese, while the other two, *ngâbok* and *ngapal*, are suspected of interference from Indonesian and foreign languages. From this perspective, the three fishing activities, *mâhek*, *ngothonok*, and *nggendong*, tend to be closer culturally than the other two activities. This closeness is marked by constructing a lexicon derived from their language. In comparison, the other two activities tend to be more distant because they may also be rarely done, so it becomes a separate part of everyday life.

Ironically, the three lexicons are also a bleak portrait of the economic condition of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. *Ngapal* feels so foreign to them. It is recorded that the coastal community of Tuban Regency has zero ownership of the ship that can be used to ship the ship. They have to become freelancers if they want to join the ship. As previously explained, the catch scale of coastal communities in Tuban Regency is mostly in *ngothonok*. The catch is

not too much, and the frequency of going to the seas every day will undoubtedly encounter obstacles, such as weather, ship damage, or changes in fish migration. This is a classic fisherman problem. Fishermen from the coastal community of Tuban Regency are traditional fishermen who depend a lot on the *ngothok* for their livelihood. Of course, the impact is on their economic level, which tends to be in the lower middle range.

*Ngothok* as a culture has a positive side. The north coast of Tuban is known to produce a variety of marine catches still. Shellfish, crabs, and sea cucumbers are examples of marine life that cannot be found in the marine ecosystem has been damaged. Because most fishermen still rely on *ngothok*, the regeneration process for marine life is maintained. The sea in Tuban becomes less exploited and always produces marine products that can be distributed to remote areas. However, this is indeed a paradox for the condition of fishermen in the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. In the end, the marine lexicon of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency also shows their cultural identity as traditional fishermen.

If we return to the categorisation of coastal communities according to Redfield, the coastal communities of Tuban Regency are geographically included in the coastal communities, which are included in the combination of large town communities. The town as a small city, in this case, Tuban Regency, is still making significant progress in its development. However, the coastal communities as part of the combined community are stuttering to follow suit. In other words, it is not impossible. This coastal community will be left behind by the development of other communities around it.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The results of observations and interviews of researchers while interacting in the coastal community of Tuban Regency identified several findings, namely the linguistic situation of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency who speak Mataraman Javanese as their mother language but experience interference from Arek Javanese and Madurese languages. This interference is also manifested in the lexicon.

Marine lexicons show the unique identity of the coastal community of Tuban Regency as a speech community that has distinctive features and linguistic features that distinguish it from the surrounding community. These lexicons appear in (1) fish naming, (2) ship parts, (3) fishing equipment, and (4) fishing activities. The lexicon reference for naming fish comes from physiological characteristics, movements/way of life, and absorption from other languages. In the morphological process of the lexicon, it is suspected that there is interference between the Madurese language and the Mataraman Javanese language. The lexicon of ships and fishing equipment is a lexicon that marks coastal and non-coastal communities but is not authentic enough to describe the uniqueness of coastal communities in Tuban Regency because the lexicon that appears is also spoken in other coastal communities. The lexicon of fishing activity is the most distinctive identity marker found by researchers. The coastal communities of Tuban Regency have a lexicon of fishing activities that are not found in other coastal communities. This lexicon of fishing activity is distinguished according to the duration of the continuity of the activity. The reference to the marine activity lexicon comes from the sound of the ship used, the type of ship used, and the type of storage place for fish brought during fishing activities. The morphological processes that occur in the formation of the lexicon also show the linkage of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency as a speech community with their habits and life behaviours that intersect with the marine ecosystem.

The marine lexicon that appears, apart from being a marker of identity, also shows the cultural portrait of the coastal community of Tuban Regency, which cannot be separated from the marine ecosystem and the traditional marine system. The emerging marine lexicon can show the relationship and awareness of fishermen in maintaining the sustainability of the ocean as a place to depend on life. In the end, the marine cultural identity of the coastal communities of Tuban Regency is represented by the use of lexicons in their speech.

This paper is only a tiny part of the linguistic features that can be extracted from the coastal communities of Tuban Regency. The people of Tuban Regency who use the Mataraman Javanese language will feel so contrasted with the coastal communities of Tuban Regency, whose language use is more open to the influence of other languages. There are still many distinctive linguistic features that have not been discussed, for example, the process of word abbreviations, affixes, intonations, and even swearing by the coastal communities of Tuban Regency, which have great potential to be an exciting study.

Apart from the ethnolinguistic perspective, studies related to coastal communities in Tuban Regency can be developed from other perspectives, for example, from a pragmatic cross-cultural point of view. His distinctive speech culture can be juxtaposed with the speech culture of other coastal communities or far across agrarian and industrial societies. Studies like this will help stakeholders better understand coastal communities so that these communities are not considered a marginal part of the development of social systems.

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