Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 13, Number 4, April 2023

Contents

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 809-821, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.01

Doctor Repeats of Patient Responses in Vietnamese Medical Consultations

Hương Thị Linh Nguyễn
Independent researcher, Australia

Gavin Austin*
School of Education, University of Southern Queensland, Springfield, Australia

***Abstract*—This study examines doctor repeats of patient responses in medical interaction. These repeats lie at the third turn in a three-turn sequence: doctor question, patient response, and doctor follow-up utterance. The data were taken from 66 consultations held in the Consultation and General Practice Units of two public hospitals in Vietnam. Using a conversation-analytical approach, we reveal that doctor repeats in this specific cultural context serve to highlight the importance of the information provided by the patient for forming diagnostic hypotheses and recommending optimal treatment plans. In so doing, we also show that, in terms of function, doctor repeats differ in certain key respects from repeats in non-medical conversation.**

***Index Terms*—doctor repeats, patient responses, doctor-patient interaction, Vietnam, conversation analysis**

I. Introduction

Doctor repeats are in the next turn after the first saying by the patient in response to a doctor elicitor; in other words, they occupy the third position in a three-turn sequence: doctor question, patient response, and doctor follow-up utterance (Coulthard & Ashby, 1976; Mishler, 1984; Todd, 1984). Sequentially, this third-position repeat addresses the prior talk and, in particular, the immediately preceding talk (Schegloff, 2007), which in this case is the patient's response. While repeats in mundane conversation have been extensively investigated in the literature (Kim, 2002; Rabab'ah & Abuseileek, 2012; Robinson, 2013; Robinson & Kevoe-Feldman, 2010; Schegloff, 1996; Stivers, 2005; Tannen, 2007; Wong, 2000), relatively little research has been done on doctor repeats in medical communication (Ley, 1988; Silverman et al., 2013). The current study addresses this deficit by examining the form and function of doctor repeats within the framework of Conversation Analysis (CA).

II. Previous Studies on Repeats

In this section, we consider existing research on repeats in non-medical conversation and in medical interaction. Repeats in the former scenario have long captured the attention of researchers. Tannen (2007) identified four main functions of these repeats: (i) production, (ii) comprehension, (iii) connection, and (iv) interaction. In particular, speakers use repeats in non-medical conversation as a means of eliciting information more efficiently, since hardly any new information is transferred when the repeat is produced. In addition, a repeat links a new utterance to earlier discourse. More broadly, all four functions just listed enable speakers to accomplish their interactional goals and establish interpersonal involvement. In a study on the form and function of next-turn repeats in everyday interaction, Kim (2002) found that second-position repeats aim to initiate repair, seek confirmation or clarification, show the speaker's attitude, register receipt, display the speaker's agreement or expand the current speaker's turn. Similar to Kim (2002), Rabab'ah and Abuseileek (2012) identified several functions of repeats in TV discourse. In the talk show 'Dr. Phil', the eponymous host used repeats to express emphasis, clarity, emotions, annoyance, persuasion or surprise; highlight the obvious; show interest; give instructions or fill a pause.

In research concerned with repeats, non-medical interaction has also attracted scrutiny in studies using CA. Of note is the work of Robinson and colleagues on using repeats to initiate repair: Robinson and Kevoe-Feldman (2010) examined full repeats as a means of identifying the whole previous turn as the repairable, while Robinson (2013) investigated how speakers produce a partial questioning repeat as an other-initiation of repair. Wong (2000) focused on how speakers project a first saying and then a second saying within the same turn as a resumption action in the course of story-telling. In Stivers (2005), the speaker repeats another speaker's assertion as a method of asserting primary rights from second position. Schegloff (1996) examined the action of confirming an allusion in which one interactant shows agreement with the other by repeating what they have said in order to clarify inexplicit information.

* Corresponding Author.

By contrast, relatively little research has been done on doctor repeats in medical communication. We know of only two such studies: in Ley (1988), doctor repeats of important information facilitate the patient's recall, while in Silverman et al. (2013) these repeats encourage patients to speak at greater length. Moreover, neither of these studies adopted an empirical approach; rather, they were theoretical studies written for educational purposes only. In the present study, we adopt an approach of this kind within the CA framework specifically.

III. Methodology

This study examined 66 audio-taped consultations involving 15 general practitioners and 66 of their adult patients at the Consultation and General Practice Units of two public hospitals in Vietnam. The data were collected from June to August, 2016. Jefferson's (2004) CA transcription notations were adopted, except that one symbol (i.e., the hash (#) sign) has been added to symbolise clipped talk. The data were transcribed in the original Vietnamese using ELAN software, but only the extracts included in the present paper were translated into English.

IV. Doctor Repeats in the Third Position

The doctors in our corpus use three forms of repeats: full repeat, partial repeat and modified repeat. Full or partial repeats re-say all or part of the prior turn-constructional unit (TCU) or clause using the same words, except for any necessary deictic and speaker-change adjustments. Modified repeats preserve the idea in the previous utterance, but their form changes to some extent (e.g., from question format to declarative format). Apart from the practice of repeating the same content, the doctors also add prosody to the repeated turn in order to perform different courses of action. In the remainder of this section, we will look at examples of each of these repeat types.

A doctor's full repeat is exemplified in Extract 1, between the doctor, Chu, and his patient, Quang. Quang has had acute pain in his shoulder and the nape of his neck, as well as chronic kneecap arthritis. This extract is concerned with his kneecap, and takes place during the history-taking phase.

(1)

1	D:	*buổi*	*sáng*	*ngủ*	*dậy*	*#hắn#*	*có*	*cảm+giác*	*cứng*	*khớp*	*không?*
		CLA	morning	get	up	it	PRT	feel	stiff	joint	INT
		'Is this joint stiff when you get up in the morning?'									
2	P:	*hắn*	*#không#*	*cứ:ng*							
		it	not	stiff							
		'It isn't stiff'									
3		(0.2)									
4	D:→	*hắn*	*#không#*	*cứng?*							
		it	not	stiff							
		'It isn't stiff?'									
5	P:	*°↓ừ:°*									
		mmm									
		'Mmm'									

In response to Chu's question (line1), Quang rejects Chu's presupposition using a type-conforming answer (Raymond, 2003), which is fitted to the grammatical constraints of the question in the Vietnamese language (line 2). In other words, Quang's response is grammatically and pragmatically relevant to Chu's question. However, after a micro-pause (line 3), Chu receives Quang's answer with a full repeat of his utterance (line 4). This repeated turn is virtually identical to Quang's in terms of the clipped word, *#không#* ('not'), and the emphasis, *cứng* ('stiff'). However, it is different from Quang's turn in terms of prosody, as the use of final-rising intonation (symbolised by a question mark) expresses Chu's doubt regarding the veracity of Quang's information. In launching this utterance, Chu wants Quang to confirm its veracity, given that the non-stiff status of his kneecap arthritis is out of keeping with Chu's expertise with this variety of chronic pain. Quang's answering *°↓ừ:°* ('mmm') makes relevant Chu's turn as a question for confirmation, and is also seen as closing down this type of sequence (Gardner, 2001).

While a full repeat, by definition, contains an exact copy of a sentential TCU (Robinson & Kevoe-Feldman, 2010), a partial repeat contains an identical repeat of one part of the previous turn. This part can lie anywhere in the first saying. Note also that the doctors in our study tend to repeat key words. Consider Extract 2.

(2)

1 D: *anh*[1] *có::::-* *(.) mổ+miết chi không? (0.6) từ trước #đến# chừ-*

[1] The hierarchical organisation of Vietnamese society is explicit in a large collection of kinship terms employed for addressing and referring to others. In using these terms, the speaker counts the other person as their relative or family member (T. N. Trần, 2006), regardless of whether they are a genealogical relative or not (Hồ, 1997; Lương, 1990). The choice of kinship term in a given situation is sensitive to the age, marital status, social class, degree of intimacy, and gender of each interlocutor, as well as local customs (Farris, 2012; Huỳnh, 1989; Lê, 2011). Needless to say, these general comments apply to medical consultations as well. In this type of interaction, kinship terms are employed by interlocutors to express respect towards each other and maintain positive face (T. Q. N. Trần, 2013).

older+brother PRT operation what INT from past to now
2 *(0.2) từ trước chừ có mổ chuyện chi khô:ng?*
from past now PRT operation problem what INT
'Did you have an operation? Have you ever had an operation?'
3 (0.3)
4 P: *°không°*
no
'No'
5 (0.4)
6 D: *#không# mổ nơi à?*
no surgery PRT INT
'No surgery?'
7 P: *từ trước chừ chỉ::: à::: (0.5) ngoại+khoa rứa+°thôi°,*
from past now only uh surgery PRT
'Just non-surgical problems[2] until now'
8 (0.3)
9 D: → *ngoạ:i+khoa?*
surgery
'Non-surgical problems?'
10 P: *°dạ:°*
yes
'Yes'

The doctor, Lam, wants to know whether his patient, Vu, has ever had an operation (lines 1-2). In response, Vu gives a minimal answer in a soft voice, *°không°* ('no'; line 4). This quiet manner may cause Lam to mishear: after 0.4 seconds, he issues a reversed polarity repetitional question (Park, 2011), *#không# mổ nơi à?* ('no surgery?'; line 6), in pursuit of Vu's medical history. Via this reversed polarity repetitional question, Lam is committed to his hypothesis, but he also aligns himself to Vu's response to the rejection of that possibility, and constrains Vu to that response. Instead of giving a 'no' answer, Vu elaborates on his previous information, *từ trước chừ chỉ::: à::: (0.5) ngoại khoa rứa °thôi°* ('just non-surgical problems until now'). This response triggers Lam's partial repeat of Vu's turn in the form of a declarative question, *ngoạ:i khoa?* ('non-surgical problems?'; line 9) in order to seek Vu's confirmation. It is also possible that Vu's misuse of the medical term *ngoại khoa* ('surgery') to refer to non-surgical problems gives rise to Lam's partial repeat.

Apart from full or partial repeats, the doctor may also make a modification to a patient's first saying in order to pursue a course of action. For example, in Extract 3, the doctor, Chu, modifies Lan's assessment of her recovery in order to obtain her confirmation. This is Lan's follow-up visit; the extract is concerned with Chu's elicitation of her recovery assessment after her previous treatment course at this hospital under his care.

(3)
1 D: *↑khi:::+m- (0.5) khá:m (0.2) >khi+mà đau đây a< (.) #một#*
when treatment when pain here PRT one
2 *↑đợt ri là #hắn# (0.4) đỡ+được mấy phần?*
course this then it recover how+many percentage
'How much of your normal functioning have you recovered after one course of treatment in this hospital?'
3 (0.9)
4 P: *đỡ chắc+#cũng#+phải ba phần thôi,*
back probably three percentage only
'I'm probably back to only thirty percent'[3]
5 D:→ *đỡ #có# ba phần thôi¿*
ease PRT three percentage only
'Only thirty percent'
6 (0.3)
7 P: *#hắn# đỡ là đỡ (.) TÊ TAY (tiếp) thôi*
it decrease COP decrease numb hand continue only
'Only the numbness in my hands has decreased'

Having heard that Lan was probably back to only thirty percent of normal (line 4), Chu modifies Lan's response by replacing the phrase *chắc #cũng# phải* ('probably'; line 4) with the particle *#có#* (line 5). The phrase *chắc #cũng# phải*

[2] The patient uses the wrong medical term, *ngoại khoa* ('surgery'), when referring to non-surgical problems. For this reason, we have translated *ngoại khoa* as 'non-surgical problems'.
[3] By *ba phần* ('three percentage'), the patient means three on a scale of tens. For ease of understanding, we translate this as 'thirty percent'.

(‘probably’) communicates Lan’s weak epistemic stance towards the accuracy of her recovery assessment. Since this is her own problem, only Lan can make such an assessment. However, given her uncertainty, Chu, as the attending doctor, makes a modification to Lan’s saying in order to receive a more accurate assessment. He uses the particle *#có#*, which indicates the existence of something, in his modified repeat turn to confirm that Lan is back to thirty percent. This modified repeat does not elicit a type-conforming answer, but encourages Lan’s interpolation of further details into her recovery assessment (line 7).

Whereas Chu modifies his patient’s saying by using a replacement practice, some doctors add different discourse values to the patient’s previous turn. This is exemplified in Extract 4.

(4)
1 D: *ăn ngủ được:c không?*
eat sleep well INT
‘Can you eat and sleep well?’
2 (0.4)
3 P: *dạ =ăn được:c ngủ được:c*
HON eat well sleep well
‘Yes, I can’
4 D:→ *ăn được ngủ được:c, (0.2) °phải+không°? (0.2) rồ:::i*
eat well sleep well INT OK
‘You can eat and sleep well, can’t you? OK’

Notice how the doctor, Hung, adds the interrogative *phải không* (line 4) to the end of the declarative sentence spoken by his patient, Cam, (line 3) in order to form an information-seeking action.

Alternatively, doctors can add other values contingent on their communicative intent. The doctor, Hai, does this in Extract 5, concerned with the duration of Duyen’s problem (lines 1 and 5).

(5)
1 D: *đau ri lâu ↑chưa dì hè?*
pain this long INT aunt PRT
‘How long have you had this pain?’
2 (0.3)
3 P: *#dạ# lâu rồi*
HON long already
‘For a long time’
4 (0.4)
5 D: *mấy năm rồ:i?*
how+many year already
‘How many years?’
6 (1.2)
7 P: *đau ri #à:::# (0.5) bốn năm năm ↓rồi*
pain this PRT four five year already
‘It’s been four or five years’
8 (0.2)
9 D:→ *bốn năm năm ↑thôi ha?*
four five year only INT
‘Only four or five years?’
10 P: *#dạ# CHÂM (.) rồi đỡ (.) rồi nghỉ (.)*
yes acupuncture then better then stop
‘Yes. I had acupuncture and it got better, so I stopped treatment’
11 *rồi °tự+nhiên° đau= rồi châm*
then for+some+reason pain then acupuncture
‘then the pain recurred for some reason, and I had acupuncture again’

Hai’s modified repeat is constructed by removing the word *↓rồi* in line 7 (an adverb indicating the present perfect), and by adding the word *↑thôi* (‘only’; line 9); this minimises the duration of Duyen’s chronic pain. Duyen’s perspective is that she has suffered from this chronic pain for a long time (line 3)—specifically, four or five years (line 7). This might be long enough from the patient’s perspective, whereas Hai, who presumably elicits this information from numerous patients every day, may be using a different scale. In other words, it is possible that the concept of *lâu* (‘long’; line 3) is defined differently by both participants in the present interaction. In connection with this, notice how Hai treats the pain duration as short by adding the minimising qualification *↑thôi* (‘only’) plus a sharp change upward in pitch in his modified repeat turn (line 9).

In brief, this section has exemplified three major types of doctor repeats: full, partial, and modified. The doctor’s use of each type reflects their strategic deployment of their interactional organisation in the course of seeking information.

V. DOCTOR REPEATS: THE IMPORTANCE OF PATIENT INFORMATION

Although doctor repeats are dispersed throughout the consultations in our data, they mostly occur during history-taking, a stage characterised by doctor question-patient response sequences (Stivers & Heritage, 2001). In a set of communication guideline for nurses, Cox et al. (2004) assert that information about the history of a current concern enables doctors to (i) determine what has happened, (ii) assess the patient's personality, (iii) find out how the patient's concern has affected the patient and their family, (iv) identify any of their anxieties and (v) learn about their physical and social environment. This information establishes the doctor-patient relationship, informs the diagnosis, and facilitates the selection and implementation of appropriate treatment (Bickley & Szilagyi, 2013). In this light, doctors wish to obtain accurate information from patients; consequently, they often make repeats of patient responses.

Functionally, doctor repeats can enact two types of sequential position: initiating or closing a sequence. Although the doctors in our data employ repeats to attain different goals, the primary aim of their repeats is to elicit information from the patient. For this purpose, they initiate a new elicitation-response sequence. Basically, the function of eliciting information can be subsumed under the broad function of 'targeting a next action', as defined by Schegloff (2007). This category means that doctors use a repeat practice so as to project the next action, which can be of various types. In our data set, however, the main function of targeting a next action is to obtain more information.

The use of doctor repeats as a means of sequence initiation and information elicitation is exemplified in Extract 6, between the doctor, Quynh, and her patient, Vuong. Vuong has just told Quynh that he had his haemorrhoids removed in the past. The whole extract is concerned with how much time has elapsed since this was done.

(6)

1	D:	*cắt*	*lâu+mau*	*rồi*	*hè:?*						
		remove	how+long	already	INT						
		'How long ago did you have them removed?'									
2		(0.7)									
3	P:	*dạ:*	*=CẮT*	*năm*	*ngoá:i*						
		HON	remove	year	last						
		'I had them removed last year'									
4		(0.7)									
5	D:→	*cắt*	*năm*	*ngoái*	*=từ*	*năm*	*ngoái*	*#đến#*	*chừ*	*có*	*chảy+máu*
		remove	year	last	since	year	last	to	now	PRT	bleed
6		*lại*	*không?*								
		again	INT								
		'You had them removed last year. Has there been any bleeding again since then?'									
7	P:	*dạ:*	*↑không*								
		HON	no								
		'No'									

Quynh employs a full repeat as a basis for her information-seeking TCU at line 5. In particular, on hearing Vuong's disclosure of the point in time when he had his haemorrhoids removed, *năm ngoá:i* ('last year'; line 3), Quynh pauses for 0.7 seconds (line 4). Following rules of turn-taking and sequential organisation, pauses between turns should be minimal (Sacks et al., 1974). In other words, Quynh is expected to immediately take the turn. Therefore, her pause treats Vuong's response as terminating the previous sequence, and indicates that a turn change is underway. Quynh then fully repeats Vuong's previous turn, *cắt năm ngoái* ('You had them removed last year'; line 5), with the same emphasised word, *ngoái* ('last'). This repeat does not require any further action from Vuong: the intonation is level, plus Quynh rushes through the transition-relevance place without allowing any opportunity for Vuong to take his turn. Rather, the repeat serves as the grounds for Quynh to target a next action (Schegloff, 2007), that of initiating another sequence or information-seeking act. Quynh then immediately produces another TCU, *từ năm ngoái #đến# chừ có chảy máu lại không?* ('Has there been any bleeding again since then?'). In this TCU, she repeats the adverbial marker *năm ngoái* ('last year'), thereby indexing a *relative temporal specification* (Enfield, 2012) for her question. Overall, Quynh's deployment of her repeat practice aims to foreground her information-seeking action.

One common function of doctor repeats is to initiate repair. This practice is characterised by the partial repeat of a trouble-source unit with unit-final-rising intonation (Robinson, 2013). Notice how the doctor, Nam, uses a partial repeat to initiate repair in his interaction with his patient, Mai, in Extract 7.

(7)

1	D:	*mệ*	*đau*	*chi*	*#mà#*	*vô*	*đa:y?*			
		grandma	pain	what	COP	come	here			
		'What brings you here?'								
2		(0.5)								
3	P:	*°dạ::°*	*(0.6)*	*khi+TÊ::*	*a*	*là::*	*(0.2)*	*°là°*	*bổ:*	
		HON	past	PRT				COP	fall	
		'I had a fall in the past'								
4		(1.0)								

5 D:→ *bổ::?=*
fall
'A fall?'
6 P: *=lối kì Ngụy* *<u>bổ</u>:: (.) bờ-*
at time Nguy fall and
'During Nguy time[4], I had a fall and-'
7 (0.4)
8 D: [*ừ:*]
mmm
'Mmm'
9 P: *>[ầ:] #không#+phải bổ< (.)* *<u>xe</u>* *<u>tông</u>,*
uh not fall car hit
'I didn't fall, but was hit by a car'

On hearing that Mai had a fall in the past, Nam pauses for 10 seconds (line 4) before making a partial, virtually identical, final-rising-intoned repeat of Mai's response that treats *bổ::?* ('a fall'; line 5) as an other-initiated repair (Robinson & Kevoe-Feldman, 2010; Schegloff et al., 1977). It is an other-initiated repair because the repair is initiated by Nam, not by the participant who makes the trouble source (i.e., Mai). By repeating only the word *bổ::?* ('a fall'; line 5), Nam specifies the trouble source and shows Mai how to fix it. Mai immediately responds by repeatedly emphasising *<u>bổ</u>::* ('a fall'; line 6) and specifying the time reference *kì Ngụy* ('Nguy time'; line 6). Both of these turns reinforce her answer; however, she later cuts herself off at *bờ-* ('so'; line 6), pauses for 0.4 seconds (line 7), and speeds up her talk to self-correct the cause, *xe tông* ('[I] was hit by a car'; line 9). Although it does not occur immediately after Nam's repeat, Mai's self-correction displays her orientation to Nam's partial repeat as making relevant an error (Robinson, 2006).

Most of the doctor repeats in our data set aim to seek confirmation or disconfirmation from the patient. This practice is termed a 'confirming allusion' by Schegloff (1996). In particular, doctors seem to have some doubts about the information provided by patients, and so wish to obtain confirmation; therefore, their repeats are often constructed in the form of a closed question. This is illustrated in Extract 8, between the doctor,Tuan, and his patient, Phu.

(8)
1 D: *anh bị tai+biến ri lầ::::: (0.2)* *<u>mấy</u>* *<u>tháng</u>* *rồ:i?*
older+brother suffer seizure these COP how+many month already
'How many months have you been suffering from these seizures?'
2 (0.8)
3 P: *°dạ° (.)* *<u>nửa</u>* *<u>năm</u>* *rồi*
HON half year already
'Half a year'
4 (0.3)
5 D:→ *<u>nửa</u>* *<u>năm</u>* *rồ:i?*
half year already
'Half a year?'
6 (0.3)
7 P: *°nhạ°*
yeah
'Yeah'

In response to Tuan's elicitation of the duration of Phu's seizures, Phu provides the duration and stresses the key words *<u>nửa</u>* *<u>năm</u>* ('half a year'; line 3). After a micropause of 0.3 seconds, Tuan makes a virtually identical, final-rising-intoned repeat of Phu's information, maintaining the same stress form on both key words *<u>nửa</u>* *<u>năm</u>* ('half a year'; line 5). This repeat is an indication of a question act in Vietnamese discourse (Lưu, 2010): it has a unit-final-rising intonation that marks an information-seeking inquiry. Phu's confirmation token makes relevant Tuan's repeat as a question.

Doctors may initiate full repeats for confirmation due to problems with hearing previous talk. Consider Extract 9, between the doctor, Chu, and his patient, Na.

(9)
1 D: *mệ bị* *<u>lâ:u</u>* *chưa mệ::?*
grandma have long INT grandma
'Have you had this pain for a long time?'
2 (1.2)
3 P: *<u>mệ</u>::* *<u>bị</u>::* *thì #cũng#* *<u>lâu</u>* *rồi,*
grandma have COP PRT long already

[4] *Ngụy* refers to a period preceding April 30th, 1975, when a government called 'the Republic of Vietnam' ran southern Vietnam (from Quang Tri to the whole southern regions).

‘I’ve had it for a long time’
4 (0.4)
5 D: *má:y* *<u>năm</u>* *rồ:i?* *mấy* [*<u>thá:ng</u>* *rồi?*]
how+many year already how+many month already
‘How many years? How many months?’
6 P: [*<u>hai</u>* *<u>năm</u>*] *rồ:i,*
two year already
‘For two years’
7 (0.2)
8 D:→ *<u>hai</u>* *<u>năm</u>* *rồi?*
two year already
‘For two years?’
9 (0.2)
10 P: °*ừ*°
mmm
‘Mmm’

Chu’s full repeat (line 8) is produced right after the overlapping talk (lines 5-6). Notably, Na’s main information, *<u>hai năm</u>* (‘two years’), overlaps with the terminal part of Chu’s previous turn. According to Schegloff (1998), Na’s *terminally overlapping talk* (Jefferson, 1984) potentially causes Chu to mishear at least some of Na’s information. As a result, Chu makes a full repeat in the form of a declarative question in order to obtain Na’s confirmation.

Doctor repeats are sometimes used as a means of registering the doctor’s receipt of the patient’s prior turn. We see this practice in Extract 10, between the doctor, Yen, and her patient, Tu.

(10)
1 D: *#ông#* *<u>về</u>* *nhà* *<u>ăn</u>+<u>uố:ng</u>* *được* *không* *ông?*
grandpa at home eating well INT grandpa
‘Did you eat well while you were at home?’
2 (0.2)
3 P: *đượ:c*
yes
‘Yes’
4 D: *dạ:*
OK
‘OK’
5 (0.2)
6 P: *bình+<u>THƯỜNG</u>*
normally
‘Normally’
7 D:→ °*dạ* *(.)* *bình+<u>thường</u>*°
OK normally
‘OK. Normally’

Tu is a follow-up patient of Yen. In this extract, Yen elicits information about Tu’s daily activities while he was at home after being discharged from the hospital (line 1). Tu confirms his good eating habits using an elongated minimal response, *đượ:c* (‘yes’; line 3). Yen’s minimal uptake signals her receipt of Tu’s information and treats Tu’s confirmation as adequate. However, after a micropause (line 5), Tu elaborates further on his previous information without being prompted by Yen. He projects the phrase *bình <u>THƯỜNG</u>* (‘normally’) to imply that the pain has no negative effect on his eating. At this juncture, Yen confirms her receipt of his information with a confirmation token *dạ* (‘OK’), followed by a full repeat of his information with level intonation. This two-TCU turn organisation displays Yen’s orientation to her repeat as unimportant given her confirmation token. The repeat also serves to close the eating-habits sequence.

Doctor repeats can display the doctor’s stance vis-à-vis the patient’s information. This occurs in Extract 11, between the doctor, Lam, and his patient, Thu.

(11)
1 D: *<u>đa:u</u>* *↑<u>răng</u>* *mệ* [*hè:?*]
pain what+like grandma PRT
‘What’s the pain like?’
2 P: [*đa:u*] *(0.2)* *đau* *cái* *chân* *↑<u>ghê:::</u>*
painful painful CLA leg very
3 *mà-* [*mà-*]
and
‘My legs are very painful and’

4 D: *[dạ:::]:::::: (.) ui+ʔchà khớp+gối:i nữa ha::?*
OK goodness kneecap also INT
‘OK. Goodness, you also have a kneecap problem?’
5 (0.2)
6 P: *gối mà:- (.) mà:::::: (0.5) mà có chụp+phim*
kneecap and PST X-ray
7 *dưới ông Dũng a =họ nói GA::I*
at Dr Dung PRT they describe prickling
‘Yes, and I had my kneecaps X-rayed at Dr Dung’s clinic and they were described as prickling’
8 D:→ *dạ: ʔga::::i (.) đúng+rồ::i (0.4) bây+giờ:: con hoải nghe:¿*
yes prickling right now offspring ask PRT
‘Yes, they’re prickling. Right. Now, let me ask you’

Lam initiates the problem presentation by eliciting Thu’s symptoms (line 1). This initiation is general, and encourages Thu to use her own words with little constraint on their action agenda. For this reason, Thu’s response (lines 2-3) specifies not only the pain location, *cái chân* (‘my legs’), but also its intensity, *đau…ghê* (‘very painful’). More information to be added at line 3 is prematurely interrupted by Lam’s uptake (line 4), after which Thu does a *resumption search*[5] (Schegloff, 2007) that reports the diagnosis (lines 6-7) by citing a specified source (Pomerantz, 1984), *dưới ông Dũng* (‘at Dr Dung’s clinic’). This reported information encourages Lam to check and confirm: this is done with a partial repeat plus an unmarked acknowledgement (line 8), *dạ: ʔga::::i (.) đúng rồ::i* (‘yes, they’re prickling. Right’). Lam’s use of *đúng rồi* (‘right’) asserts his primary right from second position (Stivers, 2005) and signifies his epistemic authority regarding Thu’s diagnosis (Gardner, 2007). Drawing on Thu’s further details, Lam employs the pre-telling format *bây giờ con hoải nghe* (‘now, let me ask you’; line 15) to foreshadow a request for information.

Notice that the diagnosis, *GA::I* (‘prickling’), is disclosed by Thu, and that this information is retrieved from her previous visit to a different clinic. This means that only Thu has primary access to this information. However, Lam’s response communicates that the information is not new: he has some prior knowledge of the diagnosis. This is probably due to the institutional constraints that operate in Vietnamese public hospitals. Thu is a ward patient who has just been examined by a doctor in the consulting room.[6] When she comes to the ward, she has to present her medical record to Lam, who is supposed to read it prior to the consultation. Hence, it is possible that Lam obtained this information from her medical records.

Repeats may be a means for doctors to express a change in their locally-current state of knowledge (Heritage, 1984). This is illustrated in Extract 12, between the doctor, Nam, and his patient, Loan. Loan is a follow-up patient, but she was not treated by Nam on her last visit.

(12)
1 D: *rứa đợt vừa+rồi về nhà: (.) là có lấy thuốc uống hâ:ng?*
so time last at home COP PRT get medication take INT
‘OK. So, did you get some medication from us last time, and take it while you were at home?’
2 P: *dạ- dạ:: không về nhà nơ:i, (.) dạ an+dưỡng [tại đ]ây*
HON no go home PRT HON convalesce in here
‘I didn’t leave the hospital. I stayed here to convalesce’
3 D:→ *[à:]*
oh
4 *an+dưỡng tại đây thôi [hỉ]*
convalesce in here just INT
‘Oh. You just stayed here to convalesce?’
5 P: *[dạ:]*
yes
‘Yes’

After one course of treatment, patients are supposed to be discharged from the hospital, and can come back for a follow-up visit some time later. With this in mind, Nam presupposes that Loan must have left the hospital after her previous hospitalisation. This accounts for his question at line 1: he asks if Loan received some medication from the hospital and took it while she was at home. Loan prefaces her turn with a stuttering and elongated honorific, *dạ- dạ::* (line 2), which treats Nam’s question as problematic (Pomerantz, 1984). Loan then produces two TCUs separated by a micropause. The first TCU, *không về nhà nơ:i* (‘I didn’t leave the hospital’), rejects Nam’s presupposition, while the

[5] A *resumption search* is done when a speaker resumes their turn after being interrupted by another speaker.

[6] The consulting room is the first point of contact for the patient when they enter the hospital. After their meeting in the consulting room is over, an inpatient or outpatient is transferred directly to the ward, where other doctors examine them again and monitor their problem for a period of three weeks. Each patient receives attention from a doctor, a nurse, and a hospital orderly during their hospitalisation, but the doctor is held fully accountable for the patient’s recovery (see also H. T. L. Nguyễn et al., 2018).

second, *dạ an dưỡng tại đây* ('I stayed here to convalesce'), justifies her first claim. Without waiting for Loan's turn to reach its possible completion point, Nam projects an *à*-preface in overlap with the terminal part of her second TCU (lines 2-3). This *à* ('oh'), co-occurring with a modified repeat (line 4), expresses Nam's change-of-state while also requesting Loan to continue.

The doctor can use a repeat to display incredulity towards the patient's information. Consider Extract 13, between the doctor, Hung, and his patient, Cam.

(13)

1 D: *mấ:y NGÀ:Y? (.) điều+trị bên nớ mấ:y ngà:y?*
how+many day treatment in there how+many day
'How many days? How many days did you receive treatment in that hospital?'
2 (0.3)
3 P: *dạ:::::: (.) một tháng*
HON one month
'One month'
4 (0.2)
5 D: *#một# thá:ng (.) có: ĐỠ không?*
one month PRT ease INT
'One month. Has the pain eased?'
6 (0.2)
7 P: *dạ:::: (.) không đỡ #một# chút+mô h [ế:t,]*
HON not ease a little at+all
'It hasn't eased at all'
8 D:→ *[không] đỡ chút+mô hết*
not ease little at+all
9 *luô:n?=điều+trị #một# tháng mà #không# đỡ chút+mô hế::t?*
PRT treatment one month but no ease at+all PRT
'Not at all? It hasn't eased at all after one month of treatment?'
10 (0.2)
11 P: *dạ:: (0.2) thôi chừ:::::::: (0.2) nói ri (.)*
yes that's+why now say like+this
12 *thôi chừ: giờ mệ đoài ra đâ::y¿*
that's+why now now grandma want come here
'No. That's why I wanted to come to this hospital'

Cam is a first-visit patient who has had back and leg pain for four months. She had undergone a one-month treatment course at another hospital before this visit. On hearing that Cam has undergone treatment at another hospital (data not shown), Hung asks a series of questions about the duration (line 1) and recovery evaluation (line 5). In reply, Cam prefaces her turn with an elongated honorific, *dạ::::*, plus a micropause, in order to foreshadow a dispreferred response (Sacks, 1987), *không đỡ #một# chút mô hế:t* ('it hasn't eased at all'). Hung receives Cam's answer with a full modified repeat in the form of a question (lines 8-9) in *recognitional overlap* (Jefferson, 1984) with the final sound of Cam's last word (lines 7 and 8), thereby implementing other-initiation of repair. However, he quickly cuts off this TCU and replaces it with a *reversed-polarity repetitional question* (Park, 2011) that appends the treatment duration to his question (lines 8-9). The repaired TCU is produced with *displaced prosodic emphasis*[7] (Schegloff, 1998) on *tháng* ('month') instead of *đỡ* ('eased') in the prior TCU, in order to mark a contrast between the duration of the treatment and the lack of improvement in Cam's condition. This turn displays Hung's incredulity. Cam's *type-related second-pair part* (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973) not only is aligned with Hung's 'no'-preferred question, but also proffers her reason for choosing this hospital (lines 11-12).

Doctor repeats can be used to communicate the doctor's alignment with the patient, as shown in line 6 in Extract 14 between the doctor, Quan, and his patient, Linh. Linh is suffering from Bell's palsy.

(14)

1 D: *chơ về tối đó là chưa phát+hiệ:n?*
so home evening that COP not aware
'So you weren't aware of it [i.e., the Bell's palsy] when you got home that evening?'
2 (0.5)
3 P: *dạ (0.5) bữa nớ::: a (0.3) em ngủ #là# em mở*
yes night that PRT younger+sister sleep COP younger+sister open
4 *cả hai cửa+sổ luôn¿ (.) em nhớ*
all two window PRT younger+sister remember

[7] *Displaced prosodic emphasis* is used when the doctor makes other-initiated repair to displace the emphasis from one word to another.

5 [*bữa*] *l*[*à* *#hắn#* *lạnh*.]
day COP it cold
‘No. I slept with two windows open during that night. I remembered that it was cold that day’
6 D:→ [*ừ:*] [*cả* *ha:i* *cử:a+sổ:*] *°gió:::°*
mmm all two window wind
‘Mmm. Wind comes through two windows’

To address Quan’s question about her Bell’s palsy (line 1), Linh reveals that leaving two windows open has allowed cold and wind to pass through her house (lines 3-5). In an overlapping manner, Quan starts his turn with *ừ:* (mmm; line 6) to preempt Linh’s reason, then repeats Linh’s words *cả ha:i cử:a sổ:* (‘two windows’). He ends his turn with *°gió:::°* (‘wind’), which is in line with *lạnh* (‘cold’; line 5), in order to indicate that his repeat aligns with Linh’s explanation.

A doctor repeat can be used to hold the conversation floor while the doctor is doing a search for what to say next. We exemplify this in Extract 15, between the doctor, Lam, and his patient, Phuoc. The extract is concerned with Phuoc’s eating and sleeping habits.

(15)
1 D: *ô:ng* *ăn* *ngủ* *được* *khô:ng?*
grandpa eat sleep well INT
‘Can you eat and sleep well?’
2 (1.2)
3 P: *↓dạ:::::::* *(0.5)* *↑ít* *(0.4)* *cả* *ít* *ăn* *và* *ngủ:* *(.)* *>ngủ* *ít<*
HON little both little eat and sleep sleep little
‘Little. Both eating and sleeping little’
4 (0.3)
5 D:→ *ăn* *u-* *í:t* *(.)* *ngủ* *ít* *(0.2)* *hả:y?* *(.)* *đi+cầu+đi+tiể::u?*
eat little sleep little INT toilet
‘Eating little and sleeping little? How about your toilet habits?’

In response to Lam’s elicitor (line 1), Phuoc reveals that he eats and sleeps little (line 3). After a 0.3-second silence, Lam receives Phuoc’s assertion with a modified repeat of the main idea, *ăn u- í:t (.) ngủ ít* (‘both eating and sleeping little’). In this repeated TCU, Lam cuts himself off at *u-* (probably *uống* (‘drinking’)), stretches talk at *í:t* (‘little’), and pauses briefly. He then pauses for 0.2 seconds prior to adding the interrogative particle *hả:y* in order to seek Phuoc’s confirmation. However, he does not provide Phuoc with an opportunity to respond; rather, he continues his turn by initiating a new inquiry after a micropause, *đi cầu đi tiể::u?* (‘toilet habits’). Lam’s deployment of these linguistic resources indicates his difficulties in formulating the next idea immediately.

Doctors may use repeats to direct a particular topical focus in conversation. Extract 16 is about the main concerns of the patient, Huong: lumbar spinal degeneration and upper shoulder degeneration.

(16)
1 D: *thoái+hóa* *cột+sống* *thắt+lư::ng*
degenerate spine lumbar
‘Degeneration in your lumbar spine’
2 (2.6)
3 P: *với* *là* *vai* *gá::y,*
and COP shoulder upper
‘And in my upper shoulder’
4 (1.3)
5 D:→ *chừ* *vai* *gáy* *nữa* *à::?*
now shoulder upper also INT
‘It’s also spread to your upper shoulder now?’
6 (0.2)
7 P: *dạ::*
yes
‘Yes’

As Huong is a follow-up patient, the doctor, Nam, will be aware of her main concern from the last visit: lumbar spinal degeneration. Therefore, instead of eliciting this information, Nam states it as a fact (line 1). After a lengthy silence of 2.6 seconds without a further statement from Lam (line 2), Huong appends the second concern (line 3), produced with an upward intonation (symbolised by the commas) as a continuation of the list (Lerner, 2004). This action also registers Lam’s prior information as correct. In her turn, Huong emphasises *vai gá::y* (‘upper shoulder’) to signal the occurrence of a new concern. Nam responds to Huong’s turn after a 1.3-second silence (line 4). He makes a modified repeat of Huong’s information with displaced prosodic emphasis on *chừ* (‘now’) instead of *vai gá::y* (‘upper shoulder’) in the prior turn, in order to direct the topical focus towards the recency of the new concern. By underscoring *chừ* (‘now’), Nam implies that he is not to blame for Huong’s lumbarspinal degeneration, as this new concern has arisen since Huong left the hospital.

VI. Discussion and Conclusion

This study has yielded two main findings regarding medical discourse. The first of these is concerned with the use of responding repeats. We saw that, on receipt of the patient's response, the doctor may use three types of responding repeat (i.e., full, partial or modified) in order to seek confirmation or disconfirmation. Via a repeat, the doctor casts at least some doubt on the other interactant's prior information; in return, they are able to obtain more information from the other interactant, or trigger a repair of information. However, in non-medical contexts, interactants use responding repeats in order to clarify a particular trouble in hearing, speaking, or understanding; initiate repair; invite the recipient to think again; or correct something in their prior utterance (Drew, 1992; Robinson, 2013). Thus, our data suggests that, even allowing for the fundamental differences between these two types of discourse contexts in other respects (e.g., the typical subject matter of the interaction), responding repeats are used differently in medical and non-medical contexts in certain ways.

At the same time, it must be acknowledged that we are making this comparison across cultures, as we are comparing non-medical communication *outside* the Vietnamese context with medical communication *within* this context. Given that cultural differences are known to influence doctor-patient communication (Aarons, 2005; Schouten & Meeuwesen, 2006; Street, 2003; Wodak, 2002), it would be worth conducting a follow-up study in which repeats are compared in non-medical vs. medical interaction within the same cultural context.

Second, our data has implications for the prevailing view of Vietnamese medical communication as institutionally- and culturally-bound (Nguyễn & Austin, 2018a, 2018b; Nguyễn et al., 2018a, 2018b; Phạm, 2014). The hierarchical relationship between the doctor and the patient is evident in the latter's tendency to acquiesce to the former's prescribed regimen, whether they agree with it or not, and in their disinclination to raise questions or voice disagreement with the doctor (Fancher et al., 2010; Nguyễn et al., 2007; Trần, 2009). The present study calls this view into question by showing that doctors may use repeats to reduce the distance between themselves and their patients in medical consultations. Specifically, doctor repeats can express an aligning attitude towards the patient's information and, as a possible consequence, encourage more patient involvement as well.

In addition to yielding the above two findings, our study contributes to a small but growing corpus of research that has applied CA to medical interaction in the Vietnamese context (Nguyễn & Austin, 2018a, 2018b; Nguyễn et al., 2018a, 2018b). In so doing, the present investigation helps to mitigate the prevailing anglocentric bias in CA-based research on this type of interaction.

References

[1] Aarons, D. (2005). *Doctor-patient communication in government hospitals in Jamaica: Empiric and ethical dimensions of a socio-cultural phenomenon* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

[2] Bickley, L. S., & Szilagyi, P. G. (2013). *Bates' guide to physical examination and history taking* (11th ed.). Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

[3] Coulthard, M., & Ashby, M. (1976). A linguistic description of doctor-patient interviews. In M. Wadsworth & D. Robinson (Eds.), *Studies in everyday medical life* (pp. 69–88). Martin Robertson.

[4] Cox, C. L., Turner, R., & Blackwood, R. (2004). History taking. In C. L. Cox & R. Turner (Eds.), *Physical assessment for nurses* (pp. 6–21). Blackwells.

[5] Drew, P. (1992). Contested evidence in courtroom cross-examination: The case of a trial for rape. In P. Drew & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Talk at work: Interaction in institutional settings* (pp. 470–520). Cambridge University Press.

[6] Enfield, N. J. (2012). Reference in conversation. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.), *The handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 433–454). John Wiley & Sons.

[7] Fancher, T. L., Tôn, H., Meyer, L. O., Hồ, T., & Paterniti, D. A. (2010). Discussing depression with Vietnamese American patients. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, *12*(2), 263–266. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-009-9234-y

[8] Farris, M. (2012). Lexical and grammatical properties of personal pronouns in Vietnamese: Deicticity and relationships. *Rocznik Orientalistyczny*, *65*(1), 41–50. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://cejsh.icm.edu.pl/cejsh/element/bwmeta1.element

[9] Gardner, R. (2001). *When listeners talk: Response tokens and listener stance*. John Benjamins.

[10] Gardner, R. (2007). The "right" connections: Acknowledging epistemic progression in talk. *Language in Society*, *36*(3), 319–341. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404507070169

[11] Heritage, J. (1984). A change-of-state token and aspects of its sequential placement. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 299–345). Cambridge University Press.

[12] Hồ, T. Đ. (1997). Vietnamese-English bilinguals in Melbourne: Social relationships in code-switching of personal pronouns. *Monash University Linguistics Papers*, *1*(1), 41-51. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=322250958933600;res=IELHSS

[13] Huỳnh, T. Đ. (1989). *Introduction to Vietnamese culture*. San Diego State University.

[14] Jefferson, G. (1984). Notes on some orderlinesses of overlap onset. In V. D'Urso & P. Leonardi (Eds.), *Discourse analysis and natural rhetoric* (pp. 11–38). Cleup Editore.

[15] Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies from the first generation* (pp. 13–31). John Benjamins.

[16] Kim, H. (2002). The form and function of next-turn repetition in English conversation. *Language Research*, *38*(1), 51–81. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://s-space.snu.ac.kr/bitstream/10371/86198/1/3.%202225610.pdf

[17] Lệ, T. P. (2011). *Transnational variation in linguistic politeness in Vietnamese: Australia and Vietnam* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia.
[18] Lerner, G. H. (2004). Collaborative turn sequences. In G. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation analysis: Studies from the first generation* (pp. 225–256). John Benjamins.
[19] Ley, P. (1988). *Communicating with patients: Improving communication, satisfaction, and compliance*. Croom Helm.
[20] Lương, H. V. (1990). *Discursive practices and linguistic meanings: The Vietnamese system of person reference*. John Benjamins.
[21] Luu, N. T. K. (2010). A brief comparison of Vietnamese intonation and English intonation and its implications for teaching English intonation to Vietnamese EFL learners. *VNU Journal of Science, Foreign Languages, 26*, 171–180. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from https://js.vnu.edu.vn/FS/article/view/2554
[22] Mishler, E. G. (1984). *The discourse of medicine: Dialectics of medical interviews* (Vol. 3). Greenwood Publishing Group.
[23] Nguyễn, G. T., Barg, F. K., Armstrong, K., Holmes, J. H., & Hornik, R. C. (2007). Cancer and communication in the health care setting: Experiences of older Vietnamese immigrants, a qualitative study. *Journal of General Internal Medicine, 23*(1), 45–50. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-007-0455-2
[24] Nguyễn, H. T. L., & Austin, G. (2018a). Follow-up visits in doctor-patient communication: The Vietnamese case. *International Journal of Society, Culture & Language, 6*(1), 18–30. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://www.ijscl.net/volume_4936.html
[25] Nguyễn, H. T. L., & Austin, G. (2018b). On invoking third parties in Vietnamese medical communication. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *8*(7), 713–725. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0807.01
[26] Nguyễn, H. T. L., Austin, G., & Châu, D. D. (2018a). Treatment recommendation in Vietnamese medical consultations. *PEOPLE: International Journal of Social Sciences*, *3*(3), 1010–1027. https://doi.org/10.20319/pijss.2018.33
[27] Nguyễn, H. T. L., Austin, G., Châu, D. Đ., Nguyễn, H. Q., Nguyễn, K. H. B., & Dương, M. T. (2018b). Eliciting patients' health concerns in consulting rooms and wards in Vietnamese public hospitals. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, *7*(2), 121–133. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.7n.2p.121
[28] Park, Y. (2011). The use of reversed polarity repetitional questions during history taking. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(7), 1929–1945. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.01.004
[29] Phạm, N. T. H. (2014). Linguistic and cultural constraints in Vietnamese general practitioners' act of initiating clinical information-seeking process in first encounters with outpatients. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(6), 1125–1131. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://www.academypublication.com/issues/past/tpls/vol04/06/04.pdf
[30] Pomerantz, A. (1984). Giving a source or basis: The practice in conversation of telling 'how I know'. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *8*(5-6), 607–625. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(84)90002-X
[31] Rabab'ah, G., & Abuseileek, A. F. (2012). The pragmatic functions of repetition in TV discourse. *Research in Language*, *10*(4), 445–460. https://doi.org/10.2478/v10015-012-0004-x
[32] Raymond, G. (2003). Grammar and social organization: Yes/no interrogatives and the structure of responding. *American Sociological Review, 68*(6), 939–967. https://doi.org/10.2307/1519752
[33] Robinson, J. D. (2006). Soliciting patients' presenting concerns. In J. Heritage & D. W. Maynard (Eds.), *Communication in medical care: Interaction between primary care physicians and patients* (pp. 22–47). Cambridge University Press.
[34] Robinson, J. D. (2013). Epistemics, action formation, and other-initiation of repair: The case of partial questioning repeats. In M. Hayashi, G. Raymond, & J. Sidnell (Eds.), *Conversational repair and human understanding* (pp. 261–292). Cambridge University Press.
[35] Robinson, J. D., & Kevoe-Feldman, H. (2010). Using full repeats to initiate repair on others' questions. *Research on Language & Social Interaction*, *43*(3), 232–259. https://doi.org/10.1080/08351813.2010.497990
[36] Sacks, H. (1987). On the preferences for agreement and contiguity in sequences in conversation. In G. Button & J. R. E. Lee (Eds.), *Talk and social organisation* (pp. 54–69). Multilingual Matters.
[37] Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, *50*(4), 696–735. https://doi.org/10.17323/1728-192X-2015-1-142-202
[38] Schegloff, E. A. (1996). Confirming allusions: Toward an empirical account of action. *American Journal of Sociology, 102*(1), 161–216. https://doi.org/10.1086/230911
[39] Schegloff, E. A. (1998). Reflections on studying prosody in talk-in-interaction. *Language & Speech, 41*(3-4), 235–263. https://doi.org/10.1177/002383099804100402
[40] Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: A primer in conversation analysis I*. Cambridge University Press.
[41] Schegloff, E. A., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language*, *53*(2), 361–382. https://doi.org/10.1353/lan.1977.0041
[42] Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica, 8*(4), 289–327. https://doi.org/10.1515/semi.1973.8.4.289
[43] Schouten, B. C., & Meeuwesen, L. (2006). Cultural differences in medical communication: A review of the literature. *Patient Education & Counselling*, *64*(1), 21–34. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2005.11.014
[44] Silverman, J., Kurtz, S. M., & Draper, J. (2013). *Skills for communicating with patients*. Radcliffe.
[45] Stivers, T. (2005). Modified repeats: One method for asserting primary rights from second position. *Research on Language & Social Interaction*, *38*(2), 131–158. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327973rlsi3802_1
[46] Stivers, T., & Heritage, J. (2001). Breaking the sequential mold: Answering 'more than the question' during comprehensive history taking. *Text - Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse, 21*(1-2), 151–185. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.21.1-2.151
[47] Street, J. R. L. (2003). Communication in medical encounters: An ecological perspective. In T. L. Thompson, A. M. Dorsey, K. I. Miller & R. Parrot (Eds.), *Handbook of health communication* (pp. 63–89). Lawrence Erlbaum.
[48] Tannen, D. (2007). *Talking voices: Repetition, dialogue, and imagery in conversational discourse* (2nd ed.).Cambridge University Press.

[49] Todd, A. D. (1984). The prescription of contraception: Negotiations between doctors and patients. *Discourse Processes: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *7*(2), 171–200. https://doi.org/10.1080/01638538409544588
[50] Trần, K. (2009). Examining conversational constraints in Vietnamese patient-doctor communication: A case study. *Xulanexus: Xavier University of Louisiana's Undergraduate Research Journal*, *6*(1), 3–20. Retrieved September 18, 2022, from http://xulanexus.xula.edu/textpattern/index.php?s=file_download&id=20
[51] Trần, T. N. (2006). *Tìm về bản sắc văn hóa Việt Nam* [Tracing Vietnamese cultural identity] (5th ed.). Nhà Xuất Bản Tổng Hợp Thành Phố Hồ Chí Minh [Ho Chi Minh City General Publishing House].
[52] Trần, T. Q. N. (2013). *Refusal face-work strategies in intercultural communication: Refusals reported by Vietnamese speakers of EFL in intercultural workplaces* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.
[53] Wodak, R. (2002). Critical discourse analysis and the study of doctor-patient interaction. In M. J. Toolan (Ed.), *Critical discourse analysis: Critical concepts in linguistics* (pp. 340–364). Routledge.
[54] Wong, J. (2000). Repetition in conversation: A look at "first and second sayings". *Research on Language & Social Interaction, 33*(4), 407–424. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327973RLSI3304_03

Hương Thị Linh Nguyễn is an independent researcher in Australia. She holds bachelor's degrees (2003) and master's degrees (2011) in TESOL from Hue University, Vietnam, and a PhD in applied linguistics (2018) from the University of Southern Queensland, Australia. Her PhD studies were supported by a postgraduate Endeavour Scholarship and Fellowship Award. Dr Nguyễn's research interests include medical communication, Conversation Analysis, policing interaction, and learner autonomy.

Gavin Austin is a lecturer in applied linguistics in the School of Education at the University of Southern Queensland, Australia. He holds bachelor's degrees (1994) and master's degrees (1996) in general linguistics from the University of Sydney, a PhD in applied linguistics (2014) from the University of New England, and a Cambridge/RSA Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) (1997) from the University of Technology Sydney. Dr Austin's PhD studies were supported by an Australian Postgraduate Award. His main area of research activity is second language acquisition, though he also has expertise in linguistic theory, quantitative research methods, discourse analysis, and Asian languages and linguistics. He has published first-authored journal articles in *Language Learning* and *Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism* (both Q1). In addition to lecturing at tertiary level, Dr Austin has worked as an English language instructor in Japan and Australia, and as an IELTS examiner. As the majority of his students are language teachers, he is able to draw upon his own experience in TESOL to help students forge meaningful links between pedagogical theory and practice.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 822-829, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.02

A Pragmatic Analysis of Cultural Influence on Politeness Markers in the Yoruba Context

Raifu Olanrewaju Farinde
Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria

Happy Ojo Omolaiye
Department of General Studies, The Federal Polytechnics, Ile-Oluji, Ondo State, Nigeria

Muibat Abiola Farinde
Department of Yoruba, Adeyemi Federal University of Education, Ondo, Ondo State, Nigeria

***Abstract*—Culture plays a significant role in language use. It is a parameter for measuring communicative competence of a language user. Thus, the use of language is the function of the culture that owns the language. This study is predicated on Grice's (1975) conversational implicature theory. Data was got from recorded conversations in different natural settings in Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State, Nigeria. The focus of the study is on politeness markers in "leader-follower", "husband-wife", "father-son", "buyer-seller", "friend-friend" and "elder brother-younger brother" conversations. Ten tape recordings were made out of which, seven were used for analysis. The pragmatic analysis of cultural influence on politeness has revealed the influence of culture on politeness markers in the Yoruba context. The study has also revealed the persuasive approach employed by the interlocutors to maintain and sustain conversation. It has been discovered that culture has conditioned the husband to assert while the wife is culture-bound to obey the assertion of her husband. This paper, therefore, recommends that language users should be exposed to the culture of the language being used as it will broaden their knowledge on how to sustain and maintain face saving act in a conversation. The knowledge of culture will definitely enhance the communicative competence of language users.**

***Index Terms*—culture, context, politeness markers, Yoruba and Face**

I. Introduction

Language in use is very paramount in any socio-cultural setting, and ability to use language in accordance with the dictates of the culture that owns the language usually enhances communicative competence of language users. That is why linguists see communicative competence as the ability of a language user to manipulate language to give information or maintain interpersonal relationship without violating the socio-cultural norms of a people (Farinde & Omolaiye, 2020, p. 94).

To maintain interpersonal relationship in a speech event, there is need for language users to protect face. Goffman (1955) describes "face", in conversation, as the positive public image one seeks to establish in a social interaction. The implication of this is that in a conversion, one of the interlocutors is expected to be respected. It is also expected that the faces of other participants in a discourse be preserved or protected. A language user who fails to save face in a conversation tends to pose threat to other interacts. Brown and Levinson (1987) concentrate on the concept of face. According to these scholars, human has two faces: positive and negative faces. Positive face is concerned with the desire for approval and acceptance by others, while negative face the desire to proceed without being impeded upon (Redmond, 2015). This implies that, any utterance that tends to go against the principle of face is regarded as face threatening act (Ajayi, 2020, p. 361). So, one of the strategies employed to save face in a conversation is politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) come up with two forms of politeness – positive and negative politeness. As the name implies, positive politeness is designed to establish the hearer's positive face want while negative politeness is structured to redress the addressee's negative face want. Politeness makers or structures, therefore, is the use of linguistic structures that brings about utterance acceptability in a socio-cultural context. This is why Watts (2003, p. 18) defines politeness maker as "linguistic expression employed to show politeness". It is expedient to mention here that politeness is relative, in that what is accepted as politeness in culture A for instance, might be impolite in culture B. Thus, the concept of politeness is culture-bound. Politeness markers could be verbal and non-verbal. Verbal politeness marker is concerned with the use of language that depicts socially acceptable norms while non-verbal politeness marker is the socially acceptable way with proper manner and etiquette. Structures like "may I be allowed to ease myself", "could you give me the book", "you might wish to ask him about the issue" etc. are examples of verbal politeness markers. When a person stands up to great guests as they enter a room while that person keeps their elbows on the table during dinner is an example of non-verbal politeness marker. So, this paper intends to analyze verbal politeness markers in the Yoruba socio-cultural context. The rationale behind this research is borne out of the fact that area of this study is relatively new, particularly in the Yoruba context. Hence, the study focuses on politeness markers in socio-cultural reality in a speech community. It is, therefore, expedient to briefly shed light on “pragmatics”, “language and culture”. “Socio-cultural context” and other related concepts that will form a theoretical base of this study.

A. Pragmatics

Since this paper is based on pragmatic approach, it is, therefore, essential to briefly review the concept of pragmatics. The term pragmatics has been traced to Morris (1938) whose concern was to outline the general shape of semiotics. He distinguished three branches of inquiry within semiotics to include “syntax”, “semantics” and “pragmatics”. Further development of pragmatics has been traced to scholars like Austin (1962), Katz and Fodor (1963), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975). The goals of pragmatics are to investigate:

i. how utterances convey meaning;
ii. the roles of context in encoding and decoding message;
iii. utterances in context and situation;
iv. interlocutors’ responses to message and meaning;
v. the causes of wrong message encoding; and
vi. the causes of wrong message decoding.

Levinson (1983) describes pragmatics as the study of language from a functional perspective. This simply refers to context-dependent use of language. Brown and Yule (1983, p. 26) claim that “any analytical approach in linguistics which involves contextual consideration belongs to that area of language study called pragmatics” .

In view of the above, pragmatics is described as the principles of language in use and the interpretation that explains how extra-linguistic meaning encoded in the same manner actually being encoded in the same manner. Farinde and Ogunsiji (2010) also describe pragmatics as an aspect of language which deals with the study of how utterances have meaning in situation. Adopting pragmatic approach to the analysis of cultural influence on politeness marker in the Yoruba context, the study will definitely reveal the significant role of culture in language use.

B. Language and Culture

Language and culture are two linguistic concepts fused together to enhance communicative competence of a language user. In other words, these two concepts (language and culture) influence each other in language use. This is why Adegbite and Akindele (2005) claim that language and culture are connected to “aspect of culture”, “instrument of thought” and “cultural expression”. Some linguists see the fusion of language and culture as “interpretation of social realities”. Sapir (1921) describes language as not standing apart or run parallel to the direct experience but completely interpenetrates it. This implies that language is built on the culture of the people. Therefore, culture brings about language difference (as in the case of English and Yoruba). In other words, difference in language is an indication of cultural difference. In the same manner, Lyons (1968) claims that culture determines language, and then language determines our view of reality. In his own perspective, Greenberg (1978) posits that language is a prerequisite for the accumulation and transmission of the other cultural traits. This implies that language cannot be meaningful outside the context of the culture that produces it. Hence, language and culture complement each other. In the Yoruba culture, for instance, when a younger person has conversation with an older person, it is expected that the younger person’s speech be polite because the Yoruba culture respects age. This means that culture is a checking mechanism in language use. Therefore, language and culture are indispensable tools in language use.

C. Some Definition of Terms

Politeness: This is the means employed to show awareness of another person’s face in a conversation. In other words, politeness is the interlocutors showing awareness of face of each other in linguistic exchanges.

Self-Image: It is the “emotional” and “social sense” of self that everyone has, and expects everyone to recognize.

Face: Face could be described as the public self-image of a person.

Face-Threatening Act: This is a situation where one of the interlocutors says something that threatens the other interlocutor’s expectations regarding his public self-image.

Face Saving Act: This is when an interlocutor makes some utterances that lessen the possible face-threatening act.

D. Social-Cultural Context

Hymes (1964) has identified some features of context to include “participants”, “topic”, “setting”, “channel”, “code”, and “message form”. He has also identified context type (physical context, psychological context, linguistic context, and socio-cultural context). Since language is the property of a speech community, it (language) is, therefore, used for communication purposes. This same language now spreads across different socio-cultural areas of the world, and each of the socio-cultural contexts often determines the meaning of a particular word or expression. For instance, the English language used among many ethnic groups is an instance of a language enjoying the patronage of different cultural backgrounds which are most likely to have different belief, habits, value, systems, cultural heritage and religion (Osisanwo, 2008, p. 81). It is a fact that linguistic context is what is seen in terms of what immediately precedes and what follows in an expression in a text, but for adequate description of any linguistic event, the factor of socio-cultural context and practice is paramount (Malinowski, 1923).

Firth (1957, p. 24) claims that "every utterance is actualized in a culturally determined context of situation and the meaning of an utterance is the totality of all the features in it that can be singled out as giving in-put to the maintenance of the pattern of life in the society in which the speaker lives". The scholar, therefore, describes meaning as serial contextualization of our facts within contexts, each one being a function, an organ of the bigger context, and all context finding a place in what may be called the context of culture (Farinde & Omolaiye, 2020, p. 97).

This study limits its analysis to politeness expressions in the Yoruba context. Yoruba is an ethnic group in the Southern part of Nigeria. The study focuses on expressions or utterances that save face in the conversations of interlocutors.

II. Methodology

Data was got from recorded conversations. The data was gathered in different natural settings ranging from family, market, setting and place of work in Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State, Nigeria. Collection of data spanned two years. The level of interlocutors' unconsciousness with regard to their conversations being recorded made the data standard because at the time of recording, interlocutors were at their natural best. Since the study is based on the Yoruba context, the interlocutors who are natives of Yoruba were selected and their conversations were recorded. In other words, the recorded conversations were in Yoruba language, and were still retained in their original form for originality. However, all were translated to English in the course of analyzing the data. Politeness markers in "Leader-follower conversation", Husband-Wife Conversations, Father-Son Conversation, Seller-Buyer Conversation, Elder brother-Younger brother Conversation, and Friend-Friend Conversation were recorded. Over ten recordings were made, out of which seven were used for analysis.

The researchers anchor this study on "Conversational Implicature theory. The proponent of "Conversational Implicature" is Grice (1981) who tries to explain the principle behind implied meaning in a conversation. According to Grice, when utterances are made, there is tendency that the interlocutor may not wish to say everything in his utterances. However, the listener is then expected to interpret the meaning of such an utterance, particularly the unspoken words (Farinde & Omolaiye, 2020). Such meanings are not overt, they are covertly implied. Ogunsiji and Farinde (2010) simply refer to such implied meaning as implicature. By implication, the term implicature could be referred to as an additional words needed to be understood. Lyons (1977) corroborates this by describing "implicature" as the extra information rested upon a distinction between what is actually said and what is implied in saying what is said. In the same manner, Kempson (1975, p. 143) defines conversational implicature as:

> *… assumption over and above the meaning of the sentence used which the speaker known and intends that the hearer will make in the face of an apparently open violation of the cooperative principle in order to interpret the speaker's sentence in accordance with the cooperative principle.*

The relevance of the theory to this study lies in the fact that politeness markers are embedded in a conversation in which some utterances are unspoken but implied to avoid face threat. Adopting conversational implicature as the theoretical framework will definitely reveal cultural influence on politeness markers in the Yoruba context.

III. Result and Analysis

Politeness markers in the recorded conversations of the interlocutors are subjected to pragmatic analysis. As earlier mentioned, the recorded conversations selected are utterances emanated from "Leader versus Follower", "Husband versus Wife", "Father versus Son", "Elder Brother versus Younger Brother", Friend versus Friend, "In-law versus In-law, and "seller versus buyer". It must also be mentioned that each of the conversations were got from different natural settings. The recorded conversations selected were then categorized for easy analysis and discussion.

Excerpt 1: Conversation between a leader and a follower

This is a political leader-supporter conversation. What brought about this conversation is based on the fact that a politician could not fulfill the promise he made with his followers. As a result, the follower became annoyed and decided not to put in his effort to the leader's political ambition. Here is the conversation:

(1) Follower: Oga, *a o ni le se isemo*(Oga, we will not be able to do the job anymore).
(2) Leader: *Kiniidi*? (Why?)
(3) Follower: Oga, *e da ojuwa*. *A se ise fun yin, sugbon a korinkankan. Ao le semo* (Master, we were disappointed in you. We worked for you, but we did not get the reward. We can't do it anymore).
(4) Leader: *Dakun, eyinlasoiyi mi* (Please, you are the garment of my honour)
(5) Follower: *Atigbo, sugbon, etojuwa o* (Okay, but you take good care of us o)

The conversation above has revealed the grievance of the follower who describes his political leader as an ingrate. Hence, the follower decided not to embark on another political campaign. One could notice that the follower has issued a "face threatening act" in his utterance. The implication in the said utterance is that the political leader is not worth dying for, as such, he (the follower) has regretted working with him. Having understood the grievance of his follower, the leader made a persuasive apology thus – *eyin lasoiyi mi* (you are the garment of my honour).This persuasive apology could be referred to as politeness marker, in that the statement tries to save face of the interlocutor (follower) despite the fact that the follower had issued face threatening act.

The leader's utterance in (4) is metaphorically employed to reveal the significance of supporters in electioneering campaign. In the Yoruba socio-cultural context, it is believed that two wrongs cannot make a right. Hence, the use of *asoiyi* (garment of my honour) connotes relevance and significance of politeness to humanity. The conversational implicature of the utterance in (4) means that the success of a political leader lies in the efforts of the followers. So, the followers become a determining factor of the leader's success in an election. The response of the follower – *atigbo* (we have heard your plea) is an indication that the interlocutors were able to maintain personal relationship in the overall conversation because of the politeness marker issued by the leader. Persuasive approach deployed in (4) has made the leader achieved his aim even though he was not sincere to his follower. Hence, politeness marker becomes a strong tool for progress, peace and harmony.

Excerpt 2: Conversation between Husband and Wife

What brought about this conversation is the fact that the money for the upkeep of the family has finished. So, the wife expects that his husband provides another money so that there can be food in the house for the family. It is believed in Yoruba culture that one of the responsibilities of a husband is to provide for the family. This led to the conversation below:

6. Wife: *Ounje ti tan nile* (There is no food in the house)
7. Husband: *Kilo fi aduru owo ti mo fun o,ki o fi ran ounje sile se*? (What have you done with the enough money I gave to you to buy food in the house?)
8. Wife: *Eyin okunrin, e n gbiyanju o. Owo la n je bayi o. o tisu mi o*. (You men are trying. It is money we are eating these days. I am fed up)
9. Husband: *Elo niki fun o*? (How much should I give you?)
10. Wife: *Iye ti agbara yin bagbe olowo orimi* (Any amount you are able to afford my husband)

It is obvious that the conversation above emanated from the family setting where the wife is concerned about the upkeep of the family as it is evident in the expression in (6). It is the responsibility of the wife to cook for the family while the husband is to provide for the family in Yoruba setting. From the conversation above, the husband was shocked to hear that the food bought with a lot of money got finished within few days. The implication of the husband's statement in (7) is that the wife must have been extravagant. Responding to the statement of the husband, the wife tries to save face by acknowledging the activities of men in terms of family upkeep. Thus, the wife's utterance eyin o*kunrin e gbiyanju,o* (you men are really trying) is a politeness marker. Her further statement – owo la n je bayi o (it is money we are eating these days) has shown polite response to her husband's question in (7). The conversation implicature of the wife's response to the question of the husband, is that, there is hyper-inflation in Nigeria where Nigerian money has no value in market economy. If the wife decides to issue face threatening act just as the husband did, there would have been rancur between the couple. However, this is not so because in Yoruba culture, it is believed that a wife is expected to respect her husband no matter what. That is why expression like *oko ni ade ori aya* (husband is the crown to the wife's head) is prominent in the utterances of the Yoruba natives. So, the expression – *iye ti agbara yin ba gbe olowo orimi* (any amount you are able to afford my husband) in (10) is also a politeness marker. The concept of *olowo orimi* which its equivalence in English (my lord) is one of the greatest politeness marker in the Yoruba socio-cultural context.

It is obvious that the use of politeness markers employed by the wife persuaded the husband, thus yielding to the request of his wife. It is also noticed that culture plays a great role in politeness markers in husband's and wife's conversations in an ideal situation.

Excerpt 3: Conversation between Father and Son

This is a conversation between a father and his son concerning the missing money in the house. The father had accused his son of stealing his money. the conversation goes thus:

1. Father: *Kilode to fi ji owo timo fi sibe yen* (Why did you steal the money I put there? *timo fi sibe, semo pa iro*?
2. Son: Daddy *kori be o* (it is not so Daddy)
3. Father: *Bi bawo*? (How do you mean?)
4. Son: *E ti fun mummy lowo yen* (You gave the money to mummy) *E ti gbagbe* daddy (You have forgot)
5. Father*:* *Igbawo?* (When?)
6. Son: *Laaro* Daddy. (This morning Daddy).
7. Father: *Ah! motiranti* (Ah! I have remembered).

One thing noticeable in the conversation above is that father is usually supreme over .the son. Even when the father wrongly accused his son of stealing money, the son politely responded to his father's ignorance of the whereabouts of the money. The expression in (12) *Daddy, kori be o* (Daddy, it is not so) is a politeness marker. It is against the culture of Yoruba for a son or daughter to tell to the face of their parents that they are lying even when they are actually lying.

That is why expression like *agbalagba kii pa iro* (an elderly person does not tell lies) is a guide to the use of polite statement especially in a conversation between parents and their wards.

However, the conversational implicature in the conversation above is the use of politeness marker in (12) which implies that the father has told a great lie by accusing his son wrongly. In other words, the father was ignorant of the whereabouts of the money even though the father had issued a face threatening act. The son managed to save face and as such, the conversation ended well without the son calling his father a liar. So, all the responses of the son were politely employed to save face of the other interlocutor. The politeness markers in the conversation above are convincing expressions towards a successful conversation. The expression of the father in (17) *Ah! mo ti ranti* (Ah, I have remembered) has revealed the level of the father's ignorance of the whereabouts of the money.

Excerpt 4: A Conversation between Elder brother and Younger brother

There was an on-going issue that the elder brother prevailed on the younger brother. Even though it did not go down well with the younger brother, the elder brother made it known that he is still the elder brother. The conversation is represented below:

18. Elder brother: *Se o ya were ni? Mo niko kuro lori e* (Are you mad? I told you to forget about the issue).
19. Younger brother: *E le bu mi egbon* (you can abuse me brother)
20. Elder brother: *Mo ni ko kuro lo ri e* (I said you should forget about the matter)
21. Younger brother: *Egbon, motigbo* (I have heard you brother).
22. Elder brother: *Aburonaa a pon e le o* (you will also receive respect from Younger ones).

The conversation above has revealed the much respect the younger brother accorded to his elder brother even though it was not easy for the younger brother to let go of the issue at hand. In Yoruba setting or context, respect for elders is held in high esteem. That is why, when an elderly person is disrespected by a younger person either in conversation or a physical act, it is usually frowned at. The expression *agbalagba ni agbalagba maa je* (an elder remains an elder at all time) in Yoruba saying has buttressed this. So, the younger person is culture bound to respect an elderly person. This has revealed in the conversation between the elder brother and his younger brother.

The statement in (18) could be regarded as face threatening act. However, the response of the younger brother, which could be regarded as politeness marker, brought about positive face, thereby maintaining social relationship between the interlocutors. This is evident following the responses in (20) and (22). The response in (20) now became a plea-*mo ti niko kuro lori e* (I said you should let go of the issue) while that of (22) resorted to appreciation in form of prayer.

The underlying conversation implicature in the politeness markers is that it is not the wish of the younger brother to let go of the issue, but only respected his elder brother because of the cultural implication of the saying that *aburo kii ri agba fin* (younger brothers/sisters do not disrespect their elder brothers/sisters).It is noted in the conversation above that Yoruba culture plays a significant role in conversation of the interlocutors as it serves as a tool in measuring the communicative competence of the interlocutors in linguistic exchanges.

Excerpt 5: Conversation between Buyer and Seller

This conversation took place in the market setting where the interlocutors are on business transaction. Here is the conversation:

23. Buyer: *E kasan o* (Good afternoon)
24. Seller: *E kasan* mummy (Good afternoon ma)
25. Buyer: *Eloniasoyii*? (How much is this cloth?)
26. Seller: N5,000.00ni Mummy (It is N5,000.00 Mummy)
27. Elonijale? (How much is the last price)
28. *O se eyin, e san* N4,500.00 (Because it is you, pay N4,500.00)
29. *Se ele gba* N2,500. (Let me pay N2,500.00)
30. Mummy, *e ba mi ra* (Buy from me Mummy)

The conversation above has revealed one thing, sellers are usually polite during business transaction. In fact, they have polite tone during transaction. This is evident in the seller's utterances. The interlocutors' exchanges have elements of face saving act, as the two of them (buyer and seller) wanted to benefit from each other. In the conversation, one would notice that politeness markers are more in the utterances of the seller with the use of "Mummy" even though it is obvious that the buyer cannot be the mother of the buyer in terms of age.

It is believed in the Yoruba ideology that sellers do not become buyers in their own commodities. Hence, they will have to use persuasive mechanism to convince their buyers to buy their goods or commodities. This can only be achieved with the use of politeness markers in the utterances of the sellers during business transaction. The conversation began with greetings which is paramount in business conversation. The greetings were indications that the interlocutors were at their natural best for business transaction. Hence, utterances in (24), (26), (28), and (30) are politeness markers. The utterance in (28) *O se eyin …* (because it is you …) is a persuasive politeness marker which appears that the buyer is given an undue favour. The conversational implicature is in (30). Apart from the fact that, the seller tried to maintain face saving act, she refused to tell the buyer that her price is below the cost price of the cloth. This implies that the seller was not ready to sell the cloth at N2,500.00 instead of the seller to simply say no to the price of the buyer, he resorted to pleading – *Mummy, e ba mi ra* (buy from me Mummy). One thing that is noticeable in business transaction is pleading and persuasive mechanisms, and the seller had effectively deployed them in his utterances.

Excerpt 6: Conversation between a Friend to a Friend

This is a friend-to-friend conversation where friend A was not happy with friend B on the basis of information divulged. The conversation is presented thus:

31.	Friend A:	*Talo so fun Tola nkan to sele*? (Who told Tola what happened?)
32	Friend B:	*Emi ni* (I am)
33.	Friend A:	Ore, *e tobi lowo mi ni o* (Friend, it is because I so much have respect for you.)
34.	Friend B:	*E se* (Thank you)

The issue of friendship is significant in human nature. And as such, two or more individuals come together for inter-personal relationships. Hence, friendship because social integration in a society. As earlier mentioned, the data above borders on a conversation between a friend and a friend on the grounds that Friend B divulged classical information to Tola. This is evident in (32). Friend A was not happy for what friend B did. However, he (Friend A) tried to issue a face saving act in (33) in order to maintain interpersonal relationship. The utterance- Ore, *e tobi lowo mi ni o* (friend, it is because I have so much respect for you) is a politeness marker. Ordinarily, friend A could simply say that what friend B did is bad.

In the Yoruba socio-cultural setting, friendship is significant. That is why expression like – *a n wa ore kun ore* (one keeps on having friends) is in the utterances of the Yoruba natives. It must be mentioned here that there could be good or bad friends. However, one could say that the friendship in the conversation above is good because the interlocutors were able to maintain interpersonal relationship with the use of words. In fact, Friend B was able to acknowledge his mistake, thus appreciating friend A for issuing face saving act.

Conversation implicature in the conversation is in (33). The expression – *Ore e tobi lowo mi ni o* (Friend, it is because I have much respect for you) implies that, Friend B would have been punished for divulging such classical information. The conversation has revealed one thing; that friendship could be made or marred with the use of language. The use of positive utterance could make friendship (as in the case of the conversation above) while that of negative utterance usually mars friendship.

Excerpt 7: Conversation between mother-in-law and son-inlaw.

This conversion came up upon the invitation that the husband insulted the family of the wife. Here is the conversation.

31.	Son-in-law:	*Mummy, e nikin wari yin*(Mummy, you asked me to see you)
32.	Mother-in-law:	*Iyawo yin ni eti bu family oun* (Your wife said you insulted Her family).
33.	Son-in-law:	*Mi o to be kin bu family ana mi Mummy* (Who am I to insult the family of my wife?)
34.	Mother-in-law:	*Ki lo wa sele?* (What actually happened)
35.	Son-in-law:	*Mo kan ba wini o* (It is just a caution)
36.	Mother-in-law:	*Ejo, e ma ja o* (Please, live in peace o)
37.	E se mummy:	(Thank you mummy)

The interlocutors in the conversation above have maintained face saving act as they are expected to be accorded respect. It is believed in the Yoruba culture that in-law A is not superior to in-law B. That is why the expression – *ana kii kere* (No in-law is ordinary) in the utterances of the Yoruba natives play a significant role in the conversation between the two in-law (as in the case of the conversation above). However, more respect is usually accorded to the mother-in-law than the son-in-law because it is believed that, he who that gives his daughter's hand in marriage has done a great favour. This is what brought about the expression in (33) – *Mi o to be ki n bu family ana mi Mummy* (Who am I to insult the family of my wife?). Hence, expression in (33) is a politeness marker. The utterance is used to maintain public self-image of the other interlocutor. Eventually, the conversation ended on a good note.

Feature of conversational implicature manifested in (35) in that, the son-in-law euphemistically presented the misunderstanding between him and his wife when he said it was just a mere caution. The expression – *mo kan ba wi ni o* (I just cautioned her o) implies that the wife must have done or say something that was unpalatable that made the husband indirectly insulted his in-law's family. Probably the wife must have lacked some expected attitude which might be caused by her parents. The use of "Mummy" in the conversation is an indication that, by extension, the mother-in-law is also a mother to son-in-law in the Yoruba context.

IV. Discussions

The pragmatic analysis of cultural influence on politeness markers in the Yoruba context has brought one thing to the fore-that culture has great influence on politeness marking in conversation. Expressions are politely used in accordance with the dictates of the culture of a people. This has revealed the role of culture in language use. Politeness markers maintain and sustain face saving act thereby creating good atmosphere for conversations.

The study has revealed persuasive approach employed by the interlocutors to maintain and sustain conversation. For instance, the use of *e yin laso iyi mi* (you are the garmet of my honour) is a good example of persuasive approach employed by the political leader to get things done. Hence, politeness markers promote peace and harmony between interlocutors in linguistic exchanges.

In the analysis, it has been discovered that husband and wife do not have equal right in terms of whose voice should be more authoritative. The culture has given the husband the privilege to assert while the wife is to obey the assertion. This is evident in (7) when the husband queried the prudence of his wife. In other words, Yoruba culture has placed husband over and above wife. This is similar to Okpameri culture where a wife is sanctioned for saying negative utterances against her husband.

Politeness markers serve as convincing mechanism in order to sustain social relationship in a conversation. For instance, instead of the son to tell his father that he (the son) was accused wrongly, he decided to say that his father must have forgot when he gave money to Mummy. The study has revealed the fact that a son is not expected to say that his father had told a lie in the Yoruba culture.

Also, the issue of in-law in the Yoruba culture is significant, in that both mother in-law and son-in-law are accorded almost the same respect. For instance, conversations in (31) – (37) have revealed the mutual respect between the interlocutors. The study has also revealed semantic extension in the use of “Mummy”. In Yoruba setting mother-in-law is also a mother to the son-in-law because of the communal tendency. Therefore, conversational implicatures in the conversations analysed are indications that it is not necessary to say everything as they are if there is need to sustain and maintain face saving act in linguistic exchanges.

V. Conclusion

Culture plays a significant role in language use. It is a yardstick for measuring communicative competence of a language user. It is not out of place to state here that culture has a great influence on language use. Therefore, the use of language is the function of the culture that owns the language. Moreso, the context in which an expression or utterance is used usually determines its meaning. So, what is polite in language A might be impolite in language B because of difference in the cultures of languages A and B.

So far, this study has made a pragmatic analysis of why and how politeness markers are employed in the Yoruba context. It has been observed that politeness markers are used in accordance with the dictates of culture. For instance, the expression *Daddy kori be o* (Daddy, it is not so) has cultural underpinning as it is wrong for a son to tell to the face of his father that his father has told a lie in the Yoruba context because it is believed that father or an elderly person does not tell a lie. So, *agbalagba ki pa iro* (an elderly person does not tell a lie) is embedded in the Yoruba linguistic exchanges. Since politeness markers are usually influenced by the culture of a language, this paper therefore recommends that language users should be exposed to the culture of the language used as this will enhance their communicative competence in a speech community.

References

[1] Adegbite, W. & Akindele, F. (2005). *Sociology and politics of English in Nigeria: An introduction*. Ile-Ife: O. A. U. Press.
[2] Ajayi, T. M. (2020:361). Face management and speech acting in police-suspect interaction in Nigeria. In A. Osisanwo, W. Bamigbade, E. Igwebuike and A. Tella (eds.) *Applied Linguistics, linguistic variations and English usage in the Nigerian Context*. Ibadan: University Press Plc Ibadan.
[3] Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*, London: Oxford University.
[4] Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. London: Cambridge University Press.
[5] Brown, P & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals of language use.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[6] Farinde, R. O. & Ogunsiji, Y. (2010). *Analytical linguistics*. Ago-Iwoye: Olabisi Onabanjo University Press.
[7] Farinde, R. O. & Omolaiye, H. O. (2020). A Sociolinguistic study of emphemistic expressions in Okpameri socio-cultural context in humanity. *Jos Journal of general studies, Vol 11*. Jos: Division of General Studies University of Jos. pp. 94-104.
[8] Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in linguistics*, 1934-51. London: Oxford University Press.
[9] Goffman, E. (1955). On Face work: An analysis of rural elements in social interaction, psychiatry. *Journal of Interpersonal relations*, *18*(3) 213-231.
[10] Greenberg, J. (1978). *Universals of human languages*. Standford, California: Standard University Press.
[11] Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation in Cole and Morgan (eds) *Syntax and Semantics*. Vol. 3 New York: Academic press, pp. 41-58.
[12] Grice, H. P. (1981). Presupposition and conversational implicature in P. Cole (ed) *Radical pragmatics*. New York: Academic Press, pp. 183-198.
[13] Hymes, D. (1964). Towards ethnographics of Communication events in pp. Giglioli (ed) (1972) *Language and Social Context*. Harmondsworth, Middx: Penguin Books.
[14] Katz, J. J. & Fodor, J. A. (1963). *The structure of a semantic theory*. Language 39: 170-210.
[15] Kempson, R. (1975). *Presupposition and the delimitation of semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[16] Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[17] Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to theoretical linguistics*. London: Cambridge University Press.
[18] Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[19] Morris, C. (1938). *Foundation of the theory of signs*. Chicago University Press.
[20] Osisanwo, W. (2008). *Introduction to discourse analysis and pragmatics.* Lagos: Femolus-Fetop Publishers.
[21] Redmond, V. M. (2015). Face and politeness theories. *English technical reports and white papers*. Accessed March, 2018 from 2. Http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/eng/reports/2.
[22] Sapir, E. (1921). *Language*, New York: Bruce World.

[23] Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*: Cambridge University press.
[24] Watts, R. J. (2003). *Politeness:* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Raifu O. Farinde was born in Erin- Osun, Osun State, Nigeria. He attended Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria, between 1988 and 1992 for his Bachelor's Degree in English Education. He obtained his M.A in English Language from the University of Ibadan, Nigeria in 1998. He also bagged his PhD in Linguistics and English Language from the University of Wales, Bangor, United Kingdom now Bangor University, Bangor, United Kingdom in 2007.

He currently lectures at the Department of English and Literary studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. He had worked at Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria and he left there as a Chief Lecturer. At present, he is a Senior Lecturer at the Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. Among his published works includes Forensic Linguistics: An introduction to the Study of Language and the Law Allemagne, Germany: LIMCOM GMBH, 2009. He also co-authored with Dr. Ojo J.O. Introduction to Sociolinguistics Ondo, Nigeria: Lektay Publishers, 2005. Furthermore, He co-authored with Dr. Yemi Ogunsiji Analytical Linguistics Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria: Olabisi Onabanjo University Press. 2010. His research interests include Pragmatics, Forensic Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics and Systemic Functional Grammar.

Dr. Farinde is a member of several learned societies some of which are British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL), Linguistic society of America (LSA), Nigeria English Studies Association (NESA) and English Language teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN). He is a recipient of Ford Foundation International Fellowship for PhD organized by the Institute of International Education (IIE) New York between 2003 and 2006. Among his awards, honours and distinctions are Certificate of Achievement, UK, 2005, Certificate of Completion, 2004, Certificate of Recognition, 2013.

Happy O. Omolaiye was born in Ibilo, Edo state Nigeria. He attended Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria, between 2004 and 2009 for his Bachelor's Degree in English Education. He obtained his M.A in English language from the University of Ibadan, Nigeria in 2003.

He currently lectures at the Department of General Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Ile –Oluji, Nigeria. He had worked in private secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria, as a teacher of English language. At present, he is a lecturer 1 (L1) at the Federal Polytechnic, Ile – oluji, Nigeria. Among his published works include: An Investigation of problems in the Syntactic usage of Tense and Aspect among Okpameri secondary school Learners of English, Ondo, Nigeria, School of Languages Adeyemi College of Education 2015, Lexico-Semantic Study of English and Okpameri Musical and Kitchen Terms Ondo, Nigeria, School of Languages, Adeyemi College of Education, 2016, using Linguistic Signals to Express Corrupt Practices on Nigerian Campuses, Ede, Nigeria, Department of General Studies, 2019. His research interests include Contrastive Linguistics, Systemic Functional Grammar, Pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

Mr Omolaiye is a member of several learned societies some of which are National English Studies Association (NESA), National Association of Teachers of Language in Colleges of Education and Polytechnics in Nigeria (NATECEP) and Linguistics Association of Nigeria (LAN). He received New Age Leadership Skills for High Organizational Performance Certificate, 2018.

Muibat A. Farinde was born in Modakeke, Osun state. She attended Adeyemi College of Education Ondo Nigeria between 2009 and 2012 for her Bachelor's Degree in Yoruba Education. She obtained her M.Ed in Early Childhood Education from the University of Ibadan, Nigeria in 2019.

She currently lectures at the Department of Yoruba, Adeyemi College of Education Ondo. Among her published works include "Code Switching in Nigerian Yoruba Movies: Examples of "Ese Ni" and Gbemileke", "Ifedasefe ninu iwe Ere onitan Olorun O Mawada ti Lawuyi Ogunniran ko" In EGIN Journal among others.

Her research interests include Yoruba Literature and Sociolinguistics. Mrs Farinde is a member of several learned societies some of which are Yoruba Studies Association of Nigeria (YSAN), Egbe Oluko Ede Yoruba Koleeji En-siii Naijiria, and Egbe Akomolede Ati Asa Yoruba.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 830-839, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.03

Playback Theatre and Narratives: A Micro-Level Study on the Development of the Oracy Through "Collaborative" Applied Art Process

V. Dorothy Catherine
Department of English, SSL, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India

C. Suganthan
Department of English, SSL, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India

***Abstract*—Drama strategies refer to the methods and processes used by language instructors for many years. These strategies are intended to involve learners in the creative process while exploring a concept, narrative, or thought. The students are encouraged to develop inquiry skills and use their imagination to gain understanding when theatre techniques are used. This study is intended to identify the impact of narratives in Playback Theatre that develops the oracy skills of the second language learners. The students pursuing bachelors' degree have been surveyed from Tamil Nadu, India. The aspects with respect to Oracy skills namely vocabulary, intended meaning, structure grammar, pronunciation and pragmatic have been evaluated. The study also examines whether the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is moderated by the medium of instruction i. e. Playback theatre-based instruction influenced the oratory skills of the second language learners. The outcome shows that intended meaning and pragmatics are the most influential factor than vocabulary, pronunciation and structure grammar. The results show that teaching through Playback Theatre through collaborative learning enhances the oracy skills of the bachelor degree students.**

***Index Terms*—Playback Theatre, Narratives, Collaborative learning, Oracy skills**

I. Introduction

India is a country with many different cultures and languages. Despite the fact that Hindi is the most widely spoken language, with over 40% of the people speaking it, regions such as the South and East have their own regional languages in which Hindi is not widely spoken (Goyal, 2021). English is the second most often spoken language in certain sections of the country, and it is used to communicate with Indians from other regions. The ability to communicate in a foreign language has a positive impact on both domestic and international ties. India is on the verge of becoming one of the world's most powerful nations, and English has played and will continue to play a significant role in the development of individuals inside its society. On a worldwide scale, organizations and institutions are increasingly embracing English as their official language, making it necessary for individuals in India to learn the language in order to compete in the employment market. When learning to speak English, the mother tongue often gets in the way of proper pronunciation. Both the students and the professors speak English with regional accents. Because English is not used as a medium of teaching in Indian schools and universities, Indian students are unable to practise and improve their English. The Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (CMIE) survey (2019) presented that 65.9% of the graduates do not know to speak in English. Even during English classes, most professors teach English without giving pupils adequate speech practise because they are not sufficiently skilled to do so. The Lok Foundation (2019) reported that only 4.3- 10.8% of population were able to speak English in Tamil Nadu, India (Rukmini, 2019). As a result of years of learning and teaching English in school and college, most people are unable to speak and write the language accurately. Therefore an effective instructional method is required to help the students to learn the language intelligibly. This paper aims at designing an efficient second language instructional design with playback theatre as foundation element. A suitable theatre technique is adapted for designing the instructional model.

Playback Theatre (PT) techniques are an applied form of contemporary theatre forms that help the English language learners to use language in a concrete situation. The language's basic structural pattern could be given meaning through these techniques. It motivates the learner to attain competence socially as well as personally. Physical action and emotional commitment incorporated in Playback Theatre practices could result in improving the linguistic structures and vocabulary. Rhythm and intonation in language can be internalized through PT participation. The designed PT activities could be used to enhance English for specific purpose too. The medical terminologies, business terminologies, technical terminologies, literary terminologies and web terminologies can be ameliorated through the learners' active story narration and presentation. The intercultural competence could be enriched through the PT activities for holistic development of an individual. The personal stories based on some proposed themes from the individuals would help the learners to contextualize the language and exhibit in their verbal communication. The linguistic and para-linguistic components in English language can be moderately improved through Playback Theatre. The PT learning outcomes also depends on the advancement in quality management, urban commitment and reciprocal relationship between mutually supporting entities.

II. Literature Review

English is the prime mode of communication. English is considered as a foremost stature language in Indian higher education (Gargesh & Neira Dev, 2017). The jobs in the field of commerce, business, science, technology, administration and also in private sectors demand fluency in English. English is required to facilitate socio-economic progress. The language's neutral characteristics best ensembles for the country's industrial and scientific progression (p. 62). In the view of Donkana (2019) the Indian students with a strong command of the English language had a lot of options for exploring prospects and advancing their careers in the professional world. It is also believed that the tertiary level learners take L2 learning for granted.

The significance of speech and speaking skill development were highlighted in the study (Vinita & Ilankumaran, 2020). A speech is a fusion of ideas and objectives that is rendered interactive by the fact that it is entirely dependent on the people with whom the conversation is held. Students learning English who want to carry out specialised jobs in English, in particular, should develop the ability to deal with the impressions they create. This is a key component of effective communication. In the study report of Ragini (2019), the researcher enlists few characteristics that improve the communication of the tertiary level learners in India. She enlists appropriateness of expression, conscious attention to descriptive lexis, words noticed on particular information, words and expression recognized in specific context would be possible parameters to be focused to improve one's spoken communication. Sadhna (2017) argues that there are no effective methods used in language learning to improve the listening and speaking skills of the tertiary level students. She represents that students are unable to put their language into practice. In addition though there are several revisions made in the teaching methodology and syllabi, yet the expected goals have not been reached at the fullest in terms of speaking (Shinde & Karekatti, 2010).

Recent studies present the difficulties faced by undergraduate students while speaking in English. The study revealed that students' anxiety with poor English background, low self-confidence, lack of motivation, nervousness due to eye-contact by fellow mates are causes for their poor English communication. Pronunciation skill should be accentuated from the earlier stage of the academic studies. If students' inner uncertainty and apprehension are addressed at the initial stage, the students will show gradual progression in their speaking skill (Suchona et al., 2019).

In a recent study, Meganathan (2019) emphasizes that the materials and the tools that encourage learner contact with the English language and learner-learner interaction in the classroom are recommended for a new language curriculum and policy in India. Most of the language course books focus on providing a better explanation of teaching and practices instead of understanding the language pedagogy (Tomilson & Amila, 2007). The study of Ramamoorthy (2006) revealed that task based language teaching in the tertiary level students' L2 classroom improved the implied knowledge that incidentally promotes the effort to communicate. A collaborative preparation enhances the level of language practice that resulted in increasing the motivation level as negotiation for contextual meaning.

Collaborative task based learning methods have an intense potential to boost the level of communicative abilities of the English language learners in India. The research findings of Sivakami (2014) claimed that independence in learners' participation in task based learning methods improved the speaking skills of the learners especially in vocabulary, sentence structure and self learning process. Jaya's (2009) explorative study on Arts and Science colleges affiliated to Manonmanium Sundarnar University in Tamil Nadu reported that the English curriculum needs revision to attain the academic and professional needs of the learners and the curriculum was ineffective.

The literature review suggests that due to certain difficulties the undergraduate students are unable to speak in English. Since English is the premier language for career and socio-economic growth, the need to learn the language is essential. The tertiary level students need to focus on their English Speaking Skills to explore the potential fields. Therefore an appropriate teaching methodology and instructional design is required to enhance the language learning skills of the learners specially speaking.

Research Questions for the Study

The study was attempted to address the following:

What is the effectiveness of a suggested theatre based learning methodology designed with the techniques of Playback Theatre in developing the speaking skills of the tertiary level learners?

There are few sub questions derived to address the main research question.

1. What are the important sub-skills of speaking required for the first year students of the tertiary level during orientation stage?
2. What are the principles used to design a theatre based instruction?
3. What are the features of the suggested learning style according to the determined principles?
4. How far is the proposed instructional learning design effective in improving the first year college students' English speaking ability from a Tamil medium background?
5. How far is the design effective on the students to improve their English speaking sub-skills?

III. Method

A. Objectives

The main objectives of the study are

1. To identify the speaking sub-skills that are necessary for first year college students
2. To identify appropriate instructional design to develop the English language skills of the tertiary students
3. To measure the effectiveness of the theatre based instructional learning design with Playback Theatre techniques to improve the overall speaking skills of the tertiary learners

Hypothesis

H_0 : There is no significant difference between the mean score of the Playback Theatre (PT) language learner group and the non Playback Theatre language learner group, when an applied playback theatre instructional design is employed in the L2 classroom to develop English language competence of the tertiary level learners.

H_1 : There is a significant difference between the mean score of the Playback Theatre (PT) language learner group and non Playback Theatre language learner group, when an applied Playback theatre instructional design is employed in the L2 classroom to develop English language competence of the tertiary level learners.

H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the PT language learner group on the pretest scores and post test scores in overall speaking abilities in favour of the post-test scores.

H_1 : There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the PT language learner group on the pretest scores and post test scores in overall speaking abilities in favour of the post-test scores.

The above research hypotheses are framed for the current study.

B. Participants

There are twenty nine autonomous Arts and Science colleges and management colleges in Coimbatore District, Tamil Nadu, India. In this district, the researcher chose an autonomous institution that prioritized skill-based teaching and learning in its curriculum. After obtaining authorization from the college chairman and principal, the study was carried out. In each department of the first year undergraduate tertiary level students, an observation was done to determine the learners' fundamental level of English proficiency, and then the learners were asked random questions. This was done to identify whether the students could converse, and then the study was conducted. As a result of the analysis, it was discovered that English learners have a low degree of verbal communication. Even with their friends and classmates, the students were unable to communicate in English. It was observed that they all stayed in their comfort zones and used more of their primary language and regional language. The study enlisted the participation of thirty students in total. They were split into two groups: fifteen for the experiment and fifteen for the control. The group was classified based on the results of the pretest scores.

C. Methodology

Using the hypothetico-deductive model, the current study investigates how theatre instruction can aid in the development of speaking skills among students. This study will look at quantitative data to see if educating students through theatre can help them strengthen their speaking skills. The deductive method was used in this study since it measures quantitatively. The descriptive design was chosen as the study's framework. The descriptive research is concerned with the response to the claim that influences the inquiry.

D. Design of the Study

In this study, the non-equivalent group design was adopted. This design appeared to be appropriate for the current study because random assignment of individuals to control and experimental groups was difficult. Therefore, the researcher employed intact groups that were administratively defined in terms of levels, course teachers, and classroom settings. The PT language learners are taken experimental Group (EG) and the non PT language learners are considered as the controlled Group (CG) were chosen as the two intact groups in this investigation. The PT based language learners received training for improving their speaking skills through a Playback Theatre Instructional Design (PTID). At the same time, the pupils in the control group received regular, curriculum-based education. The instructional hours were 25.

E. Design of the Test Administration

The English skills selected for the test were linguistic competence, pragmatic competence and discourse competence. The research identified the following sub components for the test. The basic grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, pragmatic and discourse are the subcomponents noted for the study.

TABLE 1
ORACY SUBCOMPONENTS FOR THE STUDY

<table>
<tr><th>S.No.</th><th>Skills</th><th>Sub skills</th><th>Speaking Genres</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>Basic Grammar</td><td>Parts of Speech
Sentence Structure
Direct and Indirect Speech</td><td rowspan="5">1. Share personal information
2. Narrating a situational story
3. Describing the incident
4. Discussing their opinions to set a positive ending
5. Voluntarily making suggestions
6. Interacting in the group</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>Vocabulary</td><td>Active Vocabulary
Basic vocabulary for everyday use
Appropriate range of vocabulary</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>Pronunciation</td><td>Stress
Pitch
Intonation</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.</td><td>Pragmatic</td><td>Attentiveness
Appropriateness
Speech Acts</td></tr>
<tr><td>5.</td><td>Discourse</td><td>Cohesion
Coherence
Interpretation</td></tr>
</table>

F. Tools for Data Collection

This study makes use of both first-hand and second-hand data, also known as primary and secondary data. The primary data are the information gathered directly from the research's intended participants. The secondary data are gathered from past studies and a variety of other sources. The data was gathered by the researcher using structured questionnaires, test scores, observations and a checklist. The researcher collected data through a closed ended type questionnaire to identify the level and opinion of the students. The test scores of the tertiary level learners before exposure to the theatre instruction were taken as the primary data. The secondary data was collected through the vast literature surveys and reviews from previous studies in books, journals, magazines, workshops, drafts etc.

The study's data was gathered using the below appropriate tools:

Pretest and Posttest scores

Student’s Questionnaire

Feedback

G. Variables of the Research

The dependent variables for the study are basic grammar, active vocabulary, pronunciation, appropriateness and interpretation. The independent variable for the study is Playback theatre instructional design adopted by the researcher. The parameters categorized for measuring speaking skills are based on linguistic, pragmatic and discourse competence. The significance of the data is analyzed through statistical tools for precision. IBM SPSS statistical software platform and Microsoft excel are adapted for data analysis. The statistical tests that are used for the study are Paired sample t-test, Independent sample t-test and Pearson’s correlation coefficient test. The validation of the study is determined through measuring reliability and validity. This particular study adheres to strict ethical standards. The information gathered from students will not be used for any other purpose. It is only used for educational reasons. As a result, while performing the investigation from tertiary level students, this research followed all of the norms and laws.

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

Experimental Procedure

Performers’ Course of Action in Playback Theatre:

Playback Theater is unconstrained, delivered by one of a kind association among artiste and swarm. Somebody recounts a story or flashed moment from their life, picks entertainers to assume different characters, at that point looks assumes as their story, in a flash reproduced innovative structure and intelligibility is given. Regardless of whether in school, colleges, medical clinic and, business meeting or theater, this straightforward set-up for Playback Theater is frequently natural.

There is no content; however a Playback Theater introduction is musical and sequenced. The conductor is the cycle host and facilitator. After a period of presentation and warm-up, someone volunteers to recount a story. It could be a short instant, or a more extended case. It could be past, current, or future stories. It might be about an extremely unique second, or something happens regularly. There can be 3, 4 or 5 individuals who approach to share a story along these lines.

This individual, called the Teller, will cross from the crowd territory to the Teller seat. The story is told here with the Conductor’s support. In the meeting, the Teller chooses entertainers to fill the story enactment. The others remain prepared as the student-actors are chosen. When recounting the story, the conductor insists the audience watch the enactment.

The student-actors accept this as their prompt to proceed with the institution. Music can make a climate and mind-set; the student-actors can utilize their crates or seats to characterize space. All through the presentation, the actors have liberty to the re-establishment of the plot, and this can occur in different aesthetic styles. The chosen student-performers look to catch and pass on the nature and heart of the plot, regardless of whether as a naturalistic situation, or through theoretical development or sound, or as a move, or with tunes (or a blend of these structures).

The students consider applause as an acknowledgement to their performance before the presentation is completed by them. At that point there's a contact with the Teller – a chance to state something on the off chance that they're pushed. Frequently nothing else should be said or only a couple of sentences, now and then the Teller is allowed to change the scene. Furthermore, the students rehash it appropriately. The driver expresses gratitude toward Teller coming back to their place. And afterward someone else volunteers to state the following story, and so on.

The researcher had primarily focused on the narratives of the story teller for the study to identity the development of the oracy skills of the second language learner.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The present section of the study discusses data analysis for assessing the influence of teaching through Playback Theatre instructional design on the development of tertiary level students' speaking skills. The statistical and quantitative sampling technique is discussed in this section.

The gender details are depicted in the bar graph below. The female students responded for this research is 19 (63.33 percent) and male students responded for this research is 11 (36.66 percent).The majority of the respondents were female students.

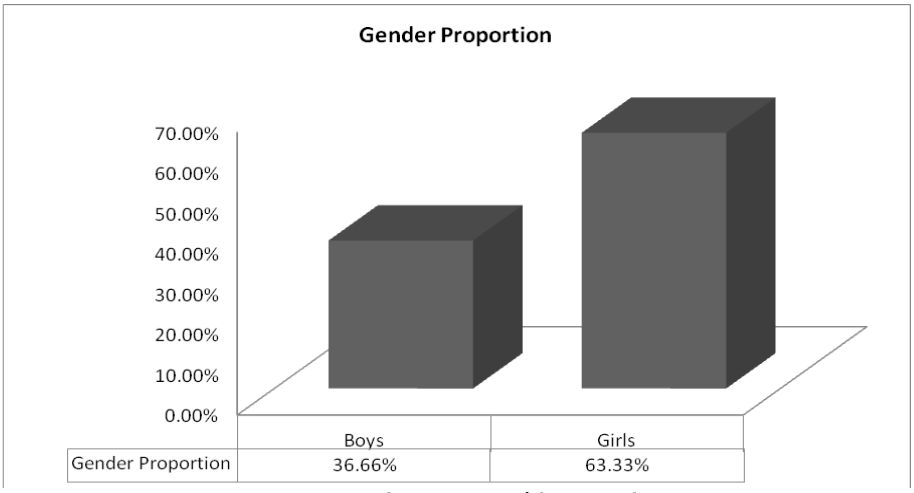


Figure 1 Gender Proportion of the Research

The table below exhibits the independent t-test results of the pre and post test of both control group and experimental group.

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORE OF THE PRE AND POST TEST ANALYSIS
Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest total score	Control group	15	11.20	3.590	.927
	Experimental group	15	12.47	3.441	.888
Post test total score	Control group	15	7.07	3.369	.870
	Experimental group	15	27.73	3.105	.802

As shown in the table above the mean value of the post test score (CG and EG) had much more significant difference (7.07, 27.73) than the mean value of the pre test score (CG and EG) i.e. 11.20 and 12.47.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances					t-test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Internal of the Difference	
		F	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig.(2-tailed)**	**Mean difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Pretest total scores	**Equal variances assumed**	.214	.647	-.987	28	.332	-1.267	1.284	-3.897	1.363
	Equal variances not assumed			-.987	27.950	.332	-1.267	1.284	-3.897	1.363
Post test total scores	**Equal Variances assumed**	.523	.476	-17.470	28	<.001	-20.667	1.183	-23.090	-18.244
	Equal Variances not assumed			-17.470	27.814	<.001	-20.667	1.183	-23.091	-18.243

The table above shows the results of the independent t-test sample of the control and experimental groups in their pre test and post test. The p- value denotes < 0.001 and the t value is in negative values, therefore the framed null hypothesis is rejected, while the alternate hypothesis is accepted. Thus, it is concluded that the CG and EG were almost at the same level of performance in speaking and henceforth any difference that occurs in between the two groups after the implementation of the treatment will be attributed to it.

Likewise, the independent samples t-tests for the differences between the CG and EG on the pre- test and post test were conducted with respect to the Speaking competencies, that included basic grammar, active vocabulary, pronunciation, attentiveness and interpretation. These five components focus on the linguistic, discourse and pragmatic competences. This test was done to make sure that there are statistical differences between the two groups on the pre and post test scores that indicated an improvement in their performance after undergoing theatre based instruction in the L2 environment.

The table below displays the frequencies of mean, median, standard deviation and range of the pretest and post test scores of the experimental group after getting exposed to the treatment for developing the tertiary level learners' speaking abilities.

TABLE 4
MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY
Frequencies

		Experimental Group Speaking Skills_ Pretest scores	Experimental Group Speaking Skills_Posttest scores
N	Valid	15	15
	Missing	0	0
Mean		12.47	27.73
Median		13.00	28.00
Std. Deviation		3.441	3.105
Range		10	12
Minimum		6	21
Maximum		16	33

The table below represents the reliability of constructs. The alpha value of basic grammar is .720 with 3 items under the category. The value of active vocabulary is .821 with 3 items under the label. The value for pronunciation is .871 and it has 3 items, the alpha value of attentiveness and interpretation with three items each are .881 and .917.

The statistical table below presents the paired t-test results of the PT EG's pretest and posttest scores before and after the intervention of the treatment.

TABLE 5
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST
Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Experimental Group Speaking Skills_Posttest scores	27.73	15	3.105	.802
	Experimental Group Speaking Skills_ Pretest scores	12.47	15	3.441	.888

TABLE 6
CORRELATION
Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Experimental Group Speaking Skills_Posttest scores & Experimental Group Speaking Skills_ Pretest scores	15	.461	.084

TABLE 7
T-TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S PRE TEST AND POST TEST MEAN SCORES IN OVERALL SPEAKING SKILLS
Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Experimental Group Speaking Skills_Posttest scores - Experimental Group Speaking Skills_ Pretest scores	15.267	3.411	.881	13.377	17.156	17.332	14	<.001

The data above shows that there is a statistically significant difference at <0.001 level in the overall speaking performance of the learners' between the mean scores of the experimental group on the pre test scores and post test scores in favour of the post- test scores since the estimated t- values was 17.332. Thus it is statistically evident that the t-test results proved to be consistent with the alternative hypothesis. In other words, the alternative hypothesis is accepted while the second framed null hypothesis is rejected.

The paired sample tests prove that there is a statistically considerable variation amid the mean scores of the playback theatre experimental group on the pretest scores and post test scores in overall speaking abilities in favour of the post-test scores.

After undergoing the treatment, the experimental group was given a questionnaire to show their interest level towards teaching through theatre based instructional design in their L2 classroom. The results depict that 81% of the students' showed interest in learning their English speaking skills through the suggested method and 19% showed disinterest to learn their English speaking skills through the suggested methodology.

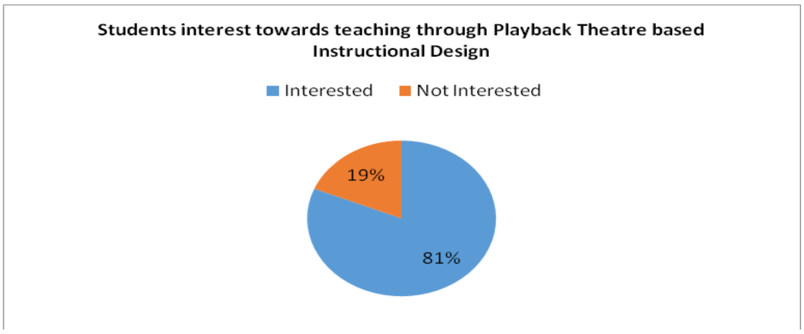


Figure 2 Students' Interest Towards Learning Through Playback Theatre Based Instructional Design

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Results*

Based on the significant results of the study, it is concluded that the Playback Theatre based Instructional design demonstrated the effectiveness in developing the EG students' speaking skill in general and their sub-skills in particular. It is proven through the two valid hypotheses of the study. There is a statistically momentous difference at <0.01 level between the mean scores of the experimental group that was exposed to the suggested theatre based instructional design and the CG that received regular language instruction on the post-test in overall speaking abilities in favour of the EG. The analysis of the t-test rejected the framed null hypothesis and accepted the alternate hypothesis.

There was a statistically substantial difference at <0.01 level between the mean scores of the PT EG on the pre and post test of speaking skills in favour of the post-test scores. The t-test analysis revealed that t= 17.332. As a result, the null hypothesis was dismissed, whereas the alternative hypothesis was accepted. The suggested Playback Theatre based instructional design helped the students to focus on the following speaking genres during the session. It nourished the students to share their personal information, narrate a situational story, describe the incident with the help of the facilitator, discuss their opinions to set a positive attitude towards a happy ending, voluntarily make suggestions towards better conclusion and interact in the group without hesitation. The students were able to follow basic grammatical rules based on parts of speech, SV agreement and direct and indirect speech. They were able to use active vocabulary, basic lexis for everyday use and appropriate range of words. They were also able to demonstrate intelligible pronunciation with notable stress, pitch and intonation. The students showed progress in the pragmatic and discourse competencies too. They improved their attentiveness, appropriateness and speech acts. Due to interaction and effective discussion, the students were able to follow structured cohesion and coherence. The students sensibly interpreted the incident and gave positive suggestions without creating any chaos.

B. Discussion and Findings

The main objective of the study is to identify the development of English language skills of the students through collaborative Task-based Language Teaching with special emphasis on Playback Theatre based instructional design. Salas' (2013) study revealed that Playback Theatre served as an influential instrument to make the students exchange ideas verbally. Story narration, mini-interview participation and enactment provide learners a situation to communicate in functional English. Park-Fuller's (2010) study argues that PT involves improving narrative communication. The development in verbal communication through narration leads the students to enhance their language skills. The findings of Neenda (2015), Feldhendler (2007), Salas (2010) and Jordaan (2015) claim that PT boosts the individuals' interactive ability, interpersonal communication and also personal accountabilities. Salas' (1983) important research findings conclude that PT integrates an individual's psychology and the evolution of a healthy community in which ingenuous communication plays a vital role.

The changes that are found in a learner's language are significant. Feldhendler's (2007) research proves that PT practice in post-secondary education facilitates the learner to enhance linguistic competence in a democratic way. It also enriches cultural and artistic education. Another study of Linda (2010) states that, PT aids at improving the metaphorical language amongst participants. PT aids to develop spatial language, sound and language matrix. In addition, PT shows a significant relationship between emotional and cognitive level of the learners along with language development. Chester (2002) points out that in PT performance the language is often condensed. It gives a plurality of co-existing language insights. The fluid sculpt form in PT provides the emergence of multi-meaning speech in a nominal manner.

PT improves students' interpersonal competence. It facilitates to look for and accept other reviews, exhibits responsiveness and a respectful understanding of the viewpoints of others, holds sustainable, better relations with others, weaves and analyzes knowledge appropriately into a cohesive narrative from various inputs and insights, uses narrative to interact and call people to action, acts and beliefs in line with personal, organizational and society values and lastly proves leadership by modeling, influencing and serving roles. Moran's (2011) preliminary evidence suggests that PT improves interpersonal skills like self-complacency, self-knowledge, recreation, correlation with one another and increases compassion. McCormack's (2017) article suggests that PT makes individuals' sensible humanitarians to form a civil society.

Playback Theatre is a functional instrument to be used in the learning environment. In the viewpoint of Feldhendler (2007), in Higher Education especially in preparatory education and teacher education, for instance – Playback Theatre can be utilized as a method of empowering the improvement of democracy based support in language learning and teacher training. Motos (2015) Playback Theatre is a modeled application of the Content in Language Learning method for the growth and advancement of innovative, synergetic and verbal communication key abilities. Gill (2016) asserts that learning spoken English through drama techniques reduces learners' fret and repression. Drama-based method and approach utilized for effectual verbal communication results effectively amongst Asian learners where English is a Second Language.

C. Limitation

The students were limited to the tertiary level of Arts and Science College in South India .

The study was limited to the age group of 17-19 years.

The study was limited to enhance only the language competence of the students.

D. Further Scope

PT can be used as an aid to improve listening, reading and writing skills.

A comparative study can be made involving Playback Theatre pedagogy and the usual textbook teaching.

VII. CONCLUSION

The current research focuses on the relationship between playback theatre and its impact on improving the parts of speech, sentence structure, direct speech, active vocabulary, basic vocabulary for everyday use, appropriate range of vocabulary, pronunciation focused on stress, pitch and intonation, attentiveness, appropriateness, speech acts, cohesion, coherence and, finally, interpretation. The research also adds to a better understanding of the role of Playback Theatre in today's educational and learning contexts. Drama is real, and it can be used in actual interactions where students can express their emotions, thoughts, and ideas while also paying attention to the feelings and thoughts of their peers and classmates. The research also adds to the current literature, particularly in terms of theatrical approaches and instruments. Playback Theatre exercises are good instruments for accomplishing this, as they use both the participants' intellectual and emotive subjects while also aiming to create a significant, entertaining, and low-stress atmosphere. The study's findings demonstrated that the study's objectives were completely fulfilled. Furthermore, the analyzed data revealed the development of learners' communicative skills, specifically speaking and vocabulary. Playback Theatre techniques have proven to be extremely effective for developing contextual and accurate language usage, as well as rational reasoning and interpretation. It is very obvious that the role of narratives play a very vital part in the process of speech development. The narrative stories get implanted in the audiences' mind that stimulates the listeners to collaboratively improve the oracy skills. The narrative is observed by the fellow listeners and transported into the thoughts of the audiences that help them to express in words. The study's findings are likely to be a point of novelty for future execution and investigation. In fact, because the investigation focused specifically on the respondents' motivation and speaking abilities, future research could take into account other variables. For instance, it would be intriguing to investigate the effects of theatre techniques on other language skills, such as composition, reading etc. The study could be conducted with age ranges or levels of learners, with the goal of motivating and encouraging creative writing.

REFERENCES

[1] Chester, A. (2002). Playback Theatre and Group Communication. *Creative Advances in Groupwork.* Chesner, A. and Hahn, H. (Ed). Philadelphia: Jessica Kingsley.

[2] Donkana, K. R. (2019). Second Language Learning Taken For Granted By Learners At Tertiary Level. *International Journal of English Learning & Teaching Skills, 1*(4), 308–315. https://doi.org/10.15864/ijelts.1406

[3] Feldhendler, Daniel. (2007). Playback Theatre. *Scenario, 1*(2). doi: https://doi.org/10.33178/scenario.1.2.4

[4] Gargesh and Neira Dev. (2017). English in tertiary education in India: a Janus-faced perspective with special reference to the University of Delhi. In Eun Sung Park and Bernard Spolsky (Ed), *English Education at the Tertiary Level in Asia* (pp. 46 - 62). Routledge: New York.

[5] Gill, Chamkaur. (2016). Maximising Asian ESL Learners' Communicative Oral English via Drama. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 7*(5), 240-246. Doi- 10.7575/aiac.alls.v.7n.5p.240

[6] Goyal, S. (2021). *10 Most Spoken Languages in India by Number of Speakers*. Jagranjosh.com. Retrieved from https://www.jagranjosh.com/general-knowledge/most-spoken-languages-in-india-by-number-of-speakers-1541764100-1 on 3 June, 2021.

[7] Jaya, A. C. N. (2009). *A study on the teaching and learning of English as a second language at the degree level in the arts and science colleges affiliated to Manonmanium Sundaranar University Tirunelveli*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Manonmanium Sundaranar University.

[8] Jordaan. O. (2015). *Performing Synergy: The Use of Playback Theatre in Exploring Personal and Dominant Discourses Amongst Adolescents*. Faculties of humanities, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, pp. 1-164.

[9] Linda M. Park Fuller. (2010). *Beyond Role Play: Playback Theatre and Conflict Transformation.* International Playback Theatre Symposium. USA. Retrieved from http://www.playbacktheatre.org/playbacktheatre/wp-content/uploads/2010/04/LindaPark-Fuller-Beyond-Role-Play-Playback-Theatre-and-Confl.pdf on 12 February, 2021.

[10] Lynne McCormack & Evelyn Henry. (2017). The "lived" experience of Playback Theatre practitioners in post-war Sri Lanka: naivety, altruism, reciprocal caring, and psychological growth. *Arts & Health, 9*:3, 224-237, DOI: 10.1080/17533015.2016.1262879

[11] Meganathan. (2019). Research in English Language Education in India. *Indian Educational Review, 57*(2). 5-72.

[12] Moran, G., & Alon, U. (2011). Playback theatre and recovery in mental health: Preliminary evidence. *Arts in Psychotherapy, 38,* 318-324.

[13] Motos. T and Fields. D. (2015). *Playback Theatre: Embodying the CLIL methodology*, Research gate, International University of Valencia, Spain, pp. 1-28.

[14] Neenda. V. (2015). *Introducing Playback Theatre, the Centre for Playback Theatre, International Playback Theatre Network,* 1-10.

[15] Park-Fuller, L.M. (2010). *Playback Theatre, Communication Pedagogy, and Community Engagement: Improvising Third Space and Mutable Selves through Narrative Performance.* Retrieved on 11th March 2021 from http://playbacktheatre.org/playbacktheatre/wp-content/uploads/2010/04/Park_Fuller-%E2%80%A6PT.pdf

[16] Ragini. (2019). How to develop accuracy in speech and writing skills at tertiary level? A Study Report. *Language in India, 19*(2), 498- 502.

[17] Ramamoorthy, B. (2006). *Analysis of oral communication of ESL tertiary level students initiated through task based language teaching*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Gandhigram Rural Institute.

[18] Rukmini, S. (2019). In India, who speaks in English, and where? *Mint*. Retrieved from https://www.livemint.com/news/india/in-india-who-speaks-in-english-and-where-1557814101428.html on 14 May, 2019

[19] Sadhna. (2017). Revizualizing the methods implemented in teaching English at the tertiary level. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanities, 5*(2), 158- 164.

[20] Salas Jo. (1983). Culture and Community: Playback Theatre. *The Drama Review, 27*(2). Retrieved from www.jstor.org/stable/1145490 on 6 March, 2021.

[21] Salas. R, et al. (2013). Playback theatre as a tool to enhance communication in medical education, *Medical Education Online, 18*, 1-7.

[22] Shinde and Karekatti. (2010). Primary Teachers' Beliefs about Teacher Talk in ESL classrooms: a Perspective from India. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, *1*(Special Issue): 55-65.

[23] Sivakami, B. (2014). *Integrating learner autonomy and task based language teaching an innovative method for enhancing the post graduate learners speaking skill in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Bharathiar University.

[24] Suchona, Iffat Jahan, and Sadia Afrin Shorna. (2019). Speaking Problems in English and Solutions: Scrutinizing Students' Perspective. *Shanlax International Journal of English*, *8*(1), 34–41.
[25] Timlinson, B., & Avila, J. (2007). Seeing and saying for yourself: the roles of audiovisual mental aids in language learning and use. In B. Tomlinson (Ed), *Language acquisition and development: Studies of learners of first and other languages* (pp. 61-181). London: Continuum.
[26] Vinita and Ilankumaran. (2020). The Functional Aspects of Content-based Instruction in Language Speaking classrooms in India. *Journal of Xi'an University of Architecture and Technology*, *12*(8), 1192- 1204.

V. Dorothy Catherine, A Ph. D research scholar at Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India pursues her research in Playback Theatre and English Language Teaching.

C. Suganthan, An Assistant Professor in the Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India. He is an experienced academician with a demonstrated history of working in the education management industry. He is skilled in Translation, Technical Writing and Teaching English as a Second Language in Adult Education.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 840-846, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.04

On Consist of and Made up of: A Corpora-Based Analysis*

Namkil Kang
Far East University, South Korea

***Abstract*—The ultimate goal of this article is to show that *consist of* and *made up of* are somewhat different in their use. It is worth pointing out that the type *made up of* (1,129 tokens) may be preferable to the type *consist of* (993 tokens) in the UK. A further point to note is that *consist of* is 57.14% the same as *made up of*. Talking about *consist of* and *made up of* in the Hansard Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://english-corpora.org /hansard/), the former is preferable to the latter in the British parliament. Quite interestingly, *consist of* was the most preferable one (942 tokens) for British politicians in 1960, but it was the least preferred one (49 tokens) in 1800. On the other hand, *made up of* reached a peak (1,020 tokens) in the British parliament in 1990. More importantly, the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc) shows that *consist of people* is the most frequently used one in the UK, whereas *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most widely used ones. Finally, it is worthwhile noting that 6.66% of forty five nouns are the collocations of both *consist of* and *made up of*.**

***Index Terms*—British National Corpus, Hansard Corpus, consist of, made up of**

I. Introduction

As Murphy (2016, 2019) points out, *consist of* and *made up of* are used synonymously. As argued by Kang (2022), the British National Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc) is a database that is heavily used in English learning. The main purpose of this paper is to compare *consist of* with *made up of* in the British National Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc) and the Hansard Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://english-corpora.org /hansard/). First, we consider the similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* by examining seven genres. Also, we measure the distance between *consist of* and *made up of* in seven genres. By doing so, we can see how similar *consist of* and *made up of* are in seven genres. Second, we consider which type is the preferred one in the British parliament. Also, we consider when *consist of* and *made up of* were the most frequently used in the British parliament. Finally, we consider the collocations of *consist of* and *made up of* in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). By using the software package NetMiner, we can see how similar *consist of* and *made up of* are. This paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we argue that *made up of* may be favored over *consist of* in their use in the UK. We further argue that *consist of* is 57.14% the same as *made up of*. We also contend that *consist of* and *made up of* show the highest similarity in the non-academic genre. In section 3, we maintain that *consist of* was preferable to *made up of* in the British parliament. More interestingly, *consist of* and *made up of* reached a peak in 1960 and 1990, respectively. In section 4, we argue that *consist of people* is the most frequently used one (4 tokens) in the UK, whereas *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most widely used ones (19 tokens vs. 19 tokens). Finally, we show that 6.66% of forty five nouns are the collocations of both *consist of* and *made up of*.

II. Consist of and Made up of in the BNC

In what follows, we consider the similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* by examining seven genres. Table 1 shows the frequency of *consist of* and *made up of* in seven genres:

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF CONSIST OF AND MADE UP OF IN SEVEN GENRES (BNC)

GENRE	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	NON-ACAD	ACADMIC	MISC
Consist of	993	23	22	67	25	230	318	308
Made up of	1,129	53	49	102	89	273	272	291

An immediate question is “Which type is the preferred one in the UK?” Table 1 clearly shows that *made up of* is preferable to *consist of*. To be more specific, the frequency of *consist of* is 993 tokens, whereas that of *made up of* is 1,129 tokens. This amounts to saying that the British prefer using *made up of* rather than using *consist of*.

Interestingly, *consist of* ranks first (318 tokens) in the academic genre, whereas *made up of* ranks first (291 tokens) in the miscellaneous genre. Quite interestingly, there is no similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in rank-one. With

* This work was supported by the 2022 Far East University Research Grant (FEU2022S02).

respect to the academic genre, it is worth noting that the frequency of *consist of* (318 tokens) is somewhat higher than that of *made up of* (272 tokens). This in turn implies that the British prefer using *consist of* rather than using *made up of* in the academic field. With respect to the miscellaneous genre, on the other hand, it is interesting to note that *consist of* (308 tokens) is preferable to *made up of* (291 tokens).

Noteworthy is that *consist of* ranks second (308 tokens) in the miscellaneous genre, whereas *made up of* ranks second (273 tokens) in the non-academic genre. Again, there is no similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in rank-two. More interestingly, in the non-academic genre, the frequency of *made up of* (273 tokens) is much higher than that of *consist of* (230 tokens). This amounts to saying that the British prefer *made up of* to *consist of* in the non-academic genre.

It is worth pointing out that *consist of* ranks third (230 tokens) in the non-academic genre, whereas *made up of* ranks third (272 tokens) in the academic genre. Quite interestingly, *consist of* does not show the same property as *made up of* in rank-three, hence showing no similarity.

It is worthwhile mentioning that the types *consist of* and *made up of* are the fourth most frequently used ones (67 tokens vs. 102 tokens) in the magazine genre. Interestingly, there is a similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in the magazine genre.

It is worthwhile noting that *consist of* and *made up of* are the fifth most frequently used ones (25 tokens vs. 89 tokens) in the newspaper genre. Quite interestingly, there is a close similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in the newspaper genre. It should be pointed out, however, that the frequency of *made up of* (89 tokens) is three times higher than that of *consist of* (25 tokens) in the newspaper genre. We take this as implying that British journalists prefer to use *made up of* rather than use *consist of* in their newspapers.

It is interesting to note that *consist of* (23 tokens) and *made up of* (53 tokens) are the sixth most frequently used ones in the spoken genre. Again, there is a similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in the spoken genre, hence the same pattern in rank-six. Interestingly, the frequency of *made up of* (53 tokens) is higher than that of *consist of* (23 tokens) in the spoken genre. This might imply that the British prefer to use *made up of* rather than use *consist of* in the spoken genre.

Finally, it is worthwhile pointing out that *consist of* and *made up of* are the seventh most frequently used ones (22 tokens vs. 49 tokens) in the fiction genre. More interestingly, there is a similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in the fiction genre, thus showing a high similarity in rank-seven. It must be noted, however, that *made up of* is favored over *consist of* in the fiction genre. We infer this from the fact that the frequency of *made up of* (49 tokens) is even higher than that of *consist of* (22 tokens). To sum up, *consist of* and *made up of* show the same pattern in four genres, but they show a different pattern in three genres. From all of this, we may conclude that *consist of* is 57.14% the same as *made up of*.

Now let us consider the use of *consist of* and *made up of* in seven genres:

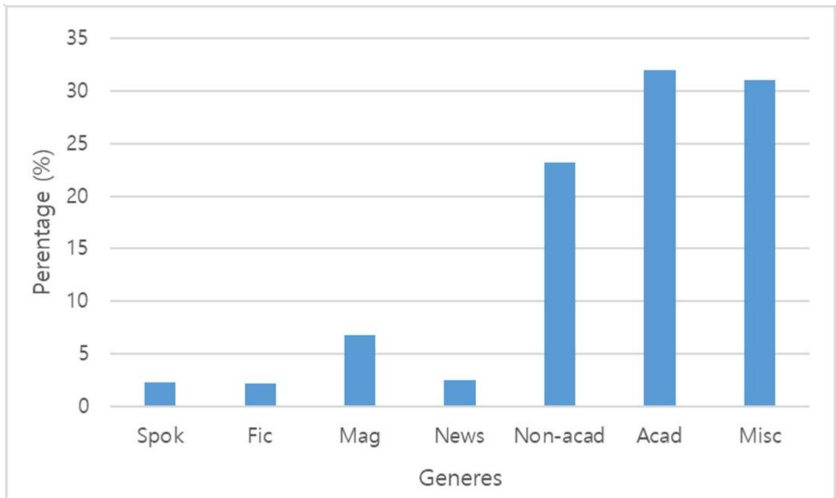


Figure 1 Percentage of consist of in Seven Genres

As can be seen from Figure 1, the academic field is the most influenced by *consist of*, followed in descending order by the miscellaneous genre, and the non-academic genre.

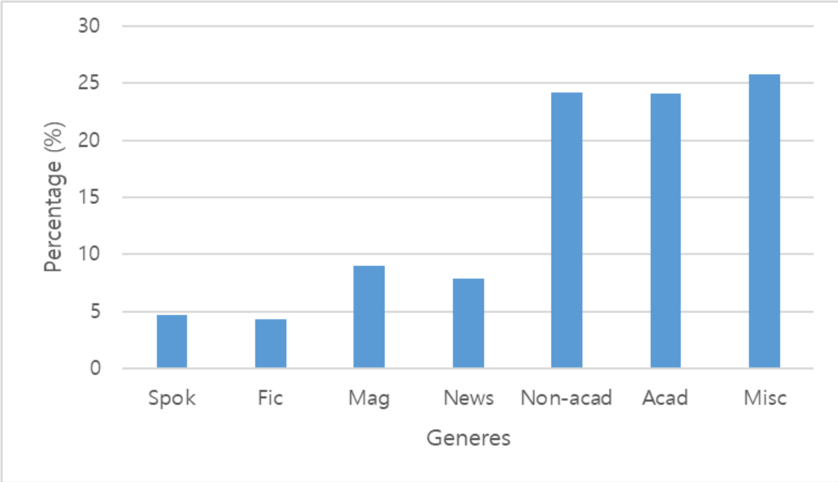


Figure 2 Percentage of made up of in Seven Genres

As shown in Figure 2, the miscellaneous genre is the most influenced by *made up of*, followed by the non-academic genre, and the academic genre.

Now attention is paid to the distance between *consist of* and *made up of* in seven genres. Here the Euclidean distance provides an indication of how similar *consist of* and *made up of* are in seven genres. We define the Euclidean distance in the following way:

(1) The Euclidean distance:

$$d(p,q) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(p_i - q_i)^2}$$

The following table shows the degree of the similarity between *consist of* and *made up of* in seven genres:

TABLE 2
EUCLIDEAN DISTANCE BETWEEN CONSIST OF AND MADE UP OF IN THE BNC

Genre	Spok	Fic	Mag	News	Non-acad	Acad	Misc
Percentage of consist of	2.31	2.21	6.74	2.51	23.16	32.02	31.01
Percentage of made up of	4.69	4.34	9.03	7.88	24.18	24.09	25.77
Euclidean distance	2.38	2.13	2.29	5.37	1.02	7.93	5.24

More interestingly, *consist of* is the furthest from *made up of* in the academic genre. The Euclidean distance between *consist of* and *made up of* in the academic genre is 7.93. Thus, the types *consist of* and *made up of* show a low similarity. Quite interestingly, in the non-academic field, *consist of* is the nearest to *made up of*. Their distance is 1.02, which is the lowest. Thus, the types *consist of* and *made up of* show a high similarity. We thus conclude that in the non-academic genre, *consist of* is the nearest to *made up of*.

III. CONSIST OF AND MADE UP OF IN THE HANSARD CORPUS

In this section, we aim to consider the diachronic aspects of *consist of* and *made up of* from 1800 to 2000. Table 3 shows the use of *consist of* and *made up of* in the British parliament (1800-2000):

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF CONSIST OF AND MADE UP OF IN THE HANSARD CORPUS

Period	Consist of	Made up of
1800	49	9
1810	63	16
1820	74	25
1830	256	67
1840	206	52
1850	507	64
1860	397	94
1870	524	94
1880	598	176
1890	534	142
1900	629	212
1910	795	227
1920	604	266
1930	801	291
1940	820	348
1950	825	356
1960	942	525
1970	919	669
1980	918	851
1990	837	1,020
2000	453	591

An important question is "Which type was the preferable one for British politicians?" Table 3 clearly indicates that *consist of* was the preferred one in the British parliament from 1800 to 2000. That is to say, the frequency of *consist of* is 11,751 tokens, but that of *made up of* is 6,095 tokens. This shows that *consist of* was preferable to *made up of* in the British parliament. Note that as observed earlier, the British prefer to use *made up of* rather than use *consist of*. The following graph shows the diachronic use of *consist of* and *made up of* from 1800 to 2000:

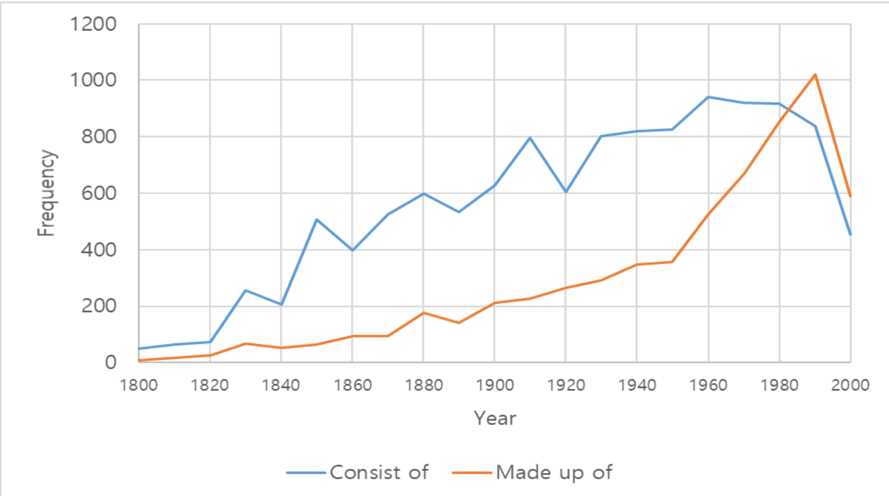


Figure 3 Use of consist of and made up of in the British Parliament From 1800 to 2000

It is interesting to note that the frequency of *consist of* increased from 1800 to 1850. Note that there was a decline (a decline of 110 tokens) in 1860. With respect to the frequency of *consist of*, it is interesting to point out that there was a gradual increase (an increase of 201 tokens) from 1860 to 1880. Notice, however, that there was a sudden fall (a decline of 64 tokens) in the frequency of *consist of* in 1890. Interestingly, the frequency of *consist of* increased steadily (a rise of 408 tokens) from 1890 to 1960 except 1920. However, the figure of *consist of* decreased suddenly (a decline of 489 tokens) from 1960 to 2000.

Interestingly, the figure of *made up of* increased gradually (a rise of 58 tokens) from 1800 to 1830. Note, however, that the figure of *made up of* decreased suddenly (a decrease of 15 tokens) in 1840. After this period, there was a gradual rise (an increase of 124 tokens) in the frequency of *made up of* from 1840 to 1880. With respect to the frequency of *made up of*, it is worth noting that there was a sudden decrease (a decline of 34 tokens) in 1890. Quite interestingly, the figure of *made up of* increased dramatically (a rise of 878 tokens) from 1890 to 1990. Notice that there was a decrease of 429 tokens in 2000. Most interestingly, *made up of* had the highest frequency (1,020 tokens) in 1990. Most importantly, *consist of* was always preferable to *made up of* from 1800 to 1980. Note, however, that *made up of* was favored over *consist of* in the British parliament in 1990 and 2000.

IV. COLLOCATIONS OF CONSIST OF AND MADE UP OF IN THE BNC

In the following, we aim to provide a collocation analysis of *consist of* and *made up of* in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). This list (Table 4) was cut off in the top 24:

TABLE 4
COLLOCATION OF CONSIST OF

Number	Collocation	Frequency
1	Consist of people	4
2	Consist of fish	2
3	Consist of cash	2
4	Consist of money	2
5	Consist of molecules	2
6	Consist of modules	2
7	Consist of mixtures	2
8	Consist of hundreds	2
9	Consist of interviews	2
10	Consist of periods	2
11	Consist of persons	2
12	Consist of representatives	2
13	Consist of sheets	2
14	Consist of volunteers	2
15	Consist of water	2
16	Consist of words	2
17	Consist of obsidian	1
18	Consist of objects	1
19	Consist of oats	1
20	Consist of noun	1
21	Consist of non-lawyers	1
22	Consist of neutrons	1
23	Consist of music	1
24	Consist of mortgage	1

Now which collocation is the most preferred by the British? Table 4 indicates that the expression *consist of people* is the most commonly used one (4 tokens). This in turn indicates that *consist of people* is the most preferable one (4 tokens) for the British. It is interesting to note, on the other hand, that *consist of mixtures* ranks second (2 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). It is also interesting to point out that *consist of representatives* ranks second (2 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). Finally, it is worthwhile mentioning that *consist of water* ranks second (2 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). It can thus be concluded that the expression *consist of people* is the most preferred one (4 tokens).

Now consider Table 5:

TABLE 5
COLLOCATION OF MADE UP OF

Number	Collocation of made up of	Frequency
1	Made up of people	19
2	Made up of representatives	19
3	Made up of members	10
4	Made up of parts	7
5	Made up of individuals	6
6	Made up of players	4
7	Made up of staff	4
8	Made up of street	4
9	Made up of thousands	4
10	Made up of units	4
11	Made up of waves	4
12	Made up of hundreds	3
13	Made up of electrons	3
14	Made up of couples	3
15	Made up of cells	3
16	Made up of amino	3
17	Made up of quarks	3
18	Made up of women	3
19	Made up of components	2
20	Made up of attitudes	2
21	Made up of atoms	2
22	Made up of employees	2
23	Made up of elements	2
24	Made up of experts	2

Table 5 clearly indicates that *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most widely used ones (19 tokens vs. 19 tokens) in the UK. This in turn suggests that *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most preferred ones (19 tokens) in the UK. As illustrated in Table 5, *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most preferred (19 tokens vs. 19 tokens) by the British, followed by *made up of members*, *made up of parts, made up of individuals*, and *made up of players*, in that order. Quite interestingly, *consist of people* and *made up of people* rank first (4 tokens vs. 19 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). On the other hand, *consist of representatives* and *made up of representatives* rank second (2 tokens vs. 19 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). It is worth observing that *made up of members* ranks third (10 tokens) in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc). We thus conclude that *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most preferred (19 tokens vs. 19 tokens) by the British.

Now let us consider the visualization of the collocations of *consist of* and *made up of* in the top 24:

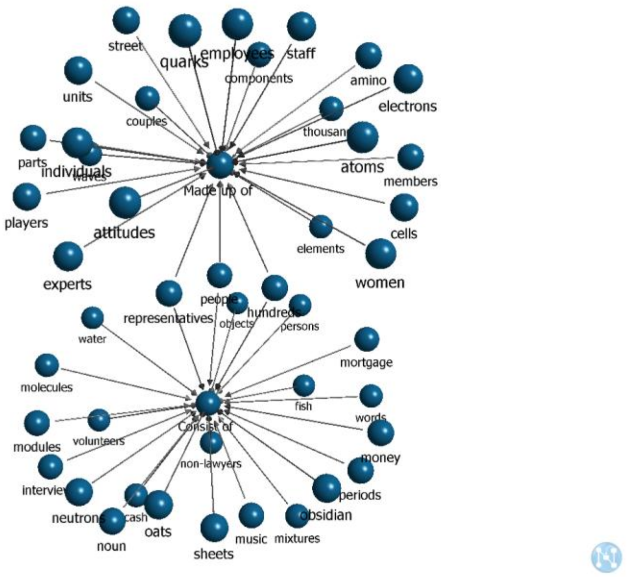


Figure 4 Visualization of the Collocations of consist of and made up of in the BNC

As exemplified in Figure 4, twenty four nouns are linked to *consist of* and *made up of*, respectively. Most importantly, three nouns are linked to both *consist of* and *made up of*, which indicates that they are the collocations of both *consist of* and *made up of*. The three nouns linked to *consist of* and *made up of* are *people*, *representatives*, and *hundreds*. Most importantly, 6.66% of forty five nouns are the collocations of *consist of* and *made up of*. It can thus be concluded that the types *consist of* and *made up of* are somewhat different in their collocations.

V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, we have compared *consist of* with *made up of* in the British National Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc) and the Hansard Corpus (20, April 2022. Online https://english-corpora.org /hansard/). In section 2, we have argued that the British prefer using *made up of* rather than using *consist of*. We have further argued that *consist of* is 57.14% the same as *made up of*. Also, we have shown that *consist of* is the nearest to *made up of* in the non-academic genre. In section 3, we have maintained that *consist of* was preferable to *made up of* in the British parliament. Quite interestingly, *consist of* was the most preferable one (942 tokens) for British politicians in 1960, whereas it was the least preferred one (49 tokens) in 1800. On the other hand, *made up of* reached a peak (1,020 tokens) in the British parliament in 1990. In section 4, we have contended that *consist of people* is the most frequently used one (4 tokens) in the UK, whereas *made up of people* and *made up of representatives* are the most widely used ones (19 tokens vs. 19 tokens). Finally, we have shown that 6.66% of forty five nouns are the collocations of both *consist of* and *made up of*. This amounts saying that *consist of* and *made up of* may be low similarity synonyms in the BNC (20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc).

REFERENCES

[1] *British National Corpus (BNC)*. 20, April 2022. Online https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc
[2] *Hansard Corpus (HC)*. 20, April 2022. Online https://english-corpora.org /hansard/
[3] Kang, N. (2022). A Comparative Analysis of Impressed by and Impressed with in Two Corpora. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 11*(11): 819-827.
[4] Murphy, R. (2016). *Grammar in Use*. Cambridge University Press. Singapore.
[5] Murphy, R. (2019). *English Grammar in Use*. Cambridge University Press. New York.

Namkil Kang was born in Chungbuk, South Korea on 27, August, 1964. He received a BA degree (English Language and Literature) at Chungbuk National University in South Korea in 1988. He received an MA degree (English Linguistics) at Sogang University in South Korea in 1990. He received an MPhil degree (Linguistics) at the University of Oxford in 1998. Finally, he received a Ph.D. degree (Linguistics) at the University of Oxford in 2000.

He has been with Far East University in South Korea since 2002. He is a professor at Far East University in South Korea. He is working on syntax, corpus linguistics, and English education at this moment. He has published about 100 articles and three books. He is a recent ex-chairman of the Joongwon Linguistic Society of South Korea and a chairman of the Jungang English Language and Literature Association of South Korea.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 847-854, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.05

Prosodic Studies on the Spoken Corpus of the Khalkha Mongolian Language: Age and Gender Effects on F0 and Speech Rate

Sainbilegt Dashdorj
Asian Studies Department, National University of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

Bulgantamir Sangidkhorloo*
European Studies Department, National University of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

Uuganbayar Tur
Communication Network LLC, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

***Abstract*—There are many studies on age- and gender-dependent analyses in multiple languages. Still, the fundamental frequency (F0) and speech rate in different age and gender groups with Khalkha Mongolian have not yet been studied. In this investigation, we analyzed the speaker's age and gender effects on F0 and speech rate based on a spontaneous speech corpus of the Khalkha dialect of the Mongolian language. We have discovered some universal aspects of these phonological phenomena and specific relevant characteristics of speech rate change depending on gender. The average speech rate of Khalkha Mongolian is 5.3 syllables per second. The male speakers spoke much quicker than the female speakers. Age and gender affect the F0 and speech rate in particular systematic ways. The F0 of the female and male speakers tended to decrease with age. Also, that elderly male speakers talk slower than elderly female speakers, while young and middle-aged male speakers tend to talk faster than female speakers of the same age.**

***Index Terms*—Mongolian language, age, gender, F0, speech rate**

I. Introduction

In this paper, we analyzed a spontaneous speech corpus of the Khalkha Mongolian language and defined its F0 and speech rate about the different age and gender groups. Previous research on speech rate and F0 of the Khalkha Mongolian has not yet been conducted.

So, based on previous theories and hypotheses, we focused on the following issues of the prosody of Khalkha Mongolian:

-Do the F0 and the speech rate vary depending on age and gender?

-What is the average spontaneous speech rate in Khalkha Mongolian?)

A. Theoretical Background

The human language is variable. However, this variability is not chaotic. Investigations on systematic variation can contribute in many domains, such as language acquisition, theories of the sciences of language, speech processing, etc.

The fundamental frequency is essential in communicating information both about speakers' stable characteristics (e.g., monotonous speakers perceived as boring) and about transient speaker emotions or states (e.g., "raising the voice" to signal anger or surprise) (Patterson & Ladd, 1999). Experimental research using physical features has shown that the primary physical correlate of pitch is the fundamental frequency (Patterson & Ladd, 1999; Mennen et al., 2012).

Experimental studies in phonetics and phonology show that F0 (fundamental frequency) is not only the pragmatic semantic structure of speech (Beckman & Venditti, 2010), but also many other factors such as gender, age and social factors. It has been established that it also depends on emotions and feelings (Campbell, 2004; Labov, 2001; Reubold et al., 2010; Foulkes & Docherty, 2006). There are many studies on prosodic variation in F0 across ethnicity and regional accents, not only as a sociolinguistic variable but also as a result of physiological conditions, particularly the effects of age and gender on F0 (Mysak, 1959; Chen, 2005; Deutsch et al., 2009; Hollien, 1987; Hollien & de Jong, 1997; Mueller, 1997; Nishio & Niimi, 2008; Quené, 2007, 2008). Gender identity is partly encoded by prosodic patterns and suprasegmental cues. The significant effects of dialect, gender, and passage on prosodic patterns, including the distribution of pauses and the pitch patterns related to prominent syllable and phrase boundaries have been revealed (Cynthia & Rajka, 2011). In a cross-linguistic acoustic study of dissyllabic words produced by Northeastern American English speakers and Parisian French speakers (Pépiot, 2011), cross-gender differences may be obtained from F0 range,

* Corresponding Author. Email: bulgantamir.s@num.edu.mn

vocalic formants and H1-H2 intensity variations. And rather than trying to list and prioritize the acoustic features playing a role in the speech gender identification in general terms, he suggested that it would be prudent to consider the influence of the speaker’s native language on their identification strategy (Pépiot, 2011). The age-related changes in F1 compensate for physiologically induced decreases in F0, and thus keep the perception distance between F0 and F1 relatively constant (Reubold et al., 2010).

The speech rate difference is commonly interpreted by physiological, anatomical, and sociological factors. Researchers have also long recognized that speech rate varies as a function of individual speaker characteristics (Abercrombie, 1967; Laver & Trudgill, 1979). Regarding the languages of the world, many studies have been conducted to examine the difference in speech rate between female and male speakers. Byrd (1994), Yuan et al. (2006) and Whiteside (1996) suggest that men actually talk slightly faster than women. Heffernan (2007) stated that the men and woman speech variation is caused by a social component and physiological differences. Numerous studies have stated that young adults speak faster than older adults (Smith et al., 1987; Quené, 2008; Verhoeven et al., 2004; Yuan et al., 2006; Jacewicz et al., 2010; Stepanova, 2011). The older speakers produce relatively shorter phrases than younger speakers, and this difference in phrase length may be one of the age-related effects (Quené, 2008).

B. Background on the Prosody of Mongolian Language

The Khalkha dialect is spoken by the majority of the Mongolian population, i.e., estimates range from 84.6% to over 90% (Batzaya, 2007). This is the basic dialect of the Mongolian written language. The Mongolian language is an agglutinative language and belongs to the Ural-Altaic language family according to linguistic typology. We studied the central Khalkha dialect, especially the sub-dialect as spoken by the population of Tuv province and Ulaanbaatar city. The Khalkha dialect consists of 7 vowel phonemes (excluding palatalization and long alternatives) and 17 consonant phonemes. Svantesson et al. (2005) and Karlsson (2014) have studied the phonetics and phonology of the Khalkha dialect and defined it as a language without word stress. However, Tsoloo (2010) studied the Khalkha dialect in according to the methods of acoustic phonetics and proposed it as a language with word stress. The word stress in the Mongolian language is not distinctive, but the it plays a role in vowel harmony, which is important in orthography. Acoustic phonetic studies of Khalkha Mongolian have been conducted by Sainbilegt (2002), Batdorj (2014) and Bulgantamir (2016). There are few studies on the intonational structure of the Mongolian sentence based on acoustic phonology. Luvsanvandan (1967) explained that the intonation is an additional phoneme because it is involved in semantic contrast. After analysis of pitch and duration, he found the following accents in use in modern Mongolian:

-Steep falling accent (declarative sentence)
-Steep rising accent (interrogative sentence)
-Flat accent (imperative sentence)

In the research results (Karlsson, 2014) on the declarative, the interrogative and the imperative sentences read by a total of eight individuals (four males and four females) and the intonational inventory of the Khalkha Mongolian read speech spoken in Ulaanbaatar city, the Khalkha Mongolian has the category of edge-prominence language according the measurements of F0. The intonational structure of Mongolian language sentences according to the autosegmental-metrical theory is as follows:

-Accentual phrase (Prosodic word)
-Intermediate phrase (Prosodic phrase)
-Intonational phrase (Prosodic utterance)

As Karlsson noted, the accent contour in a sentence was defined as having a two-tone LH pitch accent, and in most cases the pitch was measured to be high at the beginning of the sentence and low at the end.

Huhe (2003), from Inner Mongolia, analyzed sentences in the Chakhar dialect of Mongolian through an experimental phonological method, focused on sentence prominences and called the grammatical accent of sentences the 'neutral accent'. The study was based on 32 utterances read by four speakers. He found falling pattern for declarative clauses, steep or sharply rising patterns for interrogative clauses and interjection, and rising or rising-falling patterns for imperative clauses.

II. Methods

A. Materials, Subjects and Procedure

Our study was based on observations of natural examples coming from a spontaneous speech corpus to ensure ecological validity. We examined speech recordings of 100 speakers spoken in the Khalkha dialect, from a speech corpus that was created by the joint research group of the Mongolian Academy of Sciences and Faculty of Mongolian Studies of Inner Mongolia University, based on field trips to provinces and cities in Mongolia. We analyzed a representative sample of 60 recordings of 9.2 hours that contained 1004 utterances and 22381 words. There were 10 male speakers and 10 female speakers aged 16 to 29 years, 10 male speakers and 10 female speakers aged 30 to 45 years, 10 male speakers and 10 female speakers aged 45 and over. Each person’s speech was different from each other so that the first 5 to 15 minutes of the conversation was analyzed. The recordings were made at a location outside the laboratory. We selected recordings that were free of background noise and met our quality criteria.

Speakers talked about their life, their past, present, and all kind of memories. So, the conversations have an emotional expression. It is worth noting that since the speeches were not previously prepared, the main speech was a relatively slow utterance with natural rhythm, intonation and pitch accent, and they contained hesitation and thought pauses.

B. Measurements

The recordings were analyzed using the Praat program (http://www.fon.hum.uva.nl/praat/download_win.html), and the fundamental frequency was calculated automatically. After that, we examined the spectrum and defined manually the segmentation. Then, the fundamental frequency was measured in relation to gender and age. The measurements were based on the research conducted by Patterson (2000) and other researchers (Mennen et al., 2012). The maximum F0 and minimum F0 of the sentence were denoted by H and L, the F0 at the beginning of a sentence by I, the highest F0 at the beginning of a sentence by Hi, the high measure at the end of a sentence by FH, and the low measure at the end of a sentence by FL.

In the second part of our investigation, we examined speech rate variation in spontaneous Mongolian language speech based on the age, gender and utterance length. The purpose of this section was to determine what is the average speech rate of Khalkha Mongolian and how the speech rate is related to age and gender.

III. RESULTS

A. Age and Gender Effects on F0

First, we checked how the mean value of the F0 and its variation depended on age and gender. The average F0 of the speech was measured according to age and gender classification and is shown in Table 1.

In Figure 1 shows the average F0 of male and female speakers utterances.

TABLE 1
MEAN VALUE OF F0 AND STANDARD DEVIATION

Mean Hz	I	Hi	H	L	FH	FL
M	121	134	121	100	135	94
StdDev	21.4	24.3	23.5	18.7	27.2	21.2
F	209	237	213	179	244	170
StdDev	33.5	45.9	39.9	26.3	33.1	24.1

Figure 1 shows the average value of F0 measurements for male and female speakers by calculation.

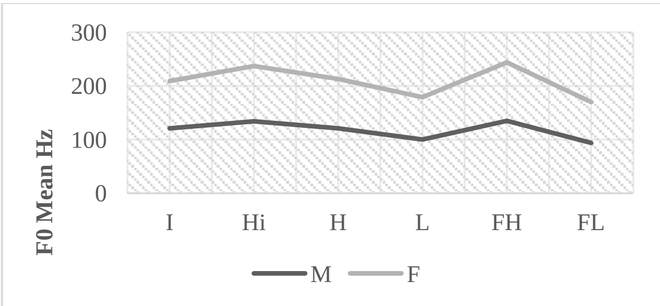


Figure 1 Mean Value of the F0 of the Spontaneous Speech
(Gender classification)

According to the graph, the fundamental frequency of the female speakers is higher than that of the male speakers. Excluding differences in the average of the measurements, the changes in F0 were higher for female speakers than for male speakers. For example, the final high frequency was higher in females than in males. There are some results pointing in this direction, but they are related to the age group. The degree of changes in F0 in association with aging was much greater in females than in males (Nishio & Niimi, 2008). This is related to the fact that female speakers have more emotional expressions than male speakers. It is especially important with regard their negative or positive memories. In addition, we found that gender differences in storytelling tasks were greater, and this was presumably due to differences in the approaches of male and female participants to the task (e.g., expression of emotion, engagement, attitude, involvement with the discourse partner, etc.). However, in another study, the change in F0 in women was less dramatic than that observed in men. The speaking F0 in women remains constant from age of 20 until about the age of 50 as its duration decreases (Honjo & Isshiki, 1980). But these divergent results could be caused by social and cultural factors in distinct linguistic communities. On the other hand, it can be attributed to cross-language differences to either of cultural factors. In our view, the difference in F0 between women can be explained by their emotions; that is, if we observe the topic of our conversation, the difference may be because women talk about difficult times in their lives and their thoughts and feelings, while men talk about events and events.

In Figures 2 and 3, the F0 variation of the pronunciation of male and female speakers is compared and presented based on age classifications as young (16-45 years old) and middle-aged (over 45 years old).

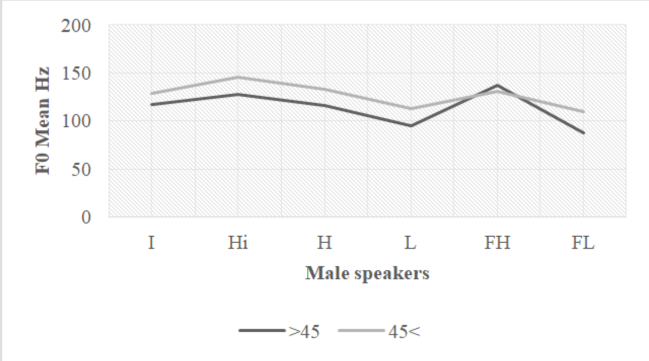


Figure 2 F0 of the Male Speakers (Age Classification)

As shown in Figure 2, male speakers under 45 years of age speak with higher F0 and greater frequency variation; for example, they enhance the final sequence of sentences more than male speakers over 45 years of age. It can also be related to the topic of the conversation and their feelings.

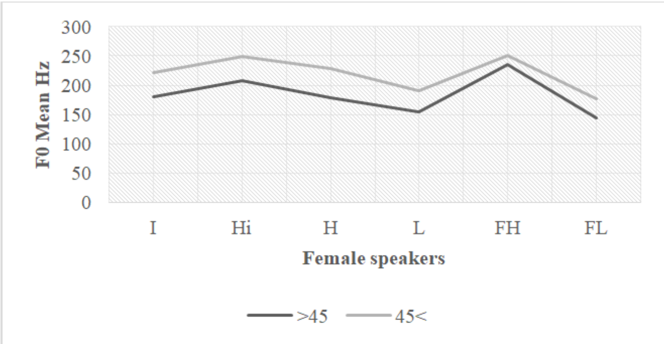


Figure 3 F0 of the Female Speakers (Age Classification)

The results showed that F0 in both men and women decreased with age, but the degree of change was different. Specifically, there is a higher F0 in the speech of speakers under 45 years of age compared to speakers over 45 years old. Also, speakers under 45 tend to raise the final high a bit. In all age groups, including 80-year-olds, F0 tended to decrease markedly with age. The reason for this low F0 by age has been well studied. The decrease in F0 speech may be due to the hormonal changes associated with menopause that lead to vocal cord edema (Kahane, 1983). Edema has been shown to cause an increase in vocal cord mass that contributes to a decrease in F0 in very old individuals (eg, 90 years of age and older) and the change in basal speech frequency is quite significant. (Mueller, 1997). This aspect has also been studied (Pépiot, 2011; Simpson, 2009). They studied two languages English and French by experimental method and obtained similar results.

B. Average Speech Rate

Rate of speech as a suprasegmental feature directly affects the fluency and intelligibility of speech. As analyzed above, scientists have found that speech speed is a complex phenomenon that depends on many different factors such as speech characteristics, living environment, mother tongue, age, gender, education level, and emotions of the speaker. These factors are therefore important for speech-language pathologists to consider when diagnosing and evaluating fluency problems.

Verhoeven et al. (2004) confirmed the traditional view that speech rate is determined by additional linguistic variables, but also suggested that there may be differences in intrinsic tempo between languages. Stepanova (2011) analyzed the Russian speech corpus and found that the average rate was 5.31 syll/s. Jacewiez et al. (2010), Quené (2008) and others scientists have studied speech rate in American English.

In order to compare the speech rate of different languages and to determine if there is a generally accepted average speech rate in each linguistic community, we believe that it is important to determine the speech rate of Mongolian. So, in this study, we determined the average speech rate of Khalkha Mongolian and its change and classified the speakers by age and gender. We show these results in Table 2. In the Khalkha Mongolian, the average rate was 5.36 syll/s for males at 5.37 syll/s and 5.34 syll/s for females.

TABLE 2
THE AVERAGE RATE OF THE SPEECH OF KHALKHA MONGOLIAN

Speech Rate Syll/S	Average	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Average	5.36	4.19	8.22	0.78
Male	5.37	4.19	6.66	0.64
Female	5.34	3.61	8.22	0.88
Young	5.56	4.19	6.65	0.57
Middle Age	5.15	3.62	7.15	0.81
Elder	5.37	4.18	8.22	0.87
Young Male	5.62	4.19	6.65	0.68
Middle-Aged Male	5.33	4.55	6.66	0.63
Elderly Male	5.19	4.36	5.96	0.93
Young Female	5.51	4.47	6.09	0.42
Middle-Aged Female	4.97	3.61	7.15	0.93
Elderly Female	5.55	4.17	8.22	1.002

C. Age, Gender and Utterance Length Effects on Speech Rate

Now, let us refer to Figure 4, which shows how the average speech rate varies by gender.

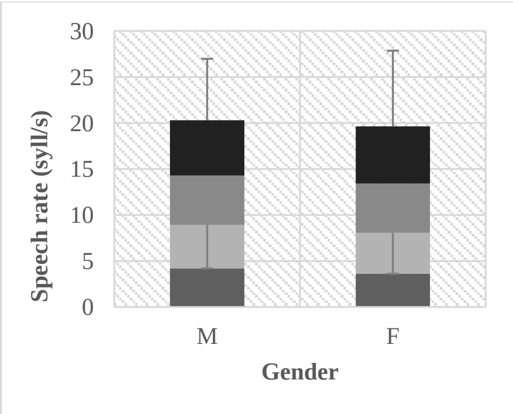


Figure 4 Speech Rate and Gender

According to Figure 4, male speakers speak slightly faster than female speakers. For Mongolian speakers, the average speech rate is 0.02 syll/s. quicker in men than in women. Many researchers have studied the speech rate of the German and Polish languages (Quené, 2008), the English language (Jacewicz et al., 2010), the Russian language (Stepanova, 2011) and the French language (Pépiot, 2011) also suggested that the speech rate of men and women were not much different from each other. But the men speak slightly faster than women, and young people tend to speak faster than older people. They have explained this gender change can be accounted for by factors such as social status and education. For example, Quené (2008) interprets men's faster speech rate as an attempt to demonstrate their social superiority, i.e. according to him, male speakers may express their social dominance by speaking faster than female speakers.

We observed whether speech rate is influenced by age among the 60 speakers, and it was found that the young speakers tend to speak much faster, and the speech rate of middle-aged and elderly speakers was slower. We can see how the speech rate varied depending on the age of the speaker in Figure 5.

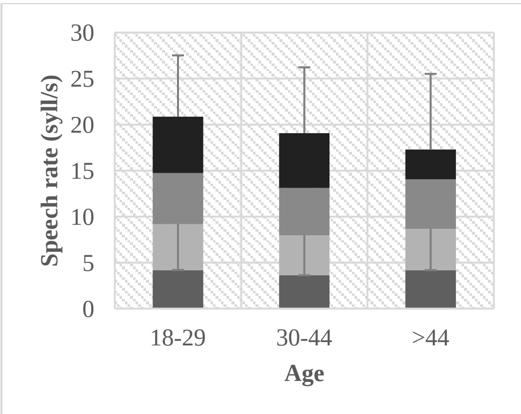


Figure 5 Speech Rate and Age

The results showed that the speech rate of the speakers decreased especially in the over of 30s. When gender and age were taken into account, the young and middle-aged male speakers tend to speak faster than the female speakers. Quené (2008) and Verhoeven et al. (2004) have stated that young adults speak faster than older adults. Voice aging has also been discussed by Smith et al. (1987) and treated more recently by Yuan et al. (2006). According to them, aging affects two main aspects: the anatomy and function of the vocal cords due to muscle and of flexible or soft tissue loss.

With age, the speech rate of the older men became slower than that of the women of the same age. This age- and gender-related variation is explained by the evolution of social status that characterizes in Mongolian society. Because although Mongolian society is patriarchal, Mongolian women have much more freedom and power than women from other patriarchal cultures. Mongolian women, on the other hand, have to endure an important role in the harsh nomadic life. Mongolian women were riding horseback, fighting in battles, tending their herds and influencing their men on important decisions for the Mongolian Empire (Hays, 2008). Still, women are highly valued participants in Mongol society. Despite some negative changes after collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, it continues to play an important role in the family and economic life. The work is divided almost equally between men and women. According to Rossabi (2020), Hays (2008) and Burn and Oidov (2001), women in Mongolia often benefit from government policies that guarantee equality in education, workplace, and political system. Moreover, in the rural areas, women herders are entitled to a pension, a policy unique in Asia. From the perspective of Mongolian women today, the representation of women in Mongolian history and culture reveals many contrasts formed by both the nomadic culture and a feudal social organization. In contrast to neighboring cultures, they do not convey an image of female subordination. Burn and Oidov (2001) stated that women's social status in Mongolia was affirmed through motherhood. Among pastoral families, the social values attached to women's roles in family and motherhood were rooted in the nature of nomadic pastoral societies. They underlined that the age group differences of young women are more pronounced when the different trajectories of young men and women are taken into account. Thus, the variation in the speech rate of females and males with increasing age may be related to less pronounced social status differences between genders in Mongolia. This hypothesis should be further investigated in more detail in cross-language study.

The speech rate of Khalkha Mongolian was also analyzed in relation to the utterance length. Figure 6 shows that when speaking a long utterance, the speech rate increases. It has been observed that both male and female speech rate increases with the number of syllables (i.e., utterance length). The Mongolian men pronounce long sentences at a higher rate than Mongolian women.

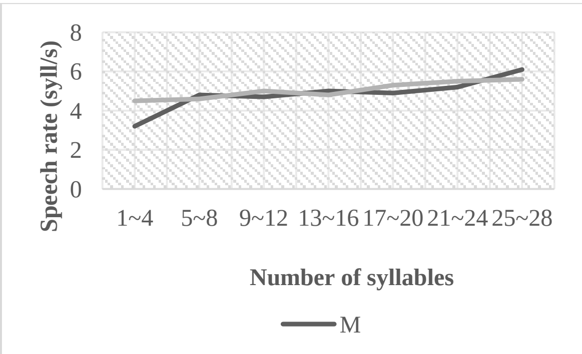


Figure 6 Speech Rate and Utterance Length

IV. Conclusion

When the spontaneous speech of the Khalkha dialect of the Mongolian language was analyzed, the measurement of F0 varied according to age and gender. Our results show that women speak with a higher frequency than males. In addition, as age increases, F0 decreases and becomes lower for both men and women. Older adults have overall a lower frequency formant than younger adults. Furthermore, younger adults women have high F0 and older women have low F0. When a change in F0 is observed, female speakers are more likely to express their feelings and attitudes.

The average speech rate of Khalkha Mongolian is 5.3 syllables per second. Male speakers speak faster than female speakers. With age, both men and women speak more slowly. Interestingly, older male speakers speak more slowly than older female speakers, while young and middle-aged male speakers tend to speak faster than female speakers of the same age. We assume that these deviations are due to the Mongolian people's lifestyle, traditions, and social status. Because young and middle-aged Mongolians usually have a higher social status than older adults, and the social status of young males is stronger than that of females. On the other hand, with age, differences in social status between men and women become less pronounced and in some cases the older women become the main decision makers in family relationship. The speech rate variation related to the age and the gender may depend in part on the language community.

Based on the previously mentioned studies and observations of the literature and our results, we can affirm that the reason for the difference cross-gender and cross-age acoustic features may vary between languages in terms of their linguistic, social, and cultural characteristics. To confirm such results, we must take into account that such further investigation would be based on number of studies conducted by different authors, across different language communities and using different methods.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are thankful to the National University of Mongolia and the Academy of Sciences of Mongolia. This work was supported by a grant from the National University of Mongolia.

REFERENCES

[1] Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Elements of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
[2] Batdorj, Ts. (2014). *An Acoustic Studies of Sounds of the Khalkha Mongolian* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). National University of Inner Mongolia Press.
[3] Batzaya, G. (2007). *A Comparison of Dialects of the Mongolian Language* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). National University of Education of Mongolia Press.
[4] Beckman, Marie. E. & Venditti, Jennifer. J. (2010). Tone and intonation. In William G. Hardcastle, John Laver & Fiona E. Gibbon (Eds.), *The Handbook of Phonetic Sciences*, (2nd ed.). New Jersey: John Wiley & Son.
[5] Bulgantamir, S. (2016). *Comparative study on vowel sounds of modern Mongolian and French languages using experimental phonetic method* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). National University of Mongolia Press.
[6] Burn, N. & Oidov, O. (2001). *Women in Mongolia*. Retrieved March 23, 2021, from https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/46cadabb0.pdf
[7] Byrd, D. (1994). Relations of sex and dialect to reduction. *Speech Communication, 15*(1–2), 39-54. Retrieved December 4, 2021, from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/0167639394900396
[8] Cynthia Clopper G. & Rajka S. (2011). Effects of gender and regional dialect on prosodic patterns in American English. *Journal of Phonetics, 39(2),* 237-245. Retrieved October 11, 2021, from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3113495/
[9] Campbell, Nick. (2004). Databases of expressive speech. *Journal of Chinese Language and Computing*, *14*(4), 295-304. Retrieved January 25, 2022, from http://www.speech-data.jp/nick/proceeding/jounal%20of%20chinese%20language.pdf
[10] Chen, Sheng, H. (2005). The effects of tones on speaking frequency and intensity ranges in Mandarin and Min dialects. *Journal of Acoustical Society of America*, *117*(5), 3225-3230. Retrieved February 24, 2022, from https://asa.scitation.org/doi/abs/10.1121/1.1872312
[11] Deutsch, D., Le, Jinghong., Shen, J., Henthorn, Jing Sh. and Trevor. (2009). The pitch levels of female speech in two Chinese villages. *Journal of Acoustical Society of America*, *125*(5), EL208-EL213. Retrieved January 3, 2022, from: http://deutsch.ucsd.edu/pdf/JASA_EL-2009_125.pdf
[12] Docherty, G. & Norma M.-D. (2012). Speaker-related variation - sociophonetic factors. In Cohn, Abigail, C., Fougeron Cécile & Huffman, Marie (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Laboratory Phonology* (pp. 43-60). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[13] Edward, D. Mysak. (1959). Pitch duration characteristics of older males. *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, vol. 2*, 46-54. https://doi.org/10.1044/jshr.0201.46
[14] Foulkes, P. & Docherty, G. J. (2006). The social life of phonetics and phonology. *Journal of Phonetics, 34*(4), 409-438. Retrieved Auguste 23, 2021, from https://scholar.google.com/citations?user=65oqyrwAAAAJ&hl=en
[15] Hays, J. (2008). *Women, Families and Gender Roles in Mongolia: Facts and Details*. Retrieved July 14, 2021, from http://factsanddetails.com/central-asia/Mongolia/sub8_2c/entry-4579.html#chapter-3.
[16] Heffernan, K. M. (2007). *Phonetic Distinctiveness as a Sociolinguistic Variable* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Toronto, Toronto.
[17] Hollien, H. (1987). Old voices: What do we really know about them? *Journal of Voice*, *1,* 2-17. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0892-1997(87)80018-8
[18] Hollien, H., Hollien, P. A. & de Jong, G. (1997). Effects of three parameters on speaking fundamental frequency. *Journal of Acoustical Society of America*, *102*(5), 2984-2992. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.420353
[19] Honjo, I. & Isshiki, N. (1980). Laryngoscopic and voice characteristics of aged persons. *Archives of otolaryngology*, *106*, 149-150. doi:10.1001/archotol.1980.00790270013003
[20] Huhe, H. (2003). *A basic study of Mongolian Prosody*, Helsinki: University Press.
[21] Jacewicz, E., Fox, R. A. & Wei, L. (2010). Between-speaker and within-speaker variation in speech tempo of American English. *Journal of Acoustical Society of America*, *128*(2), 839-850. Retrieved July 21, 2021, from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2933259/
[22] Jun, A. J. (2005). Prosodic typology. In Jun-Ah Jun, (Ed.), *Prosodic Typology: The Phonology of Intonation and Phrasing* (pp. 430-458). Oxford: OUP.
[23] Kahane, J. C. (1983). A survey of age-related changes in the connective tissues of the human adult larynx. In D. M. Bless & J. H. Abbs (Eds.), *Vocal fold physiology: Contemporary research and clinical issues* (pp. 44-49). San Diego: College-Hill.
[24] Karlsson, A. (2014). The intonational phonology of Mongolian. In Sun-Ah Jun (Ed.), *Prosodic typology II: the phonology of intonation and phrasing* (pp. 187-215). Oxford: OUP,
[25] Labov, W. (2001). *Principles of linguistic change: Social factors* (Vol. 2). Oxford: Blackwell.
[26] Laver, J., Trudgill, P. (1979). Phonetic and linguistic markers in speech. In Klaus R. Scherer; Howard Giles (Eds.), *Social Markers in Speech* (pp. 1-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[27] Luvsanvandan, Sh. (1967). *Modern Mongolian language structure* (Vol. 1): *Phone and phoneme*. Ulaanbaatar: National University Press.
[28] Mennen, I., Schaeffler, F. & Docherty, G. (2012). Cross language differences in fundamental frequency range: a comparison of English and German. *Journal of the Acoustic Society of America, 131*(3). Retrieved April 5, 2022, from:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324797081_Crosslanguage_differences_in_fundamental_frequency_range_A_comparison_of_English_and_German
[29] Mueller, Peter, B. (1997). The aging voice. *Seminars in speech and language, 18,* pp. 159-169. https://doi.org 10.1055/s-2008-1064070
[30] Nishio, Masaki, & Niimi, Seiji. (2008). Changes in speaking fundamental frequency characteristics with aging. *Folia Phoniatrica et Logopaedica*, *60*(3), 120-127. Retrieved February 22, 2022, from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/pdf
[31] Patterson, D. J. (2000). *A linguistic Approach to Pitch Range Modelling* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Edinburgh, Edinburg.
[32] Patterson, D. J. & Ladd, Robert D. (1999). Pitch Range Modelling: Linguistic Dimensions of Variation. *Proceedings of the XIVth International Congress of Phonetic Sciences: ICPhS 99*, 1169-1172. San Francisco. Retrieved February 6, 2022, from https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org.
[33] Pépiot, E. (2011). Voix de femmes, voix d'hommes : à propos de l'identification du genre par la voix chez des auditeurs anglophones et francophones. *Scientific Works Philology, 49,* 418-430. https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00763232/
[34] Quené H. (2007). On the Just Noticeable Difference for tempo in speech. *Journal of Phonetics*, *35,* 353-362. Retrieved March 27, 2022, from http://www.let.uu.nl/~Hugo.Quene/personal/onderzoek/q07jasa.pdf
[35] Quené, H. (2008). Multilevel modelling of between-speaker and within-speaker variation in spontaneous speech tempo. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 123*(2), 1104-1113. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2821762
[36] Reubold, U., Harrington, J. & Kleber, Felicitas. (2010). Vocal aging effects on F0 and the first formant: A longitudinal analysis in adult speakers. *Speech communication, 52,* 638-651. https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1016/j.specom.2010.02.012
[37] Rossabi, M. (2020). *Women in Modern Mongolia. Asia Society*. Retrieved February 21, 2022, from https://asiasociety.org/education/women-modern-mongolia.
[38] Sainbilegt, D. (2002). Experimental Phonetic Comparison Analysis of Mongolian and Korean Vowels. *Journal of Korean Language Education, 13*(2), 111-130. Seoul: International Association for Korean Language Education.
[39] Simpson, A. P. (2009). Phonetic differences between male and female speech. *Language and Linguistics Compass (3),* 621-640. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2009.00125.x
[40] Stepanova, S. (2011). Russian Spontaneous speech rate-based on the speech corpus of Russian everyday interaction. *ICPhSXVII*, -1905. Hong Kong. Retrieved March, 248, 2022, from https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org.
[41] Svantesson, J-O., Tsendina, A., Karlsson, A. & Franzen, V. (2005). *The Phonology of Mongolian*. Oxford: OUP.
[42] Smith, B. L., Wasowicz, J. & Preston, J. (1987). Temporal Characteristics of the Speech of Normal Elderly Adults. *Journal of speech and hearing research*, *30*(4), 522-529.
[43] Tsoloo, J. (2010). *Phonetics of Mongolian Language*. Ulaanbaatar: University Press.
[44] Verhoeven, J., De Pauw, Gu. & Kloots, H. (2004). Speech rate in a pluricentric language. A comparison between Dutch in Belgium and in Netherlands. *Language and Speech*, *47*(3), 297-308. https://doi.org/10.1177/00238309040470030401
[45] Whiteside, S. P. (1996). Temporal-based acoustic-phonetic patterns in read speech: Some evidence for speaker sex differences. *Journal of the International Phonetic Association, 26,* pp. 23-40. Retrieved May 12, 2022, from https://www.jstor.org/stable/44526194?seq=1
[46] Yuan, J., Liberman, M. & Cieri, Ch. (2006). *Towards an integrated understanding of speaking rate in conversation.* INTERSPEECH 2006 - ICSLP, Ninth International Conference on Spoken Language Processing, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. Retrieved March 21, 2022, from http://itre.cis.upenn.edu/myl/llog/icslp06_final.pdf

Sainbilegt Dashdorj, professor of Asian Studies Department, National University of Mongolia. She received doctor’s degree in linguistics from Seoul University Korea.

Bulgantamir Sangidkhorloo, associate professor in the European Studies Department, National University of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar. She received doctor’s degree in linguistics from National University of Mongolia.

Uuganbayar Tur, Researcher Communication Network LLC, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 855-866, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.06

Vietnamese Concepts of Love Through Idioms: A Conceptual Metaphor Approach

Dang Nguyen Giang
Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Labour and Social Affairs, Hanoi, Vietnam

***Abstract*—Love (romantic love) is an abstract concept that requires explanation. In addition to the universality of the concept, each nation has their own constructs of love, which can be expressed through idioms. Idioms represent special linguistic units because they contain cultural characteristics and national views. Idioms also reflect the colour and variety of human social activities and thus play an important role in the linguistic ontologisation of love. This paper aims to explore the Vietnamese concepts of love through idioms from a cognitive linguistic perspective. Conceptual metaphor theory (introduced by Lakoff & Johnson, 1980/2003) is a tool that allows the abstract target domain (LOVE) to be understood through more tangible source domains. To collect the data, a hand search of Vietnamese idiom dictionaries was conducted to establish a corpus of 126 entries, from which nine common conceptual metaphors were identified. Results from this study show that Vietnamese people regard LOVE as a predestined fate, in which the beauty of love in conjunction with nostalgia, passion, compatibility and closeness is praised, faithfulness in love is appreciated and revered, and inappropriate relationships and betrayal in love are opposed and condemned.**

***Index Terms*—conceptual metaphors of love, Vietnamese concepts of love, target domains, source domains, idioms of love**

I. Introduction

Love (romantic love) is considered to be one of the most complex human emotions. Indeed, it can neither be understood nor correctly or entirely explained by even the most experienced lovers. The concept of love is a never-ending story related to the experiences of life. It seems that love actually resides in our hearts, where the memories of the soul are kept, and these memories require interpretation. The aim of this article is to elucidate the concept of love and how it is expressed through Vietnamese idioms.

Idioms are special linguistic units that have attracted the attention of a number of linguists. Chau (1981) and Menh (1986) consider idioms to be available linguistic units with stable structures, typical meanings and nominative functions. Dan (1986) observes that an idiom is ‘a fixed group of words having a complete meaning and descriptive value’. He adds that idioms express concepts based on distinct images, which is the reason idioms usually have their own figurative meanings. Hanh (2008, p. 31) states that an idiom is a fixed group of words that is firm in terms of structure, complete and figurative in terms of meaning and widely used in daily communications. The fixed properties of an idiom can be apprehended in two typical features: firstly, the words of an idiom are generally fixed (i.e. the component parts forming an idiom are unvaried in usage); secondly, the fixed characteristic of the structure of an idiom is expressed in the fixed order of the component parts that form the idiom.

Most of the authors studying Vietnamese idioms consider idioms to be fixed linguistic units whose meanings are unpredictable. Although one may know the meaning and syntactic properties of each component of which an idiom is comprised, it is still not possible to grasp the meaning of the idiom. In other words, the meaning of an idiom cannot be derived from the meanings of its constituents.

From a cognitive perspective, Giang (2018) states that most Vietnamese idioms are analysable and their meanings can be at least partly explained through structural components. The formation of idiomatic meanings is generally motivated by external semantic cognition including metaphors, metonymies and conventional knowledge (Gibbs, 1990, 1995). Idiom formation is a natural process involving human perceptions of the surrounding world. Therefore, idioms are regarded as a form of a language that reflects cultural and national mentalities. For this reason, studying idioms about love is one of the best ways to uncover Vietnamese people’s ideas about love.

Trao (2009) and Tien (2012) are two authors who have used conceptual metaphors to explain idiomatic meanings in English and Vietnamese. They examined emotion idioms related to HAPPINESS, SADNESS, ANGER, DISGUST, FEAR and DESIRE, from which several conceptual metaphor models are derived such as HAPPINESS IS INSANITY, SADNESS IS PAIN, ANGER IS FIRE, DISGUST IS DISLIKE OF FOOD, FEAR IS PHYSICAL WEAKNESS and so on. Giang (2020) regards conceptual metaphors to be a tool for analysing idiomatic sense. He explains how strict conceptual metaphors are applied to the semantic description and analysis of idioms. To this end, the present research focuses on the role of conceptual metaphors representing the basic emotional concepts to which love belongs. Here the studies by Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 2003) and Kövecses (2010) should be mentioned. These authors provide some common conceptual metaphors, hence, the idioms concerning love are classified and elucidated in this study in a corresponding manner.

II. Literature Review

A. Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Conceptual metaphor theory was initiated by Lakoff and Johnson in *Metaphors We Live By* (1980). Since its introduction this theory has flourished, and conceptual metaphor is not seen simply as a decorative device in language but also as a conceptual tool for structuring, reconstructing and even creating reality. This model was confirmed by Gibbs (2006) and Kövecses (2010) when they both recapitulated this theory within their work.

Lakoff and Johnson (2003) do not consider metaphors to simply be an imaginative mode that is poetically expressed or a simple device that uses language in an unusual way with little or no connection to human action and thinking. Rather, they present a ground-breaking view of basic metaphor theory. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), metaphors are constantly present in our daily lives, not only in language but also in thinking and acting. The expansive nature of metaphors derives from our common conceptual system, which is basically metaphorical, and the concepts that govern our thinking, not just our intellects, but all our daily functions. These are the concepts that structure what we perceive and even how we relate to others. This means that conceptual systems play a crucial role in defining everyday reality. Thus, it is obvious that the metaphorical nature of the conceptual system, with metaphors constantly present in the way that we think, represents what we experience and what we do every day.

The new metaphorical thinking presented by Lakoff and Johnson has inspired several linguistic researchers, notably Gibbs and Kövecses. Kövecses (2010) argues that conceptual metaphor means understanding an experience domain (usually abstract) in another sense (usually concrete). Indeed, conceptual metaphor is a way of perceiving one concept through another concept. For example, love is an abstract concept which will be perceived by different people in different ways, such as LOVE IS AN OBJECT, LOVE IS A GAME, LOVE IS AN ANIMAL, LOVE IS A JOURNEY, or LOVE IS PAIN. In this case, LOVE is the abstract target domain and OBJECT, GAME, ANIMAL, JOURNEY, and PAIN are source domains which are less abstract and more concrete.

B. Conceptual Metaphors of Love

According to Kövecses (2010), conceptual metaphors and their role in emotion concepts often have specific cultural characteristics. However, the question is whether conceptual metaphors constitute cultural models associated with emotions or whether they only reflect those cultural patterns. Kövecses argues that the feasibility of conceptual metaphors – along with other factors – actually governs how emotional concepts are formulated.

As previously mentioned, a source domain that is easier to understand is used to define more complicated domains in conceptual metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 2003) posit that the concept of LOVE is primarily structured using metaphorical terms. In their research, these two authors provide several conceptual metaphors for love such as LOVE IS A JOURNEY, LOVE IS MADNESS, LOVE IS MAGIC and LOVE IS A GAMBLING GAME.

Kövecses (1990, pp. 144-159) states that container metaphors are central to metaphors of love as well as to understanding any emotion. With regard to emotions, container metaphors work in two ways: either the emotion is the container, LOVE IS A CONTAINER, or the emotion can be contained within the human body, LOVE IS FLUID IN A CONTAINER. Kövecses (2002, 2010) also provides a number of conceptual metaphors for love. The typical examples are LOVE IS CLOSENESS, LOVE IS RAPTURE, LOVE IS A NUTRIENT, LOVE IS FLUID IN A CONTAINER, and LOVE IS A UNITY OF PARTS. On that basis, some conceptual metaphors can be devised to expand the domains they utilise. For example, HAPPINESS IS LIGHT becomes LOVE IS LIGHT; EMOTION IS HEAT is altered to LOVE IS A SOURCE OF WARMTH, whereas RELATIONSHIPS ARE PLANTS becomes LOVE IS A PLANT.

Conceptual metaphors of love in the present study are mainly based on the models suggested by Lakoff and Johnson and Kövecses. However, the investigation and classification of conceptual metaphors are concretised according to groups to highlight Vietnamese concepts of love through idioms.

C. Idiomatic Meanings and Conceptual Metaphors

Subsuming several possible idioms under the same conceptual metaphor is an important step in idiomatic analysis. Doing so enables the expansion of the explanatory basis. For example, Vietnamese idioms such as *trên chín tầng mây* 'on nine layers of cloud' [feel so happy and excited], *nhảy cẫng lên* 'jump up' [jump up for joy], *nhảy chân sáo* 'leap leg mynah' [feel so happy and leap], which all belong to the conceptual metaphor HAPPY IS UP, are analysed separately in the framework of traditional lexicology because of their different status in the taxonomy of lexical units. The cognitive approach allows us to surmount these taxonomic differences and analyse related lexical units from a perspective of semantics and pragmatics, ignoring the boundaries between taxonomic classes (Dobrovol'skij & Piirainen, 2006). Several conceptual metaphor models to which many idioms belong are presented in the following.

SAD IS DOWN: *rũ như tàu lá chuối* 'droop like a leaf banana' [become droopy because of sadness], *tiu nghỉu như chó cúp đuôi* 'crest-fallen like a dog droops its tail' [become droopy because of sadness] and *hoa sầu liễu rủ* 'flower sorrowful willow hang down' [be crippled by sadness].

SADNESS IS PAIN: *đau như cắt* 'painful like a cut' [experience intense sadness], *đau như xát muối* 'painful like rubbing with salt' [experience intense sadness], *xé ruột xé gan* 'rend intestine rend liver' [experience intense sadness] and *đứt ruột đứt gan* 'ruptured intestine ruptured liver' [experience intense sadness].

SADNESS IS AN ANIMAL THAT HAS PAIN: *tâng hẩng như chó bị mất dái* 'struck with grief like a dog lost its testicle' [be struck with grief], *đứt ruột tằm tơ* 'silkworm intestinal rupture' [experience intense sadness], *tiu nghỉu như mèo cụt tai* 'struck with grief like cat with cut ears' [be struck with grief].

A HAPPY PERSON IS AN ANIMAL THAT LIVES WELL: *cá rô gặp mưa rào* 'anabas met with showers' [feel extremely happy], *gà sổng chuồng* 'chicken released from a cage' [feel free and happy], *như chim sổ lồng* 'like birds released from a cage' [feel free and happy], and *như cá gặp nước* 'like a fish that meets water' [feel comfortable and happy].

Groups of idioms like these provide a good foundation for semantic analysis. From this point of view, the idea of conceptual metaphor as a cognitive foundation for idioms is an efficient instrument of analysis. However, it is evident that idioms based on the same conceptual metaphor often reveal semantic differences that cannot be explained on the basis of rather abstract metaphoric models. For example, the two idioms *chạm phải gai* 'accidentally touch thorn' [grow angry when self-esteem is affected] and *đóng cửa đi ăn mày* 'close the door and go begging' [pretend to be poor to ask for help] activate the same two conceptual metaphors at the same time, namely MIND IS A CONTAINER and IDEAS ARE PHYSICAL ENTITIES, so an explanation for the above differences in meaning has to be sought in another domain. Evidently, these differences are caused by mental images corresponding to the idioms under consideration (Dobrovol'skij & Piirainen, 2006). *Chạm phải gai* invokes the image of an unwanted and unintentional action, while *đóng cửa đi ăn mày* refers to an image associated with an individual's wishes and intentional action. Hence, the explanatory power of metaphoric models increases if the corresponding source domain is oriented towards a basic level of classification rather than being modelled in abstract terms such as CONTAINER or PHYSICAL ENTITIES (Dobrovol'skij & Piirainen, 2006). For the description of the semantic properties of idioms inherited from the visual structure, the basic conceptual level, where rich mental images are found, is more important than the high-level meaning, which is consistent with the relevant generalisation (Dobrovol'skij, 2000).

The discussion above shows that it is not possible to fully describe all idioms using only conceptual metaphors. The reason for this is that conceptual metaphors have not been developed with the aim of analysing the unusual semantic and pragmatic features of idioms. However, emotion idioms including idioms of love are associated with common cognitive mechanisms that govern people's emotions, and conceptual metaphors are still regarded as an efficient tool for analysing this kind of idiom (Giang, 2020).

III. Methodology

A. Research Approach

This is a descriptive study since it seeks an in-depth discussion of the conceptual metaphors of love through Vietnamese idioms. According to Wisker (2001, p. 118), descriptive research aims to learn more about a phenomenon and to capture the phenomenon with detailed information. Often the description is only true for that moment in time, but it still helps us to understand and know more about the phenomenon. In addition, descriptive research attempts to determine, describe or identify what is, that is, descriptive research uses description, classification, measurement and comparison to describe what phenomena are (Wisker, 2001, p. 120). The present study presents the theoretical foundation of idioms in general and idioms for love via the conceptual metaphor approach in particular, which are then illustrated using examples along with explanations and discussion, and reaching conclusions by means of deductive reasoning.

B. Data Collection

The data for this study derives from standard current dictionaries, which are valuable instruments for the scientific research of languages (Anshen & Aronoff, 1999) due to their 'objective and readily verifiable references' (Neumann, 2001, p. 126). These dictionaries were selected for several specific reasons. Firstly, they are quite popular and currently available. Secondly, they cover a large number of idioms that people are likely to encounter in everyday Vietnamese. Finally, the dictionaries satisfy the diachronic perspective because the examples used for illustrations are mostly from literary works, magazines and newspapers. The collected data represents a corpus of 126 idioms for love, which are stored under different conceptual metaphor models in a Word file.

C. Data Analysis

After the data was collected and classified, the conceptual metaphor models to which the idioms for love belong were described and analysed. These conceptual metaphors of love are based on the models suggested by Lakoff and Johnson (2003) and Kövecses (2010). Nine typical conceptual metaphor models were found in the corpus. In each model, comments are illustrated by examples with an explanation and discussion. In this study, the Vietnamese idioms first had to be translated into English. It should also be noted that there are several Vietnamese idioms for which English equivalents could not be found. In order to maintain consistency in translation, the translation strategies used are (i) word-for-word and (ii) paraphrase (Baker, 1992).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study more than 4,000 Vietnamese idioms were investigated, and 126 idioms for love were collected. Within this corpus, thirteen conceptual metaphors of love were identified. However, LOVE IS FOOLISHNESS (e.g. (1) *khôn ba năm dại một giờ* 'wise three years silly one hour' [make mistakes in love]), LOVE IS JEALOUSY (e.g. (2) *ghen bóng ghen gió* 'jealous shape jealous wind' [be jealous in love]), LOVE IS AN EXCHANGE (e.g. (3) *trao xương đổi thịt* 'exchanging bones for meat' [be madly in love with somebody]) and LOVE IS MARRIAGE (e.g. (4) *kết tóc xe tơ* 'plait hairs spin silk' [get married]) are conceptual metaphors that are neither common nor typical, hence, they are not described and analysed in the present study. Table 1 shows the results for Vietnamese idioms classified according to conceptual metaphors of love, consecutively arranged from the largest number of idioms to the least. It can be seen that LOVE IS FAITHFULNESS, LOVE IS A UNITY, LOVE IS AN INAPPROPRIATE RELATIONSHIP, and LOVE IS CLOSENESS are the conceptual metaphors expressed in the largest percentages of idioms (19.05%, 18.25%, 15.08% and 13.50%, respectively). LOVE IS BETRAYAL has the lowest percentage of idioms, at 3.17%. The conceptual metaphors containing the largest number of idioms are detailed in the following sections.

TABLE 1
CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS OF LOVE THROUGH VIETNAMESE IDIOMS

No	Conceptual metaphors of love	Number of idioms	%
1	LOVE IS FAITHFULNESS	24	19.05
2	LOVE IS A UNITY	23	18.25
3	LOVE IS AN INAPPROPRIATE RELATIONSHIP	19	15.08
4	LOVE IS CLOSENESS	17	13.50
5	LOVE IS A PASSION	15	11.90
6	LOVE IS A CHOICE	8	6.36
7	LOVE IS NOSTALGIA	6	4.76
8	LOVE IS FATE	6	4.76
9	LOVE IS BETRAYAL	4	3.17
10	OTHERS	4	3.17
Total		126	100

A. Love Is Faithfulness

Basically, 'faithfulness' means that something is the same before and after. In love, faithfulness is a concept that is not easy to express in words. The value of faithfulness is the greatest measure of true love. There are several idioms in Vietnamese such as (5a) *có thủy có chung* 'have faith have faith' [be faithful in love], (5b) *một lòng một dạ* 'one mind one soul' [be faithful in love], (6) *tình sâu nghĩa nặng* 'deep love intense gratitude' [endless love] and (7) *nát đá vàng phai* 'broken stone and faded gold' [an oath of fidelity in love], which recognise the conclusive role of faithfulness in love. The above idioms also indicate that LOVE is understood in terms of the source domain of FAITHFULNESS, which produces the conceptual metaphor LOVE IS FAITHFULNESS. Faithfulness in love can be expressed in a variety of ways through idioms such as the following:

– A promise or an oath:

(8) a. *hẹn non thề biển*
'promise mountain swear sea'
[an oath of fidelity in love]

b. *thề non hẹn biển*
'swear mountain promise sea'
[an oath of fidelity in love]

– Overcoming the difficulties together:

(9) a. *chia bùi sẻ ngọt*
'share the buttery share the sweet'
[overcome all the difficulties together]

b. *chia ngọt sẻ bùi*
'share the sweet share the buttery'
[overcome all the difficulties together]

c. *đồng cam cộng khổ*
'share difficulties share hardship'
[overcome all the difficulties together]

(10) a. *chung lòng chung sức*
'share mind share strength'
[join forces and rely on one another]

b. *chung lưng chung sức*
'share backs share strength'
[join forces and rely on one another]

c. *chung lưng đấu cật*

'share backs join rattan'
[join forces and rely on one another]
d. *chung lưng đấu sức*
'share backs join strength'
[join forces and rely on one another]
e. *chung lưng góp sức*
'share backs contribute strength'
[join forces and rely on one another]

– Being together forever:

(11) a. *đầu bạc răng long*
'grey hair shaked teeth'
[live happily together forever]
b. *mãn đời trọn kiếp*
'end life whole incarnation'
[live happily together forever]
c. *tóc bạc răng long*
'grey hair shaked teeth'
[live happily together forever]

– Going everywhere together:

(12) *cuối đất cùng trời*
'end of land end of sky'
[go everywhere together]

– Waiting:

(13) *năm đợi mười chờ*
'five years wait ten years wait'
[wait for someone in a faithful way]

When in love, lovers in Vietnamese culture often make a vow to confirm their love and faithfulness. The mountain and the sea are eternal witnesses helping lovers declare their commitment to staying together by agreeing to marry and remain faithful (an oath). Such an act also shows the lovers' efforts to remain in love no matter how difficult life subsequently becomes, as in (8a-b).

The idioms in (9) indicate faithfulness in love through sharing everything. Vietnamese people see their romantic partners as their closest friends with whom they can share or communicate all things, including positive things (e.g. sweetness) and even negative things (e.g. bitterness). Lovers in Vietnamese are expected to give and take. They do not care about how much they gain in a love relationship or about how much they give to their partner as in (9a-c). (10a-e) show that lovers try their best to overcome all difficulties together to cultivate happiness and love.

In traditional Vietnamese culture, love is regarded as an important life event and is expected to last forever. Separation is something that is extremely difficult to accept, resulting in considerable pressure from parents, relatives, neighbours and even friends of the lovers. The long-lasting relationship in (11) is therefore achieved through the active and conscious efforts of the two lovers, which refers to 'lovers' lifetime commitment to each other'. Love lasts a long time as the two lovers move forwards. The relationship between the two lovers in (11) is sustainable until death parts them. The commitment ties the two lovers together and forms the foundation on which the relationship can grow.

Traditionally, a Vietnamese woman who marries follows her husband. It means that wherever the husband goes, the wife is beside him, which is regarded as a sign of her loyalty. (12) indicates that the two lovers are always together wherever they are. In fact, loving each other does not always mean being together. There are many couples who have to love from a distance. However, the person waiting is usually a woman. They wait for their lover or husband in many different circumstances such as when their lover works away from home, when their lover takes part in military service or when their lover goes on a business trip. Waiting in love is also an act of faithfulness, which is shown in (13). Thus, the value of faithfulness in love is mentioned in idioms concerning several aspects of daily life. In addition to sweet words, love requires waiting, sharing and, above all, believing in the faithfulness of both lovers.

B. Love Is a Unity

LOVE is conceptualised as a UNITY. The word 'unity' derives from the Latin word 'unus', meaning 'one' (Kövecses, 2000b), which refers to being in harmony with each other to form a unified whole. Unity in love represents one of the extremely important conditions that lead to sustainable love. In Vietnamese culture, to have lasting love, lovers need to be of compatible ages. In other words, lovers should be around the same age. The idioms in (14) refer to young couples who are of the same age and worthy of each other.

(14) a. *bằng đôi bằng lứa*
'same couple same age'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]
b. *vừa duyên phải lứa*
'fit charm fit age'

[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

c. *vừa đôi phải lứa*
'fit couple fit age'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

d. *vừa lứa phải đôi*
'fit age fit couple'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

e. *vừa lứa xứng đôi*
'fit age fit couple'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

f. *xứng đôi vừa lứa*
'fit couple fit age'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

g. *trai tơ gái lứa*
'boys young girls young'
[boys and girls who are of the same age and positions fall in love with each other]

In addition to unity of age, some Vietnamese idioms also relate to the unity of circumstances, which can be living environments, family backgrounds or educational conditions. (15) *Môn đăng hộ đối* 'family same household same' is an idiom which means 'the similarity of the social background between the bride and bridegroom's families'. Earlier in Vietnamese society, the conditions of the families had to be equal in a marriage. Therefore, the relationships of young people were influenced by family circumstances. It was very difficult or impossible for a person from a poor family to love a person from a rich family and vice versa.

Nonetheless, those who possess the same circumstances and the same fate often find each other and their love is also built on the unity of those situations. The idioms in (16) refer to couples who love each other when both share troubled pasts which make them formidable and rebellious.

(16) a. *gái giang hồ trai tứ chiếng*
'girl gangster boy gangster'
[boys and girls who have troubled pasts love each other]

b. *trai tứ chiếng gái giang hồ*
'boy gangster girl gangster'
[boys and girls who have troubled pasts love each other]

c. *tứ chiếng giang hồ*
'gangster gangster'
[boys and girls who have troubled pasts love each other]

In contrast, a talented boy falls in love with a beautiful girl, which creates perfection in love. This perfection is the result of the unity of talent and beauty. The meanings of the idioms in (17) refer to perfect couples.

(17) a. *giai nhân tài tử*
'the beautiful the talented'
[boys and girls who are good-looking and talented love each other]

b. *tài tử giai nhân*
'the talented the beautiful'
[boys and girls who are good-looking and talented love each other]

c. *trai tài gái sắc*
'the talented the beautiful'
[boys and girls who are good-looking and talented love each other]

d. *trai thanh gái tú*
'the gentle the beautiful'
[boys and girls who are good-looking and talented love each other]

e. *trai thanh gái lịch*
'the gentle the gentle'
[boys and girls who are good-looking and talented love each other]

However, love is not only concerned with unity of age, circumstances, and talent but also of thoughts. More specifically, it is the harmony of lifestyles, viewpoints and even habits and hobbies. Two people who love each other completely understand and sympathise with each other, as shown in (18).

(18) a. *tâm đầu ý hợp*
'minds compatible ideas compatible'
[be completely compatible]

b. *ý hợp tâm đầu*
'ideas compatible minds compatible'
[be completely compatible]

c. *ý hợp tâm đồng*
‘ideas compatible minds same’
[be completely compatible]

C. Love Is an Inappropriate Relationship

Love is a special relationship between two people. However, this relationship is not always good or encouraged. An inappropriate relationship in love is a relationship that disobeys the acceptable customs, the moral values or the provisions of the law. LOVE IS AN INAPPROPRIATE RELATIONSHIP is described by several idioms in different states and levels. The nature of true love is faithfulness. A person falls in love with only one person. When a person flirts or falls in love with two people at the same time, the relationship is called (19) *bắt cá hai tay* ‘catch fish two hands’. (20) *Ăn cơm trước kẻng* ‘eat rice before gong’ is an idiom that can be paraphrased as ‘boys and girls having sex before marriage’. Two people who do not get married but live together as husband and wife are referred to as (21) *già nhân ngãi non vợ chồng* ‘too mistress nearly couple’. An old man who marries a young woman is demonstrated in the meaning of (22) *già chơi chống bỏi* ‘old play paper tambourine’.

Within a marriage, a person (a wife or a husband) conducting an extramarital relationship (adultery) is mentioned in several idioms associated with image components such as *chồng* (husband), *vợ* (wife), *phượng* (phoenix), *mày* (eyebrows), *mắt* (eyes), *trai* (boy), *gái* (girl), *mèo* (cat), *chó* (dog), *gà* (chicken), *chăn* (blanket) and *gối* (pillow). Although the idioms are based on these different images, all of them describe inappropriate relationships, as shown in (23) and (24). These relationships contravene the laws of marriage and are condemned by the whole society.

(23) a. *chồng chung vợ chạ*
‘husband share wife share’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

b. *loan chung phượng chạ*
‘phoenix share phoenix share’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

c. *gian phu dâm phụ*
‘tricky husband lustful wife’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

d. *mèo mả gà đồng*
‘cat wanton dog wanton’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

e. *nhân tình nhân ngãi*
‘human love human faithfulness’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

f. *mèo đàng chó điếm*
‘cat wanton dog wanton’
[engage in extramarital relations with another]

(24) a. *trai trên gái dưới*
‘boy on girl below’
[engage in extramarital sex with another]

b. *mây mưa chăn gối*
‘cloud rain blanket pillow’
[engage in extramarital sex with another]

In fact, there are situations in which both the husband and wife engage in extramarital relationships. In other words, the wife has an affair, and the husband then does the same, or vice versa. This situation is denoted in the idioms in (25).

(25) a. *chồng ăn chả vợ ăn nem*
‘husband eat grilled chopped meat wife eat meat roll’
[both husband and wife engage in extramarital relations with others]

b. *ông ăn chả bà ăn nem*
‘he eat grilled chopped meat she eat meat roll’
[both husband and wife engage in extramarital relations with others]

(26a) *Vợ lẽ con thêm* ‘wife extra children more’ and (26b) *vợ nọ con kia* ‘wife more children extra’ are the idioms that condemn men who have additional wives and children. Naturally, this situation is illegal, however, it still exists in Vietnamese society, whereby a man has only one official wife but one or more unofficial wives. The relationship between the man and his unofficial wives and children is often hidden.

D. Love Is Closeness

Love requires closeness, which refers not only to the physical aspects of love but also the social, emotional, intellectual and spiritual aspects. In other words, closeness is a couple sharing a whole life. Sexual activity, which is one of the ways of showing this closeness, is not directly referred to in Vietnamese idioms. Instead it is referred to in a delicate and gentle way through the images of sharing common objects such as beds, blankets and pillows, as in (27).

(27) a. *chung chăn chung gối*
'share blanket share pillow'
[the intimate activities of a couple]
b. *chùng chiếu chung giường*
'share sedge mat share bed'
[the intimate activities of a couple]
c. *chung gối chung chăn*
'share pillow share blanket'
[the intimate activities of a couple]

(28) *đầu ấp tay gối* 'heads hatch hands pillow' is a Vietnamese idiom that directly describes the intimate activities of a couple. The idiom refers to the close relationship between the husband and the wife.

Closeness in love gradually becomes a habit. Couples grow used to each other's voice, breath, and even smell. In fact, very few people like the breath and smell of others. However, when falling in love, one tends to love everything about the other person. Vietnamese idioms are very subtle in describing this feature of love, as in (29).

(29) a. *bén tiếng quen hơi*
'attach voice used breath'
[become familiar with and attached to another]
b. *quen ăn bén mùi*
'used eat attach smell'
[become familiar with and attached to another]
c. *quen hơi bén tiếng*
'used breath attach voice'
[become familiar with and attached to another]

As mentioned above, love requires closeness, and this is understood as no distance. Distance in love is a significant obstacle that many couples cannot overcome. Indeed, it makes love fade. This situation is expressed by (30) *xa mặt cách lòng* 'far face apart mind', which can be paraphrased as 'out of sight, out of mind'.

E. Love Is a Passion

Passion is considered to be one of love's highest emotional levels. There are several verbs such as *mê* (adore), *say* (infatuate), *chết* (die), and *đắm* (infatuate) which are often used in Vietnamese idioms to express this emotional level, as in (31) and (32).

(31) ***chết*** *mê* ***chết*** *mệt*
'die craze die tiredness'
[fall in love in a passionate way]

(32) a. ***đắm*** *nguyệt* ***say*** *hoa*
'wrecked moon drunk flowers'
[be infatuated with someone]
b. ***mê*** *như ăn phải bùa*
'adore like eat charms'
[be infatuated with someone]
c. ***mê*** *như điếu đổ*
'adore like hookah fall'
[be infatuated with someone]
d. ***say*** *hoa đắm nguyệt*
'drunk flowers wrecked moon'
[be infatuated with someone]
e. ***say*** *như điếu đổ*
'passionate like hookah fall'
[be infatuated with someone]

When two people fall in love with each other, the passion manifests in the desire to be together, and the fact that they are always together, like a pair of chopsticks, a shape and its shadow, or glue and paint, is shown in (33). These pairs are the idiomatic images that show the strong attachment in love. The attachment lasts forever as a truth, and that is the nature of true love.

(33) a. *như đũa có đôi*
'like chopsticks have pair'
[be in love and always together]
b. *như hình với bóng*
'like shape with shadow'
[be in love and always together]
c. *như keo với sơn*
'like glue with paint'

[be in love and always together]

Love appears to generate a special feeling called 'passion'. This passion seems to be free of all restraints. The couple are not governed by will or calculation. People living in love seem to forget everything, even the fact that they are ordinary people. This explains the appearance of (34a) *như điên như dại* 'like mad like silly' and (34b) *như con thiêu thân* 'like a mayfly', which can be paraphrased as 'be crazy about somebody'. Indeed, there are few who are not crazy or foolish when in love. Passion in love is also associated with spells, poison and anaesthetic, which make people senseless, and that state is the exuberance of love.

(35) a. *bùa mê bả dột*
'spell poison'
[fall in love in a passionate way]
b. *bùa mê thuốc lú*
'spell anaesthetic'
[to fall in love in a passionate way]
c. *phải bùa phải bả*
'get spell get poison'
[fall in love in a passionate way]

According to Vietnamese superstition, *bùa/bùa mê*, *bả*, and *thuốc lú*, as in (35a-c), can contain magic powers that bewitch people. It is believed by Vietnamese people that people under the influence of spells will lose their faculties, be misled and out of control. The idioms in (35) show that love in Vietnamese culture is associated with bewitchment. Love wields the magnetism of sexual attraction over another, and the lovers are fascinated with their partners. Love in Vietnamese culture enters one like a magic spell, which evokes a sense of powerlessness in the lovers (Trao, 2009).

F. Love Is a Choice

Choice is also very important in love. If we make the right choice, we will have fulfilling love, but if it is the wrong choice, we will not be satisfied. (36) *Lấy vợ xem tông* 'marry wife see descent' is meant to remind a boy that when he falls in love with a girl, in addition to learning about the girl, he should also learn about the girl's relatives. Then, he should decide whether he wants to continue this romantic relationship or not (marry the girl or not). *Xem* (learn) in (36) is not concerned with whether or not the girl's family is rich, but whether the girl's relatives are disciplined, reliable and faithful. (36) implies that the boy's family needs to know the background of the girl's family, that is, whether or not they are respectable. In addition, it is also necessary to ascertain the pasts of the girl's parents (whether or not they are well brought-up). If all the members of the girl's family are well-behaved, it is great and perfect for a marriage. According to the Vietnamese concept, a girl brought up in a good family will become a good wife. Therefore, the advice here is that one should not rush into marriage but rather take the time to get to know one's future wife.

Conversely, (37) *Lấy chồng kén giống* 'marry husband see descent' simply means that a girl who wants to get married needs to learn whether her future husband's family have been acceptable for generations. It means that all the relatives in the boy's family must be respectable and healthy. The Vietnamese believe that a hero always produces a hero. Naturally, there are exceptions, but most people follow that rule. Therefore, it is necessary to marry a healthy man to have healthy children. For Vietnamese people, choosing a partner is very important because marriage is the most significant job in life. Choosing a life partner seriously and carefully is also to ensure that one will have a happy family in the future.

Vietnamese people are also very practical when choosing a lover or spouse. Choosing people who are local to us will help us have a better understanding of each other. In other words, people living in the same environment will experience similar circumstances and thus understand each other better than those from a different environment. (38) *Trâu ta ăn cỏ đồng ta* 'our buffalo eat our grass field' is an idiom often used to refer to couples coming from the same hometown. Couples from the same hometown are also very convenient in terms of visiting and caring for parents later in life.

As previously mentioned, not all relationship choices are right or appropriate. (39) *đũa mốc (mộc) chòi mâm son* 'chopsticks musty reach tray lacquer' is a typical idiom, which can be paraphrased as 'be presumptuous enough to follow a superior person'. In love, one also needs to know where one is from and who one is to make the right choice of partner. Many people who do not realise their positions fall into the situation of (40) *cao không tới thấp không thông* 'high not reach low not satisfy'. This idiom refers to women finding that there is nobody suitable with whom they can fall in love and marry. This situation renders the women lonely and unmarried.

Many people, especially girls, often set too many criteria for choosing a lover or husband. In reality, no-one meets those criteria, but if they do, the girls increase the criteria, as in (41).

(41) a. *đứng núi này trông núi nọ*
'stand on this mountain look at another mountain'
[to be never satisfied with one's present love]
b. *đứng núi nọ trông núi kia*
'stand on that mountain look at another mountain'
[to be never satisfied with one's present love]

(42) *già kén kẹn hom*
'ripe cocoon stuck bamboo frame'

[the choosy do not often get the best]

(42) indicates that girls or boys who are fastidious usually remain unmarried. This idiom originates from conventional knowledge (Giang, 2018). According to Hanh (2008), *già kén kẹn hom* is an idiom derived from the silkworm feeding trade. The silkworm feeding trade requires a step known as *making wattles for silkworm cocooning.* Hanh (2008, p. 149) describes this step as follows: 'Wattles with standing legs are made of bamboo, but they are sparsely woven to create square boxes with straws set for silkworm cocooning. They are called *né*. Bamboo slats used to weave *né* are *hom.* Adult silkworms are put on *né* where they can find a suitable place to cocoon by themselves'. Examining this description, it becomes evident that a worm that is going to be dead is still spitting out silk. If the cocoons on *né* are large and the density is thick (già kén), they will be stuck in *hom* and very difficult to remove (kẹn hom). This fact is considered to be correlated to a similar fate in love. In this case, the homonymous relationships between *kén* in *kén chọn* and *kén* in *kén tằm*; *hom* in *hom né* and *hom* in *hom hem* are used to interchange the concepts. As a result, the phrase *già kén kẹn hom* is separated from its origins. The story is not about the silkworm feeding trade but a person's fate: The person is so picky that they cannot avoid falling into a slump and worrying. It means that they fall into a deadlock between the values of two choices (the high and the low) and ultimately means they remain alone.

G. Love Is Nostalgia

It cannot be denied that love is always associated with nostalgia. No matter what the stage of love is, when commencing, when in love, when marrying, nostalgia is always perpetual. Nostalgia expressed in Vietnamese idioms is not fierce, but gentle, deep and painful, as in (43).

(43) *niềm thương nỗi nhớ*
'feeling loved feeling missed'
[miss somebody]

Indeed, the Vietnamese, especially in the past, have tended to hide their feelings. It is the reason why idioms concerning nostalgia in love are also discreet and timid. The idioms in (44) have different forms that can all be paraphrased as 'fall in love with someone secretly'.

(44) a. *thầm yêu trộm nhớ*
'secretly love secretly miss'
[fall in love with someone secretly]

b. *yêu trộm nhớ thầm*
'love secretly miss secretly'
[fall in love with someone secretly]

c. *yêu thầm nhớ trộm*
'love secretly miss secretly'
[fall in love with someone secretly]

d. *yêu thầm nhớ vụng*
'love secretly miss secretly'
[fall in love with someone secretly]

e. *yêu vụng nhớ thầm*
'love secretly miss secretly'
[fall in love with someone secretly]

The components of the idioms such as *thầm* (silently), *trộm* (secretly) and *vụng* (furtively) represent the concealment of love, which is nostalgia. This hiding of nostalgia in love can be due to the prohibition by the lovers' parents and relatives, or even the objections of the society in which the couples live.

Love does not always develop from both sides. When love develops from only one side, we call it 'unilateral love' or 'one-sided love'. (44a-e) show that when someone declares their love to the other but it is not accepted, they have to hide their nostalgia. The above idioms also present the situation of someone who is already in love, but for some reason (being afraid of not being accepted, a fear of rejection) does not dare to confess their love and keeps their nostalgia in their heart. Their love is a secret that no-one else knows.

H. Love Is Fate

Fate is an abstract concept originating from the Chinese language. This category refers to the invisible connections between people and the possibilities and opportunities they have to meet naturally. According to the Vietnamese concepts, fate is determined by heaven. If there is no predestined affinity, how is it possible for people to meet each other and become a part of each other's lives? In life, we may meet many people, but the number of people who can become friends or couples must be due to the predestined relationships from their previous lives. When two people who are strangers meet, then fall in love and become a couple, they must be meant for each other, as in (45).

(45) a. *phải duyên phải kiếp*
'meet charms meet incarnation'
[meet, get along and fall in love]

b. *phải duyên phải số*
'meet charms meet fate'

[meet, get along and fall in love]

In love, fate brings two people from two strange places together to harmonise their heartbeats and share love and longing. The idioms in (46) and (47) praise the beauty and harmony in love through the images of *duyên* (charm), *phận* (destiny) and *chỉ hồng* (pink thread).

(46) *duyên ưa phận đẹp*
‘charms fit condition nice’
[a highly compatible couple]

(47) a. *duyên thắm chỉ hồng*
‘charms carmine thread pink’
[a highly compatible couple]
b. *xe duyên chỉ thắm*
‘join charms thread carmine’
[a highly compatible couple]

I. Love Is Betrayal

LOVE IS BETRAYAL is a conceptual metaphor that sounds absurd but makes perfect sense in the situation when two people are in love and one of them finds a new partner, thereby betraying their current love. In order to have a new love in whom they are more interested, one partner must betray their other half. LOVE IS BETRAYAL expresses this aspect through idioms.

In Vietnamese idioms, the former lover is often associated with *điều cũ* (old thing), *bát đàn* (platter), *đèn* (lamp), and the new lover often with *điều mới* (new thing), *bát sứ* (porcelain bowl) and *trăng* (moon). These images in (48) create contrasting pairs of values: old – new; platters – porcelain bowls; lamp – moon. Indeed, ‘new’ is usually more interesting and more attractive than ‘old’. The porcelain bowl is a bowl made of white clay, glazed, light and elegant, while the platter is a bowl made of coarse porcelain and is not as good as the porcelain bowl. The moon is also higher and brighter than the lamp.

(48) a. *có mới nới cũ*
‘have new leave old’
[betray one’s lover to follow someone new]
b. *có bát sứ tình phụ bát đàn*
‘have porcelain bowl leave platter’
[betray one’s lover to follow someone new]
c. *có trăng phụ đèn*
‘have moon leave light’
[betray one’s lover to follow someone new]

(49) *tham vàng bỏ ngãi* ‘lust gold leave love’ is an idiom denoting another form of betrayal. This idiom refers to those who are greedy for money and thus have unfaithful hearts. *Vàng* (gold) is a precious thing that symbolises money and *ngãi* (love) is love. Vietnamese people use the above idioms to criticise those with materialistic and unfaithful lifestyles.

V. Conclusion

Idioms are special linguistic units that reflect national cultures and perspectives. Therefore, the idiomatic concepts of love in each language are different. The findings of this study reveal that there are nine common and typical conceptual metaphors for love in Vietnamese idioms. Accordingly, the abstract target domain LOVE is explained using nine tangible source domains (LOVE IS FAITHFULNESS, LOVE IS A UNITY, LOVE IS AN INAPPROPRIATE RELATIONSHIP, LOVE IS A PASSION, LOVE IS A CHOICE, LOVE IS CLOSENESS, LOVE IS NOSTALGIA, LOVE IS FATE and LOVE IS BETRAYAL). These idioms indicate that love is fated, that two strangers meeting, falling in love and marrying is a predestined fate. Vietnamese people praise the beauty of love in conjunction with nostalgia, passion, compatibility and closeness. They appreciate and revere faithfulness in love, while opposing and condemning inappropriate relationships and betrayal in love.

References

[1] Anshen, F., & Aronoff, M. (1999). Using dictionaries to study the mental lexicon. *Brain and Language, 68,* 16-26.
[2] Baker, M. (1992). *In other words: A coursebook on translation*. Routledge.
[3] Chau, D. H. (1981). *Từ vựng-ngữ nghĩa tiếng Việt* [Vietnamese lexicology-semantics]. Vietnam Education Publishing House.
[4] Dan, N. D. (1986). Ngữ nghĩa thành ngữ và tục ngữ - sự vận dụng [Semantics of Vietnamese idioms and proverbs – application]. *Journal of Language, 3,* 8-10.
[5] Dobrovol'skij, D. (2000). Contrastive idiom analysis: Russian and German idioms in theory and in the bilingual dictionary. *International Journal of Lexicography, 13*(3), 169-186. https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/13.3.169
[6] Dobrovol'skij, D., & Piirainen, E. (2006). Cultural knowledge of idioms. *International Journal of English Studies, 6*(1), 27-41.
[7] Duc, N. C. (1995). *Bình diện cấu trúc hình thái-ngữ nghĩa của thành ngữ tiếng Việt* [Vietnamese idioms from a formal-semantic

perspective] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Vietnam Institute of Linguistics.
[8] Giang, D. N. (2018). *Idioms in English and Vietnamese*. VNU Publishing House.
[9] Gibbs, R. (1990). Psycholinguistic studies on the conceptual basis of idiomaticity. *Cognitive Linguistics, 1*, 417-451. https://doi.org/10.1515/cogl.1990.1.4.417
[10] Gibbs, R. (1995). Idiomaticity and human cognition. In M. Everaert, E. van der Linden, A. Schenk & R. Schreuder (Eds.), *Idioms: structural and psychological perspectives* (97-116). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[11] Gibbs, R. W. (2006). *Embodiment and cognitive science*. Cambridge University Press.
[12] Gibbs, R. W. & Coulston, H. (2012). *Interpreting Figurative Meaning*. Cambridge University Press.
[13] Hanh, H. V. (2008). *Thành ngữ học tiếng Việt* [Vietnamese idiom studies]. Social Sciences Publishing House.
[14] Kövecses, Z. (1990). *Emotion concepts*. Springer-Verlag.
[15] Kövecses, Z., & Szabo, P. (1996). Idioms: A view from cognitive semantics. *Applied Linguistics*, *17*(3), 326-355. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.3.326
[16] Kövecses, Z. (2000a). The scope of metaphor. In A. Barcelona (Ed.), *Metaphor and metonymy at the crossroads: A cognitive perspective* (pp. 79-92). Mouton de Gruyter.
[17] Kövecses, Z. (2000b). *Metaphor and emotion: Language, culture, and body in human feeling*. Cambridge University Press.
[18] Kövecses, Z. (2000c). The concept of anger: Universal or culture specific? *Psychopathology*, *33*(4), 159-170. https://doi.org/10.1159/000029139
[19] Kövecses, Z. (2002). *Metaphor: A practical introduction*. Oxford University Press.
[20] Kövecses, Z. (2010). *Metaphor: A practical introduction* (2nd Ed). Oxford University Press.
[21] Lan, N. (2003). *Từ điển thành ngữ và tục ngữ Việt Nam* [A dictionary of Vietnamese idioms and proverbs]. Literature Publishing House.
[22] Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. The University of Chicago Press.
[23] Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (2003). *Metaphors we live by* (2nd Ed). The University of Chicago Press.
[24] Langlotz, A. (2006). Occational adnominal idiom modification – A cognitive linguistic approach. *International Journal of English Studies, 6*(1), 85-108.
[25] Luc, N., & Dang, L. V. (2009). *Thành ngữ tiếng Việt* [Vietnamese idioms]. Social Sciences Publishing House.
[26] Menh, N. V. (1986). Vài suy nghĩ góp phần xác định khái niệm thành ngữ tiếng Việt [Some thoughts in contributing to the definition of idioms in Vietnamese]. *Journal of Language, 3*, 12-18.
[27] Minh, T. H. (2007). *Đi tìm điển tích thành ngữ* [Seeking idioms' classic references]. Vietnam News Publishing House.
[28] Neumann, C. (2001). Is metaphor universal? Cross-language evidence from German and Japanese. *Metaphor and Symbol, 16*(1&2), 123-142.
[29] Tien, T, B. (2012). *Nghiên cứu thành ngữ biểu thị tâm lý tình cảm trong tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt từ bình diện ngôn ngữ học tri nhận* [A study of emotion idioms in English and Vietnamese from a perspective of cognitive linguistics] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Vinh University.
[30] Tissari, H. (2008). On the concept of sadness: Looking at words in contexts derived from corpora. In B. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (Ed.), *Corpus linguistics, computer tools, and applications – state of the art* (pp. 291-308). Peter Lang.
[31] Trao, N. V. (2009). *Emotion expressing idioms in English and Vietnamese: A contrastive analysis* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Queensland.
[32] Wisker, G. (2001). *The postgraduate research handbook*. Palgrave.
[33] Y, N. N., Hanh, H. V, Khang, N. V., Thai, L. X., & Thanh, P. X. (1998). *Từ điển giải thích thành ngữ tiếng Việt* [A dictionary of Vietnamese idioms]. Education Publishing House.
[34] Y, N. N. (2002). *Từ điển thành ngữ tiếng Việt phổ thông* [A dictionary of common Vietnamese idioms]. VNU Publishing House.

Dang Nguyen Giang is a lecturer and currently the Deputy Dean of Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Labour and Social Affairs, Hanoi, Vietnam. He received his Bachelor's Degree in English from Thai Nguyen University, his Master's degree in English Linguistics from University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) and his Ph.D. in English Linguistics from Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU-HN). His research interests include Idioms in English and Vietnamese, Contrastive Linguistics and English Language Teaching.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 867-872, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.07

Little Women: Louisa May Alcott's Duality Between the Intentional Lessons and the Unconscious Messages

Hisham Muhamad Ismail*
Faculty of Language Studies, Arab Open University, Bahrain

***Abstract*—Undoubtedly, *Little Women* can be considered one of the most influential literary texts in the history of American literature in general and children's books specifically. This novel has many essential lessons and messages that may affect the development path of any girl. Louisa May Alcott cleverly presents different female characters to shed light on the issues and obstacles women faced during the 19th century in American society. The critics vary in their critical reading and examination of this novel and their understanding of the genuine intentions of Louisa May Alcott. Definitely, the reader can elicit a kind of ambivalence in this novel between the opposing attitudes and decisions Alcott offers in this novel. Throughout the different chapters and various incidents, Alcott clearly explains the suffering of both women and men in the patriarchal society and how both may live restricted life due to society's expectations and imposing limitations.**

***Index Terms*—Little Women, duality, society's restriction, domesticity, patriarchy**

I. Introduction

For more than 150 years, *Little Women* has placed a very significant position in the history of American Literature and American Children's Literature. Louisa May Alcott's novel has received prodigious attention throughout history due to the durability of the issues and themes exposed and examined. Some critics prefer to consider the story a classic, and others prefer to classify it as a girls' book and a semi-autobiographical novel as well. Due to the magnificent depiction of womanhood and the alluring idealization of family life in American society during the mid and late-19th centuries, this novel never seems to go out of style. Throughout history, *Little Women* has achieved great success literary and commercially for different periods and cultures. In addition, various novel adaptations are on the screen and stage. For twenty-first-century critics, *Little Women* cannot be considered a quaint, childish, or imaginative didactic children's book, yet for some reason, this iconic novel keeps its popularity. Parents still offer it to their young daughters and boys safely and enthusiastically. Additionally, many researchers are still profoundly interested in examining and studying this novel to reveal its multiple lessons. The reader can explore new dimensions and issues when reading or discussing this novel.

Initially, Alcott was encouraged (pressured) to write this novel to approach young girls and to balance the influence of William T. Adams' books for boys. She responded reluctantly to these pressures from the publishers and wrote the novel to achieve popularity and fame in this field. Many critics consider both writers, Alcott and Adams, as the pioneers of the rise of gender-specific series books (Wadsworth, 2001, p. 18). Talking about this pressure is essential in examining Alcott's style in this novel compared to her style in other novels. The readers can quickly notice the significant difference between her style in *Little Women* and her style in other novels like *Behind A Mask* and *Pauline's Passion and Punishment*. Alcott showed many dualities in *Little Women*. The principal theme of this novel was to examine and challenge the traditional gender roles of 19th-century American society. From the beginning, Alcott wanted to clarify that women were not born to marry and serve their husbands. However, Alcott's duality between the intentional lessons and unconscious messages is evident and existent on every page of the novel. This confusion and contradicting emotions appeared in the characterization and depiction of the female characters, extending to the themes and messages she wanted to convey and moving to the critics' reactions towards the novel.

In *Little Women*, Alcott offers different types of female characters. The reader can find the strong, independent, tomboyish, and ambitious Jo. Also, there is the ladylike and feminine Meg, the struggling artist and spoiled Amy, and the shy and withdrawn sister, Beth. On the other hand, there is an apparent reference and focus on the traditional and stereotypical strong mother, Marmee. In addition, this duality is exited clearly in exposing the sufferings of women and idealizing the world of manhood. She starts by focusing on the obstacles women faced to achieve themselves in a male-dominated society like the 19th-century American society, then shed light on Laurie's suffering. Alcott fails to overcome this ambivalence by giving a clear vision and perspective standing on one side. Her final scenes prove her willingness to conform to society's predominant limitations.

* Corresponding Author. Email: hisham.eltahawy@aou.org.bh

Immediately after publishing *Little Women*, critics disagreed on interpreting the novel and examining the issues raised. The readers and critics are also interested in more details about Alcott's personal life and family history. So, from the 1970s onward, the novel attracted the attention of feminist critics to examine the text and the context. With this new dimension of studying the novel, many issues and internal conflicts start to float up on the surface, and the critics begin to talk about an evident ambivalence in writing this novel. For instance, Judith Fetterley points out that the novel is about routing adolescence to become graceful little women. However, the story itself pushes back against that frame, and "the imaginative experience of *Little Women* is built on a paradox: the figure who most resists the pressure to become a little woman is the most attractive and the figure who most succumbs to die" (Fetterley, 1979, p. 379). Based on the above mentioned points, the paper will try to reconsider the main areas of Alcott's duality and examine her ambivalent attitudes. So, the following discussion will be a critical reading of Alcott's depiction of womanhood in American society during the 19th century and how they suffered to achieve themselves in the work sphere. Furthermore, the discussion will examine Alcott's style in exposing the manhood world in this novel. Finally, the discussion will tackle the topic of marriage and how the female characters dealt with this topic in the context of a patriarchal society like the 19th-century American context.

Little Women, which was written between 1868-1869 by the American activist and feminist writer Louisa May Alcott is a story that revolves around a family of four daughters and the mother with the continued absence of the father, who was serving as a soldier in the American Civil War. It was written after the Civil War in response to a publisher's pressure for a novel that could appeal to young female readers, and it appeared initially in two books. The first half of the book is loosely based on Louisa May Alcott's own life; in fact, it is semi-autobiographical and reflects her experiences with her sisters in New England. After it was published, readers started to write to Alcott and her publishers, asking for more details about the girls' love lives. Most readers wanted to know whom each sister married – especially whether Jo married Laurie. It is worth noting that Alcott herself remained unmarried all her life, so, to write the development, she had to depart from autobiography and write straight-up fiction. Without her own life experiences, the novel's second part may feel less realistic. Part of the fascination with the novel is its treatment of gender roles, which balances tradition and gender distinction with more forward-thinking, proto-feminist attitudes.

Little Women is a perfect reference to explain and clarify the true meaning of the concept of duality in literature. Apparently, it is a book that tries to challenge gender stereotypes, but surprisingly moves to enhance them in many incidents in the novel. The book is full of examples of women who are not independent, and during the novel, they cannot achieve any kind of independence from male authority. So, critics consider the novel a feminist book on the surface, but sincerely it offers the opposite. The four daughters and the mother maintain a female-dominated world in which men come in second place. From the first look, the reader can feel that Alcott wants to provide strong examples of women who can move in life and achieve their dreams independently of male dominance. Ironically, throughout the different parts of the novel, the reader discovers that this intentional absence of the father and other male characters in the March sisters' life reveals a great deal of internal conflict and weakness that prevents them from moving smoothly in their social and professional life. Subsequently, Alcott returns to conform to society's context and activates the masculine role in their life to complete the picture and enjoy the happily ever after ending.

II. Superficial (Fake) Satisfaction Versus Hidden Discontent

From the first chapters of the novel, the girls show some degrees of discontent for not having gifts for Christmas, and the following quotation of the conversation among the four sisters clearly states this discontent:

'Christmas will not be Christmas without any presents,' grumbled Jo, lying on the rug.

'It is so dreadful to be poor!' sighed Meg, looking down at her old dress.

'I do not think it is fair for some girls to have plenty of pretty things and other girls nothing at all,' added little Amy, with an injured sniff.

'We have got Father and Mother and each other,' said Beth contentedly from her corner (Alcott, 1993, p. 3).

This initial quotation shows a great deal of discontentment and anxiety, but they do not show that to satisfy their mother and not hurt her. Judith Fetterly points out that Alcott repeatedly sends out the message that girls should be content and satisfied with any conditions they may find themselves in (Fetterley, 1979, p. 372). This situation reflects the contradicting emotions of those young girls between deep discontentment and fake satisfaction. The mother plays an essential role in this feeling, urging her daughters to think of others before themselves.

Additionally, the mother asked them to provide breakfast to their impoverished family in the neighborhood as a Christmas gift. The girls agreed to do that reluctantly. On the other hand, the father, in one of his letters sent during his military service period, exhorted his daughters to "conquer themselves so beautifully that when I come back to them, I may be fonder and prouder than ever of my little women" (Alcott, 1993, p. 14). His message was to urge his daughters to renounce themselves as women and try to achieve themselves away from others' expectations or thinking about them. The four sisters felt ambiguous and unsatisfied between the mother's slogans and the father's tips.

Nevertheless, the reader can understand that Alcott wants to convey a message that the purpose of women in that society is giving to others before giving themselves. In other words, the woman should satisfy others' needs before looking at herself and her needs. Unfortunately, she reinforces this notion by making the sisters comply with the mother's slogans and offering their breakfast to the neighbors.

III. *LITTLE WOMEN*: DIFFERENT FEMALE TYPES AND EVIDENT AMBIEVLENCE

The duality has inadvertently appeared in the most robust female character of the novel, Jo. It is well-known that this character represents Louisa May Alcott herself. She wants to take advantage of being one of the major players in the novel's incidents and reflecting her sufferings and misery clearly but fictionally. Jo or Josephine is considered the most independent of the four sisters. She is presented as stubborn, high-spirited, confident, and tomboyish. She does not like to be called a girl or young lady but to be called a "businessman-girl." Giving this tomboyish character to the most robust female character in the novel is evidence that Alcott uses masculine features as a standard and a benchmark for female independence and strength. The reader can understand that woman's independence should be measured according to the degree of similarity of her personality and behavior to a man's personality and behavior regardless of her mind or her dream and ambitions. In *Little Women,* Alcott utilizes and idealizes her experiences to give power to the young generation of girls and suggests a new context in which women can pursue their careers and support their families without losing their femininity. From the early beginning of the novel, the reader learns that the four sisters and the mother should work hard to support their life, particularly with the intentional absence of the father.

Furthermore, each of the sisters has an artistic talent, but their domestic responsibilities require them to stop thinking about these talents or developing their skills. For example, Meg has an acting talent, but she swiftly wishes to enjoy her domestic dreams, as mentioned: "I should like a lovely house, full of all sorts of luxurious things—nice food, pretty clothes, handsome furniture, pleasant people, and heaps of money. I am to be mistress of it" (Alcott, 1993, p. 202). Meg, the eldest sister in the novel's early beginning, conforms to the patriarchal notion of society. She abandons her professional dreams to give the privilege to the domestic ones. The same thing can be applied clearly to both Beth and Amy. Beth is a timid and withdrawn girl who prefers staying home to going to school. She ends up with death due to her illness. Amy, the spoiled youngest sister, is the most ladylike of the four sisters and the easiest to accept the sisters' concept of marriage and financial dependence.

In the representation of Jo, Louisa May Alcott is presented in this novel as having apparent duality regarding the purpose of writing itself. She is conflicted between her aspiration to be a famous and well-known wealthy writer and her need to support her family and accordingly this conflict impacts her writing style and the topics used in her first stories and other novels. She receives genuine encouragement from her family to pursue her professional dreams and achieve her independence. On the other hand, she meets the harshness of the patriarchal society's expectations in this field. This conflict is obviously reflected in both her personal decisions and her fiction. Throughout the novel, Alcott portrays this conflict between artistic ambitions and domestic duties as a woman. Most of her novels' heroines reflected the torn feeling between self-reliance and social limitations and between the desire for professional development and family responsibilities. Anne E. Boyd pointed out that for Alcott and other female writers, "the central drama of their lives was this struggle to overcome the obstacles of their society's prejudices against women becoming serious artists" (Boyd, 2004, p. 13).

So, the reader can notice the duality of the purpose of writing moves parallelly with many obstacles found on her way from the early steps of her professional career. So, Jo shows persistent courage to manage all challenges because she genuinely desires to fulfill her dreams and support her family. She tries different jobs before submitting her first piece of writing, but she finds "writing as the available career that produced the maximum independence" (Brodhead, 1995, p. 76). At the same time, she works hard to "balance between her genius with the work that paid" (Maibor, 2004, p.108). Clearly, and after the success of *Little Women,* Alcott fluctuates between writing as her professional aspiration and writing to support her family. This fluctuation and inner conflict infiltrate her topics, writing style, and characterization in most of her writings. Later, she could convince herself to write to gain money and be considered part of her responsibility as a dutiful daughter. At this stage, she reaches a balance between her ambitions and her domestic duties. Elizabeth Keyser points out that (Jo) "has learned to subordinate her needs for artistic expression to the needs of her family and to use her talents to support the family" (Keyser, 1982, p. 457).

Accordingly, Alcott presents the four sisters to embody her suffering as a female writer in the male-dominated society during the 19th century. All of them have some artistic talents and skills, but they struggle to balance between developing their skills and pursuing their professional ambitions on the one hand and conforming to society's limitations and their domestic duties on the other hand. The reader learns that Meg and Beth, for example, quickly switch to move with these domestic limitations and renounce their dreams. In contrast to the other two sisters, Jo and Meg have a more independent spirit to achieve their dreams. They want to prove themselves as women outside the stereotypical frame of marriage and other domestic stuff. Ironically, both return to square one and conform to patriarchal dominance. Amy receives the marriage proposal from Laurie with a more enthusiastic spirit to use his family wealth and finds her financial independence through Laurie's support. Jo shocks her readers with her decision to accept the marriage from Professor Bahaer and abandons her writings for the sake of her family. This ending decision may confirm a clear message that a woman could not find her independence away from the family and her husband's support, particularly in a patriarchal society such as the 19th century American society.

IV. ALCOTT'S MALE CHARACTERS: ANOTHER ASPECT OF DUALITY

It is worth noting that most of the critical readings of the novel come from the feminist point of view, focusing on the female characters and their issues. However, the reader can find Alcott's duality clearly embedded in her portrayals of the male characters, starting from the father's absence at the novel's early beginning and the negative portrayal of Laurie. So, the reader can understand that Alcott inadvertently reinforces gender role stereotypes. While the novel intends to challenge these gender roles about women, she unconsciously enhances them, notably when she portrays Laurie, for example, as a not real man as he does not want to conform to society's expectations of true gentlemen to work masculine work. In other words, he must follow the same steps as his grandfather to be a businessman and leave his financially unproductive dreams. Alcott starts her novel by praising and idealizing the manhood world and wishing to be a boy to enjoy her capital time and release herself from the social limitations imposed on women. However, she quickly turns to expose Laurie's suffering in the patriarchal society, similar to her and her sisters' suffering. Like many 19th-century middle-class young men, Laurie's struggle is "the ultimate submission to cultural expectations for young men narrate a typical confrontation with the limitations of gender roles (Parille, 2001, p. 34).

Throughout the novel, Alcott presents Laurie as a subject of what was mentioned by many critics "ethic of submission" (Parille, 2001, p. 34). The readers can understand "submission" as a framework restricting women's lives and forcing them to conform to their society's defined limitations. In other words, they "could not rebel against the conditions of their lives, and they had to stay put and submit" (Freibert, 1987, p. 67). Alcott presents Laurie surrounded by men (his grandfather and his tutor) to compare the surrounding environment of March girls and Laurie. She shows that the masculine environment lacked the emotional support and love found on the other side. So, Laurie's life lacks all kinds of support that are found for her. Again, the reader is shocked by the radical change in Laurie's decision and the conformity to the family and society's expectations to be a proper gentleman when he decides to work with his grandfather. Ironically, this decision is taken after being supported and urged by Amy. Alcott gives the privilege of the upper hand to one of the female characters as if she wants to deny the fake dominance of men at that time.

Another instance of her duality is her dealing with the character of Professor Bhaer. She presents this professor as a gentleman different from her mentality, cultural background, and social level. This portrayal of the professor helps the reader understand why Jo changed her mind and married Bhaer. Elaine Showalter, in her introduction to the novel, points out that Jo's German husband (Bhaer) is presented as "unconfined by American codes of masculinity" (Showalter, 1989, p. xxvii). When Alcott presents Laurie as an American boy, she introduces Bhaer as a true gentleman. Throughout the novel, Bhaer can convince Jo to stop writing sensational books. In addition, the independent and determined Jo changes her mind and decides to give priority to her family and support her husband. Finally, the portrayal of Laurie, Bhaer, and the father gives the reader a clear indication of Alcott's genuine duality and contradicting emotions. One more point, the reader can understand Alcott's manipulation of these male characters to release some of her inner conflicts towards the masculine hegemony and to shed light on the drawbacks of men's minds and attitudes, particularly her family has suffered from the impracticality of her father. So, the inherent contradiction can be considered a part of *Little Women*'s message and reflects the women's position in 19th-century American society compared to the men's position.

V. The Topic of Marriage as a Part of Alcott's Duality

The most prominent part of the novel that reflects Alcott's duality can be the topic of marriage. Alcott defines marriage from a very stereotypical perspective through the words and tips of the mother, Marmee. Marmee wants to teach her daughters to be (little women) and enjoy a happy life with their husbands like all mothers at this age. Towards the novel's end, Marmee rejoices in gathering all daughters along with their husbands and children. She feels satisfied that they found their happiness and identities in their marital life. Between the novel's beginning and the ending scene, the reader finds a great deal of duality in Jo's attitude toward marriage and her decision to marry. Most prominently, the reader should remember that Alcott remained unmarried until the end of her life, and she devoted her life to writing and supporting her ideas. Most modern readers and critics do not accept how Alcott concludes her novel by marrying Professor Bahear. They consider this end as unexpected in comparison to the context of the novel and the ideological background of Alcott herself.

On the other hand, some critics point out that her decision to marry Bhaer is very logical and moves with the sequence of the novel's incidents. She agrees to marry this person (professor Bhaer) while she rejects Laurie's love and marriage proposal at the novel's beginning. With this decision, Alcott puts both Laurie and Bhaer in comparison in front of the readers to justify the decision and give them the criteria for choosing the right husband. Through this decision, Jo wants to compromise between writing and love, between her personal life and professional career. In other words, she wants to clarify that there are no issues at all for the girl to get married, form a house on the one hand, and pursue her dreams and achieve her goals. Jo's choice of Bhaer rather than Laurie asserts her desire to blend love and work together. According to Laurie's wealthy family and social class, Jo thought he could never let her work and pursue her professional goals. This social class believes that women's only eligible work sphere could be inside their house and domestic spheres. In addition, Jo does not have emotions or respect for Laurie's personality, and she does not find him as a man who could attract her attention and embrace her. She finds him as a boy and similar to her in some situations. In other situations, she finds herself better than him but more independent than him. It is worth noting here to refer to Alcott's suffering with her father and his impractical decisions, which affected the entire family. So, when she decides to marry, she selects someone unrelated to her cultural background or affected by the social standards of American society during the 19th century. Professor Bhaer is more educated, older, and better than her. So she decides to choose him and justifies her decision by saying, “little women can only love up, not across or down; they must marry their fathers, not their brothers or sons” (Fetterley, 1979, p. 381).

From the beginning, Alcott introduces the eldest sister, Meg, as the most ladylike and a woman-child. Meg is the first and easiest sister to submit to the domestic sphere and accept the marriage proposal of John Brooke to form her family and support her husband; she abandons all of her dreams and ambitions for the sake of the concept of marriage and to be a housewife. Amy is the second to accept the marriage decision and is waiting to receive any sign from Laurie. She convinces herself that marrying Laurie is based on love, but some critics find that Amy chooses the easiest way to achieve her financial support through Laurie’s wealth. The most independent and tomboyish sister’s marriage decision also shocked the family members and the reader. Jo’s decision to get married has attracted many critical commentaries, particularly from feminist critics; some critics believe that her marriage is an inevitable consequence and submission to the expectations of the patriarchal society. The most ironic stage in this novel comes when Jo leaves everything to give her family the deserved support and care. After Jo’s marriage to Bhaer, Alcott submits to the patriarchal society with all of the restrictions despite her early rejection of such systems. In the end, Alcott’s novel presents what Judith Fetterley calls “the ambivalence .. . of what it means to be a little woman .. .it accurately reflects the position of the woman writer in nineteenth-century America, confronted on all sides by forces pressuring her to compromise her vision” (Fetterley, 1979, p. 382). So, the reader can find the duality and ambiguous messages as an integral part of understanding the novel with all of the background references to Louisa May Alcott’s personal life.

VI. Conclusion

In *Little Women,* Louisa May Alcott examines the traditional gender stereotypes as she understands and experiences them during her time. She manages to some extent, her objective by providing a complicated picture of girls and women. On the other hand, Alcott represents a great deal of duality and internal conflict in portraying these characters to the extent that the critics disagreed about whether the novel “seeks a new version of women’s subjectivity and space or argued for a repressive domesticity” (Parille, 2001, p. 34). Through different themes like love, family, marriage, sacrifice, principles, and ambitions, Alcott depicts women’s suffering in 19th-century American society. Throughout different types and styles of female and male characters, Alcott tackles the impacts of the patriarchal notion on these characters and their journey to achieve or give up their dreams and conform to the standards of this notion. Throughout the various levels of relationships, Alcott sheds light on the male dominance and the restricted social and professional spheres imposed on women at that time and in this society. This novel is full of different types of duality. The reader can experience this ambivalence in some cases as intended and conscious, and in other situations, it can be through unconscious messages and a reflection of the actual internal conflict of Alcott herself.

Undoubtedly, *Little Women*’s themes and contradictions have inspired many academic studies, stage performances, and films. Most of these works often reinterpret the novel to convey the same message or amend one to suit the time and culture of this work. So, many critics consider the effects of this novel as long-lasting effect and consider Louisa May Alcott as a pioneer in the field of girls’ books and digging into the details of 19th-century American society. She has the privilege of drawing a crystal clear picture of the status of women in this society and examining men’s struggles with the standards of the patriarchal notion. Finally, the most significant, this quintessential American girls’ book has impacted children’s literature and women’s literature since its publication during the 19th century.

References

[1] Alcott, L. M. (1993). *Little Women*. Wordsworth Editions Limited.

[2] Brodhead, R. (1993). *Cultures of Letters: Scenes of Reading and Writing in Nineteenth-Century America*. University of Chicago Press.

[3] Boyd, A. (2004). *Writing for Immortality: Women and the Emergence of High Literary Culture in America*. Johns Hopkins University Press.

[4] Fetterley, J. (1979). “Little Women”: Alcott’s Civil War. *Feminist Studies*, *5*(2), 369-383. https://doi.org/10.2307/3177602 (Retrieved on 1 Dec.2023)

[5] Freibert, L. M. (1987). [Review of *The Wide, Wide World*, by S. Warner & J. Tompkins]. *Legacy*, *4*(2), 66–68. http://www.jstor.org/stable/25679004

[6] Keyser, E. L. (1982). Alcott’s portraits of the artist as a little woman. *International Journal of Women’s Studies*, *5*(5), 445–459.

[7] Maibor, C. (2004). *Labor Pains: Emerson, Hawthrone, and Alcott on Work and The Woman Question*. Routledge.

[8] Parille, K. (2001). “Wake up, and be a man”: *Little Women*, Laurie and the Ethic of Submission. *Children’s Literature*, *29*(1), 34-51. https://doi.org/10.1353/chl.0.0794 (Retrieved on 1 Dec.2023)

[9] Showalter, Elaine. (1989). *Introduction to Little Women by Louisa May Alcott*. Viking Penguin Inc.

[10] Wadsworth, S. (2001). Louisa May Alcott, William T. Adams, and the Rise of Gender-Specific Series Books. *The Lion And The Unicorn*, *25*(1), 17-46. https://doi.org/10.1353/uni.2001.0015 (Retrieved on 1 Dec.2023)

Hisham M. Ismail - Assistant Professor of English Literature at Arab Open University – Kingdom of Bahrain and Head of Training, Continuous Education, and Community Service. Dr. Hisham is a Fellow of the Higher Education Academy UK. He has more than 20 years of experience in academia and professional development. Dr. Hisham is working on developing the employability skills of AOU graduates and the technological transformation during the post-pandemic period. His research interests are; ethnic literature, the reflection of campus life in literary texts, the psychological barriers in language acquisition, and educational leadership.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 873-879, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.08

Insults on Donald Trump's Twitter: A Study of Pragmatics

Evert Haryanto Hilman
Postgraduate Program in Linguistics, Universitas Padjadjaran, Indonesia

Dadang Suganda
Universitas Padjadjaran, Indonesia

Nani Damayanti
Universitas Padjadjaran, Indonesia

***Abstract*—As one of the most used social media platforms, twitter has become a powerful tool for a number of purposes, including personal and business promotions as well as social communication. As for the political celebrities, it is considered to be the fastest way to communicate with their fans, friends or even their haters. Donald Trump is the former of 45th President of the United States and also a frequent user of twitter who often posts controversial or false statements. On July 16, 2019, the House of Representatives voted to censure him for "racist comments". Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze the utterances of insults on Donald Trump's Twitter account using descriptive qualitative research method, before and after Trump became the president of the United States and will look at the utterances, forms and references. The insult utterances of Trump's illocutionary speech acts that were found and then to be classified into (1) abusive swearing, (2) swearing, (3) obscenity, focusing on Searle's five classification of speech acts which consist of (1) representatives, (2) directives, (3) commissives, (4) expressives, and (5) declarations.**

***Index Terms*—insults, Donald Trump, twitter, three classifications, speech acts**

I. Introduction

Obscenity is very powerful and has a negative effect on conversation in formal situations and behaves differently than other types of language. Moreover, it is coded differently in the brain, learned differently, then articulated differently, and changed differently over time. As a result, poor language has the unique potential to reveal facts about our language and ourselves that we never imagined (Hamuddin et al., 2022). Furthermore, learning profanity teaches us where language finds its power to shape thoughts and shape the world, how our brains learn language, and how language should develop (Bergen, 2016, pp.1-2).

Many American politicians use profanity or swear words, but not many do so like the 45th President of the United States, Donald Trump. Like previous presidents, they commonly use swear words at their personal advisers and not be covered in the media, but no one uses them as dramatically and as frequently as Trump at many public events. In addition many American politicians have used curse words, but none have used curse words dramatically and repeatedly at public events and few have done so like Donald Trump, as it is well known that past presidents used language disrespectful in private conversations with their advisors or unattended moments recorded on tape, (http://time.com/4978212/donald-trump-cursing-swear-words/#).

Vice President Joe Biden called the Affordable Care Act or Obamacare (Health Insurance Reform) "This is a big fucking deal." heard through the microphone, while George W. Bush, the 43rd President of the United States, called a journalist a "major-league asshole" that was also caught on the microphone. Vice President Dick Cheney once told a Democratic senator "go fuck yourself" as did presidents Richard Nixon (37th) and Lyndon Johnson (36th) who were notoriously rude when talking to their advisers. Lyndon Johnson once said, during a dialogue with his cabinet members, using swear words. "I do know the difference between chicken shit and chicken salad."

John Fitzgerald Kennedy, the 35th President of the United States, has also used swear words, for example, when news broke that the Air Force had spent US$5,000 to equip a delivery room for Jackie Kennedy. "This is obviously a fuck-up," he grumbled to a general over the phone. In the eyes of Harry S. Truman, the 33rd President of the United States, General Douglas MacArthur was a "dumb son of a bitch," and Nixon was "a shifty-eyed goddamned liar."

However, these are events that do not occur in public, while Donald Trump often uses swear words in public, especially in a series of campaigns in his speeches using words, such as "damn" and "hell" and even "shit" and "pussy." In a famous speech in Las Vegas in 2011, he mentioned the word "fuck" repeatedly, such as "Listen you motherfuckers, we're going to tax you 25 percent!" aimed at China (http://time.com/4978212/donald-trump-cursing-swear-words/).

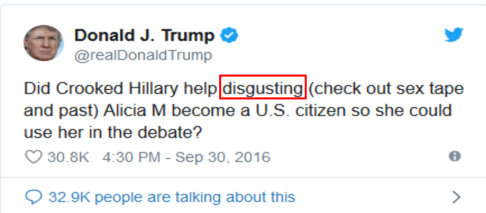
The preceding statement demonstrates the necessity to analyze insult utterances further using a speech act theory stating that language always arises in the form of particular speech acts or behavior, based on real-life experience. As a result, every study of language structure must begin with an examination of speech acts.

Speech acts are psychologically based individual signs whose continuation is governed by the speaker's language ability in coping with specific situations (Recanati, 2004, p. 179; Weda et al., 2021). It is more important to see the meaning or meaning of the actions in the speech in speech acts. In different settings, the phrase “The automobile broke down!” might signify different things. It's possible that the speaker is just expressing the present state of the vehicle, requesting that someone else repair or push it, or even making a complaint (Jaszczolt & Jaszczolt, 2005; Andini, 2021, p. 875). Since humans will frequently be faced with the need to comprehend and use numerous types of speech acts, each of which can be achieved through diverse means, sociolinguistic skills, including a comprehension of speech acts, are vital in communication (Rahman et al., 2019).

According to Zierhofer (2002, p. 1359), speech act is a key term in pragmatics, which can be broadly defined as the use of language in context while takes into account the verbal and nonverbal contributions of the speaker and receiver to the process of negotiating meaning. Furthermore, pragmatic theory should actually provide a clear view of the cognitive mechanisms at play when an utterance is interpreted as a particular type of speech act, and of the linguistic and extralinguistic factors that determine such interpretation (Rahman & Weda, 2018, p. 150). However, most cognitively oriented pragmatic models leave little room for the way speech is given illocutionary power (Wilson & Sperber, 2002; Levinson, 2000; Carston, 2008).

Searle (1999, p. 151) claims the five Classification of Speech Acts which consist of (1) Representatives, (2) Directives, (3) Commissives, (4) Expressives, and (5) Declarations. Representative: the goal is to connect the speaker to something that is happening. For example, this class will contain most of Austin's exposition and many of its decisions (suggest, hypothesize, insist, swear, assert emphatically). Posterior directive: these illocutionary points consist in the fact that they are the speaker's attempt to get the listener to do something. This class contains some Austin behaviors and many Austin exercises. Examples: Commands, Commands, Requests, Invitations, Permissions, Suggestions. Next, commissive: the goal is to get the speaker to commit to some future action. The class contains the commission of Austin except the will, the intention, and the support. Expressive: The illocutionary point of this class is to express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about the state specified in the propositional content. Example: thank you, congratulations, sorry, condolences, regret, welcome. Statement: It is the defining characteristic of this class that the successful performance of each of its members results in a correspondence between propositional content and reality. Examples: resign, dismiss, excommunicate, baptize, appoint, and declare war.

This study is looking at how social practices/habits underpin insults on Donald Trump’s Twitter account, both before and after Trump became president of the United States (US), and what types of Trump illocutionary speech acts from all texts used and explain the meanings and messages contained in Trump's utterances. The following are extracts from Trump’s divisive remarks, made on his personal Twitter account, which frequently employ insult words directed at the opposite sex, like in the following example:

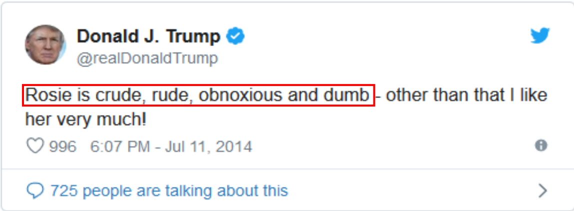


With his ‘disgusting’ remarks to former beauty queen Alicia Machado, and also accusing her of possessing ‘sex tapes of her past’ after the first presidential debates in 2016, there is clearly an element of swearing included in Trump’s Twitter account classified as obscenity with the goal of attacking his political opponent, Hilary Clinton. Trump's treatment of Machado in public at the time drew a lot of attention since his Democratic opponent, Hillary Clinton, regularly brought up Machado's name during presidential debates.

Another example of Trump’s remark in his Twitter account pertaining to the classification of abusive swearing with mental retardation, in which he expresses his opposition to the unification of male and female soldiers in combat units:

Interior Secretary (Leon) Panetta’s announcement in January 2013 allowing women to join the fighting force enraged Trump and his close advisers, not because generals and other officers want unification of male and female soldiers, but because of political coercion from dumb (brainless) politicians.

Trump has mocked O'Donnell over the years, but he has frequently repeated his swear words in interviews and on his personal Twitter account, as in the example below, where Trump cornered O'Donnell with expletives such as rude, brash, obnoxious, and stupid.



The study shows that Trump intentionally utilizes swear words for strategic goals in order to bolster his image as a truth seeker while avoiding being politically incorrect. Observing the events stated above, the writer attempts to uncover the truth and investigate the utterances centered on Trump's speech acts, which include abusive swearing on Donald Trump's Twitter account.

II. Objective of the Research

The researchers divided this research objective into two: 1) the researcher show how the social practices/habits underpin insults on Donald Trump's Twitter account, both before and after Trump became president of the United States (US), and 2) the researcher reveal what types of Trump illocutionary speech acts from all texts used and explain the meanings and messages contained in Trump's utterances.

III. Method

A qualitative descriptive research method that stresses the quality of the entity under study was used to assess the swear words in Donald Trump's Twitter account. There are two types of qualitative research: descriptive and analytical. Denzin and Lincoln (2011, p. 15) describe that qualitative research emphasizes the social construction aspect of reality. The process of qualitative research focuses on revealing the social meaning of a phenomenon built by the research subject. Furthermore, Bogdan and Biklen (1992, p. 74) explain that there are five characteristics of qualitative research methods, that are, (1) qualitative research has a natural setting as the direct data source, and the researcher is the key instrument; and (2) qualitative research is descriptive research. The data collected are more words or pictures than numbers; (3) qualitative research pays more attention to the process than the product. This is due to the way researchers collect and interpret data, settings or relationships between the parts being studied will be much clearer if observed in the process; (4) qualitative research tries to analyze the data inductively: the researchers do not look for data to prove hypotheses that have been prepared before starting the research, but to develop abstractions; and (5) qualitative research focuses on meaning, not just visible behavior. Furthermore, in line with Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Moleong (2000, p. 3) argues that qualitative research can be defined as a research procedure that produces descriptive data in the form of written or spoken words from people who can be observed. Similarly, Miles and Huberman (1992, p. 15) argue that one of the things contained in qualitative research is data that appears in the form of words and not a series of numbers. Furthermore, Corbin and Strauss (2004, p. 4) emphasize that qualitative research methods are types of research whose findings are not obtained through statistical procedures or other forms of calculation.

In this study, data was collected using the observational method or document studies obtained from the internet. In addition, Mahsun (2005, p. 90) discussed the observational technique because the data is gathered through witnessing how people use language. The term "observing" refers not just to the use of language audibly, but also to the use of language in writing. According to Sudaryanto (2015, p. 203), the observing or observational technique is named after Facts are carried out in the form of observation, namely by observing, namely the use of language.

IV. Findings and Discussion

The data were compiled from a tally of Trump's verbal attacks on Twitter from the start of his campaign in 2015 through 2021. The results of the poll revealed the most common order of harsh language used by Trump during those years. The most commonly used swear words on Trump's Twitter are eighteen insult words out of over 3044 top selected insults. The following table shows the classifications of Searl's five speech acts and swearing words along with their examples and the intended target in these insults:

TABLE 1
SEARLE'S FIVE CLASSIFICATIONS AND CLASSIFICATION OF INSULTS

Classification:	Representatives		
Illocutionary Act:	**represent the situation.** For example: claim, hypothesize, describe, state, insist, suggest, assert, or swear that something happened.		
Insult word:	disgusting (80)		
No.	**Example of Utterances**	**Classification**	**Target**
1.	"Rosie O'Donnell is **disgusting**. I mean inside and out. Look at her, she's a farmer..."	Obscenity	RD
2.	They are **disgusting** Fake News!	Abusive swearing	ABC
3.	They are utterly corrupt and **disgusting**. No wonder the media, according to polls, are record low & untrusted. #MAGA	Abusive swearing	M
4.	@PhilipRucker (Mr. Off the Record) and @AshleyRParker of the Washington Post, two vicious and jovial reporters, shouldn't even be allowed into the White House because their reporting is **DISGUSTING** and untrue. Also add LOTS of federal judge appointments this summer!	Abusive swearing	WP
Insult word:	weak (240)		
No.	**Example of Utterances**	**Classification**	**Target**
1.	"She called me snake oil salesman and, you know, coming from Rosie, that's pretty understated, because when you look at her and see the spirit, the spirit is **weak**.	Obscenity	RD
2.	Biden is **weak** on socialism and will betray Columbia. I stand with you!	Abusive swearing	JB
3.	Did you see where Joe Biden — as **Weak**, Tired, and sleepy as he is, …	Swearing	JB
4.	RT @LindseyGrahamSC: The Obama years: ➡ Very weak foreign policy (ISIS, Iran nuclear deal). ➡Slow growth, **weak** economy. ➡A…	Swearing	BO
Insult:	ass (66)		
No.	**Example of Utterances**	**Classification**	**Target**
1.	Mitt Romney never knew how to win. He is a pompous **"ass"** who has been fighting me from the beginning, …	Abusive swearing	MR
2.	"@traapgawddd: @realDonaldTrump kick Obamas **ass** and run for president already."	Abusive swearing	BO
3.	"@cav1301: @realDonaldTrump Kenya Moore is an **ass**!! Hope she is fired FIRST!!!"	Obscenity	KM
Insult word:	loser (158)		
No.	**Example of Utterances**	**Classification**	**Target**
1.	"Cher is somewhat of a **loser**. She's lonely. She's unhappy. She's very miserable."	Obscenity	CS (Cherilyn Sarkisian)
2.	How the failed presidential candidate (1% and fell!) @CoryBooker dared to make false accusations and claims about me while speaking to Judge Barrett. Illegally, he didn't even live in Newark when he was mayor. Guy is a complete **loser**! I want better health care for much less money, always…..	Abusive swearing	CB
3.	Cryin Chuck Schumer, compared to what other senators have brought to their states, very little has been brought to N.Y.A. Totally redundant **losers**, the only thing he gave them was SEL. He didn't even call me to stop him. No wonder Cuomo and most others couldn't stand it. COA!	Abusive swearing	CS
4.	George Conway, often referred to as Mr. Kellyanne Conway by those who knew him, was VERY jealous of his wife's success and angry that with her help I had not gotten the job he so badly wanted. I barely know him, but look, what a **loser** and what a great husband!	Abusive swearing	GC

Classification:	Directives		
Illocutionary Act:	**For getting the *addressee to do something*** For example: ordering, commanding, daring, defying, challenging		
Insult word:	dumb (142)		
No.	**Example of Utterances**	**Classification**	**Target**
1.	The United States spends a lot of money at airports to screen people arriving from West Africa, with uncertain results. STOP THE STEALING, BOOLISH B'S!	Abusive swearing	BO
2.	NO MERCY TO TERRORISTS you **dumb** bastards!	Abusive swearing	T

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Classification:</td><td colspan="2">Commissives</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Illocutionary Act:</td><td colspan="2">For getting the speaker (the one performing the speech act) to do something.
For example: promising, threatening, intending, vowing to do or to refrain from doing something.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Insult words:</td><td colspan="2">dishonest (208)
dumb (142)</td></tr>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Example of Utterances</th><th>Classification</th><th>Target</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>Monday at 17.00 I will announce THE MOST DISHONEST AND CORRUPTION MEDIA AWARD OF THE YEAR.</td><td>Swearing</td><td>M</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>Do you believe that? The Obama administration has agreed to accept illegal immigrants from Australia. Because? I'm going to investigate this stupid case!</td><td>Swearing</td><td>BO</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Classification:</td><td colspan="2">Expressives</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Illocutionary Act:</td><td colspan="2">express the speaker's thoughts about an event that is considered true.
Example: greeting, thank you, regret, sympathy, acceptance, apology</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Insult words:</td><td colspan="2">dishonest (208)
stupid (192)</td></tr>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Example of Utterances</th><th>Classification</th><th>Target</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>Kudos to @ABC News for suspending Brian Ross for his grossly inaccurate and dishonest reporting on the Russian, Russian, Russian witch hunt. More networks and "newspapers" should do the same with their fake news!</td><td>Abusive swearing</td><td>ABC</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>Thank you, the very dishonest Fake News Media is under control!</td><td>Swearing</td><td>NM</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>RT @heatherjones333: Congratulations, sleepy Joe! You just won Stupid Person of 2019 Fools Award! □ Joe Biden: 'We Will All Die' If We Don't Stop...</td><td>Abusive swearing</td><td>JB</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Classification:</td><td colspan="2">Declarations</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Illocutionary Act:</td><td colspan="2">create the conditions associated with it.
For instance. to bless, to dismiss, to baptize, to offer, to judge, to excommunicate.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Insult words:</td><td colspan="2">ugly (50)
overrated (47)
crooked (450)</td></tr>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Example of Utterances</th><th>Classification</th><th>Target</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>"If I was directing 'The View,' I'd fire Rosie O'Donnell. I mean, I'd see her big ugly face, I'd say, 'Rosie, you're fired.'</td><td>Obscenity</td><td>RD</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>The only thing Barack Obama and I could have in common is that we both had the honor of firing Jim Mattis, the world's most overrated general. I asked for his resignation letter and I feel good. His nickname was "Chaos", which I didn't like, and I changed it to "Mad Dog"...</td><td>Abusive swearing</td><td>JM</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>The firing of James Comey would be an exciting day for America. He's a Crooked Policeman......</td><td>Abusive swearing</td><td>JC</td></tr>
</table>

The frequency with which Donald Trump’s insults were used in numerous of his Twitter accounts before they were removed by Twitter is seen in Table 2. This highlights Trump's divisiveness, as he is the only president to utilize social media to malign his opponents by primarily using swear words:

TABLE 2
SEARLE'S FREQUENCY OF INSULTS USED BY TRUMP ON HIS TWITTER

No.	Word	Total Occurrences	Examples
1.	Crooked	450	**Crooked** Hillary Clinton. Shifty is a **crooked** politician!
2.	Corrupt	363	Joe Biden is a **corrupt** politician who only betrayed you for 47 years... RT @GreggJarrett: **Corrupt** Comey conveniently claims he doesn't remember any part of the FBI investigation into Trump-Russia "collusion".
3.	Low	288	Lamestream Media is stuck with him and they are just trying to clean up his act. Notice how all the bad stuff, like his very **low** IQ, is no longer reported? Joe is definitely a **low** IQ person! Lamestream Media is stuck with this and they're just trying to clean up their act. Notice how all the bad stuff, like your very low IQ, isn't flagged anymore? Joe is definitely a **low** IQ person!
4.	Weak	240	Joe Biden is too **weak** to lead this Country! Crazy "Nancy Pelosi, you are a **weak** person. You are a bad leader.
5.	Phony	235	How sad that someone who has made so many mistakes, the corrupt Hillary Clinton, can run a false and vicious ad with her **phony** money! All the **phony** TV commercials against me were bought and paid for by SPECIAL INTEREST GROUPS, bandits who tell their politicians what to do.
6.	dishonest	208	Nancy Pelosi and Adam Schiff were very **dishonest**. CNN is very **dishonest**. Today we took the journalists to the border detention center for families and children and they all told us that…
7.	Stupid	192	It is impossible for the FBI not to recommend the criminal prosecution of Hillary Clinton. What did you do wrong? What Bill did was **stupid**! I don't know if President Obama didn't stop the Ebola flights from hitting West Africa because he was stubborn, **stupid** or didn't care!
8.	ridiculous	177	He was a talentless and **ridiculous** egotistical. "@StreckerJosh: Hillary's love party on CNN was **ridiculous**. I feel sorry for the other contestants...especially the non-criminals."
9.	Loser	158	Totally stupid @CheriJacobus. Ask my people for work. Rejected him twice and he became hostile. Big **loser**, zero credibility! Something needs to be done about stupid @KarlRove - he pushed the Republicans down the same path to win. Make no mistake, Karl is a **loser.**
10.	Dumb	142	Stuart Stevens is a **dumb** who fails at almost everything he touches. Romney's campaign, his books, etc. Why is @andersoncooper wearing it? 11 So when is something big going to happen to James Comey? Caught cold. He is either very **dumb** or one of the worst liars in the history of politics.
11.	Pathetic	126	A weak and **pathetic** Democrat Mayor!!! Juan Williams at @FoxNews is so **pathetic**,
12.	incompetent	122	(Ted) Wheeler is **incompetent**. The **incompetent** Mayor of Washington, D.C.
13.	Poor	108	Crazy "Nancy Pelosi, you are a weak person. You are a **poor** leader. Spitzer and Weiner lost, cheerful Eric Schneiderman will be next: he will be challenged in PRIMARY. You did a very **poor** job!
14.	Dummy	83	If **dummy** Bill Kristol says this is a spoiler for the independent candidacy, goodbye Supreme Court! Isn't it funny that he is now #1 losing money @HuffingtonPost (poll) and by a wide margin? **dummy** @ariannahuff gives it her all!
15.	Dopey	70	**Dopey** @BillKristol, who has lost all credibility with so many stupid statements and choices, said last week on @Morning_Joe that Biden was in. @AC360 You have the worst anti-Trump talking head on your show. **Dopey** writer O'brian knows nothing about me or my fortune. Free!
16.	Moron	37	"@wzpd8z: Mr. Trump, **moron** Chuck Todd, all kinds of YouTube videos showing Muslims celebrating 9/11. I'll put it in your ad. George Will is a political **moron**.
17.	Clueless	25	"@vbonina: @ConserveCast @GeorgeWill, why is Fox even talking to Will? He knows **clueless** and doesn't represent our party." Biden scores and polls fail over his **clueless** H1N1 swine flu handling
18.	hypocrite	20	**Hypocrite!** @HillaryClinton says he needs a 'public and private position' in talks with Wall Street banks. JEB is a hypocrite! Using massive private "eminent domain"

V. CONCLUSIONS

Insults reflect a worldwide phenomenon since they are constantly come across in our daily lives, and the value of 'bad language' and 'swear words' changes with time. However, it is difficult to see a clear distinction between the types offered. For example, there is a slight difference between blasphemy and profanity, although there is still some ambiguity. Profanity tends to secularize something sacred and demonstrate ignorance of God or religion, while blasphemy tends to actively attack a religion and tarnish respect for God. The results of this discussion indicate that there are multiple reasons, causes, and roles for swearing in both genders. The following are some of Trump's most essential reasons, motives, and functions as stated on his Twitter indicating his 1) expression in specific situations, such as fighting and scolding; 2) indication of obscenity that has a negative (in harming others) influence on people; 3) assistance to people in expressing their feelings of impatience, surprise, and grief, that are among psychological reasons for cursing; 4) declaration of himself to alleviate sadness and build an identity using profanity; and 5) conveyance of fury and sadness in a private and interpersonal environment.

REFERENCES

[1] Andini, C. (2021). The Use of Honorifics in English and Buginese with special Reference to Bone Language: A Comparative Study. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology, 6*(7), 873-877.
[2] Beckwith, R.T. (2017). *Donald Trump Keeps Cursing. Here's Why It Might Help Him*. England: TIME.
[3] Bergen, B. K. (2016). *What the F: What swearing reveals about our language, our brains, and ourselves*. Hachette UK.
[4] Bogdan, R., and Biklen., S. (1992). *Qualitative research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods (2nd ed.).* Boston: Ally & Bacon.
[5] Carston, R. (2008). *Thoughts and utterances: The pragmatics of explicit communication*. John Wiley & Sons.
[6] Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2004). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Sage publications.
[7] Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.
[8] Hamuddin, B., Syahdan, S., Rahman, F., Rianita, D., & Derin, T. (2022). Do They Truly Intend to Harm Their Friends? : The Motives Beyond Cyberbullying among University Students. *In Research Anthology on Combating Cyber-Aggression and Online Negativity, 9*(4), 775-788. IGI Global.
[9] Jaszczolt, K. M., & Jaszczolt, K. (2005). *Default semantics: Foundations of a compositional theory of acts of communication*. Oxford Linguistics.
[10] Levinson, S. C. (2000). *Presumptive meanings: The theory of generalized conversational implicature*. MIT press.
[11] Mahsun, M. S. (2005). *Metode penelitian bahasa*. Jakarta: PT Raja Grafindo Persada.
[12] Miles, M. B. & Huberman, M. (1992). *Analisis Data Kualitatif*. Jakarta: Penerbit Universitas Indonesia
[13] Moleong, L. J. (2000). *Metodologi penelitian kualitatif, cet. XI*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
[14] Rahman, F., & Weda, S. (2018). Students' perceptions in appreciating English literary works through critical comment: A case study at Hasanuddin University and Universitas Negeri Makassar. *Asian EFL Journal, 20*(3), 149-172.
[15] Rahman, F., Abbas, A., Hasyim, M. (2019). Facebook Group as Media of Learning Writing in ESP Context: A Case Study at Hasanuddin University. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles, 26*(6.1), 153-167.
[16] Recanati, F. (2004). *Indexicality and context-shift. In Workshop on indexicals, speech acts and logophors.* Cambridge University Press.
[17] Sudaryanto. (2015). *Metode dan Aneka Teknik Analisis Bahasa: Pengantar Penelitian Wahana Kebudayaan Secara Linguis*. Yogyakarta: Duta Wacana University Press.
[18] Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expression and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.
[19] Weda, S., Atmowardoyo, H., Rahman, F., Said, M. M., & Sakti, A. E. F. (2021). Factors affecting students' willingness to communicate in EFL classroom at higher institution in indonesia. *International Journal of Instruction, 14*(2), 719-734.
[20] Wilson, D., & Sperber, D. (2002). *Relevance theory*. Oxford University Press.
[21] Zierhofer, W. (2002). Speech acts and space (s): language pragmatics and the discursive constitution of the social. *Environment and Planning A, 34*(8), 1355-1372.

Evert Haryanto Hilman is a teaching staff of English Literature Study Program at Nasional University, Indonesia. He is currently doing a postgraduate program at Padjadjaran University, Indonesia. His research interests are Translation, Linguistics, and Literature.

Dadang Suganda is a Professor of Linguistics Program at Padjadjaran University, Indonesia. His research interests are Linguistics, Pragmatics, Indonesian Language.

Nani Damayanti is a teaching staff of English Literature Study Program at Padjadjaran University, Indonesia. Her research interests are Linguistics, Pragmatics, Indonesian Language.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 880-890, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.09

An OT Account of Negation in Jordanian Arabic

Ayman Yasin
Princess Sumaya University for Technology, Amman, Jordan

Rasheed Aljarrah
Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan

Hussien Obeidat
Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan

Ekab Al-Shawashreh
Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan

Abstract*—Jordanian Arabic exhibits three forms of negation: preverbal, discontinuous and post-verbal. In this paper, we show how these three forms of negation could be accounted for from an OT perspective. Concisely, our main goal is to find out form-specific ranking(s) of the set of universal constraints that condition negation in this dialect. We argue that negation is tense-dependent in this dialect (viz. different tense forms opt for different constraint rankings). We propose a set of universal constraints that constrain the native speaker's choice of the negation pattern(s) with the verb form. Additionally, we demonstrate how these constraints militate against each other to let only the optimal forms surface with each tense. The paper found that one major difference between negated present and past tense is that NEGFIRST is ranked very low in present verbs but very high in past verbs. Second, *Neg2 and MAX 3µ interact to block future circumflex negation forms in future verbs. Third, the morph-syntactic expression of negation was found to be subject to weight in that the negators are maximally tri-moraic, a condition which explains why long *ma:* cannot be a viable alternative when circumflexing negation either with present or past verbs.

***Index Terms*—Circumflex negation, OT, constraints, Jordanian Arabic, tense**

I. INTRODUCTION

Although scholars are still in disagreement on how to define negation, they would all contend that it is a phenomenon of semantic opposition, whose expression is subtle and complex. Therefore, to negate certain parts of the sentence or negate the entire sentence or clause, you have to mark the structure morphosyntactically, a state of affairs that surely causes the hearer(s) extra mental effort to process. For long, it has been reckoned that negative statements are psychologically more complex and harder to process than affirmative statements. Probably for this, languages adopt different strategies to code negation. Two basic differences are attested crosslinguistically. Whereas one relates to the position of the negative marker, the other relates to the number of the negators in one sentence/clause. When only one negator is used, languages choose to have the negator glued either before the main verb (pre-verbal negation) or after the verb (post-verbal). Languages that use two negators circumfix them (often called discontinuous negation). French is a very good example of the last type:

(1)	Je	**ne**	sais	**pas**
	I	**NEG**	know	**NEG**
		'I don't know.'		

Jespersen (1933) argues that these three types of sentential negation often represent three evolutional stages in the history of many European languages. He points out that pre-verbal sentential negation is often replaced by discontinuous negation which, in turn, develops into post-verbal sentential negation. Accordingly, De Swart (2009) and Lopopolo and Biro (2011) put languages into three categories: Languages such as Italian, Chinese, Russian and Hungarian mark sentential negation pre-verbally. Lombard, Dutch, Turkish, and Japanese, on the other hand, mark sentential negation post-verbally. French employ discontinuous sentential negation[1]. However, De Swart (2009, p. 102) points out, 'We do not find discontinuous negation in many languages, and when we find it … Reasons of economy might explain the rarity of discontinuous negation'. Ouali (2004) points out that certain Berber dialects have discontinuous negation where the preverbal marker *ur* is obligatory, while the post-verbal marker *sha* is optional.

[1] Old English had mainly preverbal negation. There was some time in the Middle English period when discontinuous negation was the most frequent strategy (See Wallage, 2005). As for Welsh, present-day Welsh has primarily post-verbal negation (Willis, 1998).

Like some other languages, Jordanian Arabic (henceforth JA) uses the three forms: preverbal (2a), post-verbal (2b) and discontinuous 'circumfixes' (2c) negation[2]:

(2) a. sam:I m**a:** b-ji-ʕraf ji-ħki faransi
Sami **NEG** ASP-IMPRF-know IMPRF-speak French
b. sam:I b-ji-ʕraf-**iʃ** ji-ħki faransi
Sami ASP-IMPRF-know-**NEG** IMPRF-speak French
c. sam:I **ma** b-ji-ʕraf-**iʃ** ji-ħki faransi
Sami **NEG** ASP-IMPRF-know-**NEG** IMPRF-speak French
'Sami does not know how to speak French.'

Interestingly, whereas preverbal negation is attested with present, past, and future tenses, discontinuous negation is attested with present and past tenses, and post-verbal negation is only attested with present tense verbs.[3] While imperfective (present tense) verbs sanction the three variants of negation, perfective verbs (past tense verbs) allow for preverbal and discontinuous variants (but not the post-verbal form).[4] Compare (2b) above with (3a) below:

(3) a. sam:I **ma** ʕirf-**iʃ**/ **ma**: ʕirf / *ʕirf-**iʃ** ji-ħki faransi
Sami NEG PRF:know-**NEG** IMPRF-speak faransi
'Sami did not know how to speak French.'

Future tense verbs, on the other hand, accept only preverbal negation:

(3) b. sam:I **ma** reħ ji-ʕrif/***ma** reħ-ji-ʕrif**iʃ**/ * reħ ji-ʕrif-**iʃ** ji-ħki faransi
Sami NEG FUT-IMPRF:know-**NEG** IMPRF-speak faransi
'Sami will not know how to speak French.'

This casts doubt on the role of the post-verbal variant *-iʃ*, whether it is a real negator or not. What matters most here is that if the three forms, or at least two of them, can be used interchangeably, then we end up having different negation forms with one semantic function. This means that the phenomenon cannot be accounted for syntactically. The case becomes more complicated when we learn that some other factors (linguistic or otherwise) are at play. For instance, the preverbal negator *ma:* undergoes vowel lengthening when it stands alone but has a short vowel variant when it appears in a circumflex structure (cf. 2a & 2c). Moreover, the post-verbal negator *-ʃ* undergoes vowel lengthening when preceded by a short vowel.

(4) sam:i **ma** b-ji-ʃtar-**i:ʃ** xubiz kul youm
Sami **NEG** ASP-IMPRF-buy-**NEG** bread every day
'Sami does not buy bread daily.'

What adds insult to injury to the phonologist is that in the case of a super-heavy syllable in final position, a vowel may be inserted before the final consonant when using a preverbal negation, but it must be inserted before the final consonant when using post-verbal negation, hence avoiding a super-heavy syllable.

(5) a. ma: ʃuf-**i**t/ ʃuf-t el-ħa:deθ
NEG see:PRF-1S the-accident
b. ma *ʃuf-**i**t-ʃ/ ʃuf-t-**i**ʃ el-ħa:deθ[5]
'I did not see the accident.'

All in all, given the conflicting constraints that condition negation in JA, we adopt an OT approach to account for how the three forms (pre-verbal, post-verbal and discontinuous negation) are sanctioned with the imperfective case, and how only preverbal and discontinuous negations are sanctioned with perfective verbs. We will also show that negation with future-marked verbs is governed by high ranking constraints that are different in terms of ranking from those governing negation with the present and past tenses.

II. Review of Previous Work on Negation in OT Framework

Although negation in different languages has been investigated extensively from different perspectives, it has not as yet been widely studied from a phonological perspective. In this paper, we adopt an optimality-theoretic account of negation (McCarthy & Prince, 1993, 1995, 1999; Prince & Smolensky, 1993) to demonstrate how the phenomenon is tense-dependent in Jordanian Arabic. Concisely, we argue that negation is constrained by counter constraints (though not countervailing) because the guiding thesis in this framework is that information is minimally stored in the native speaker's mental lexicon. In OT terms, this means that although negation is universal, the realizations are language-particular choices. In this section, we will do two things. Firstly, we will provide a quick review of the basic tenets and machinery of OT. Secondly, we will review, along the same lines, the seminal works that have tackled negation in the world languages from this perspective.

[2] Jordanian Arabic here refers to Ammani JA, the dialect spoken in the capital. Unlike the dialects spoken in the north or in the south, Ammani JA is a mix of almost all Jordanian and Palestinian dialects as many Jordanians from a Palestinian origin live in the capital.

[3] Sallakh (2021) has shown that preverbal negation is the most dominant (87%) type in Jordanian Arabic

[4] Imperfective and perfective will be used as equivalent to present and past tenses respectively.

[5] Epenthesis to break up a final CC cluster is totally regular (though optional before a following vowel-initial word. Also totally regular is that CCC sequences can never surface as such, without epenthesis (unless C1 is s or ʃ). In the example in (5) we have CCC#, which is just a special case of CC#, explaining why we have CCiC.

To begin, the guiding basic premise for all previous studies is that OT can capture the relation between form and meaning by positing violable universal constraints whose ranking is language/dialect-specific. De Swart (2004, p. 1) puts it this way: ‘a bi-directional version of OT that calculates the optimal form for a given meaning, and the optimal meaning for a given form on the basis of a ranking of violable constraints’. Accordingly, each occurring (and non-occurring) linguistic structure is evaluated by a set of well-formedness constraints that frequently impose conflicting requirements, so that no structure can satisfy all of these constraints simultaneously. What this means is that the expression of negation in OT terms is, like any other structure, obtained through the interaction of two types of constraints that play both ends against the middle: (i) faithfulness constraints that militate against the loss of the negative marker, and (ii) markedness constraints banning the expression of negation altogether (De Swart, 2004, 2009).

At the practical plane, we argue that since negatives are morphosyntactically more marked, psychologically harder to process and semantically less informative, they are definitely more marked than affirmatives. As such, the following markedness constraint bans the emergence of a negative form:

***Neg:** *Avoid negation in the output*. (De swart, 2004, 2009)

Should this constraint be undominated, no negative structure would ever surface as an optimal form. Therefore, for a negative sentence (or any part of it) to emerge, a faithfulness constraint that preserves elements of the input in the output needs to be called for. Such constraint is formulated along the following lines:

FaithNeg: *Be faithful to negation, i.e. reflect the non-affirmative nature of the input in the output.*

As negation is marked in form and meaning**, FaithNeg** is highly ranked.[6] In other words, in order for negation to be morphologically (and/or syntactically) visible, **FaithNeg** should outrank ***Neg**; hence affirmative forms are not morphologically marked. Quite expectedly, the conflict between ***Neg** and **FaithNeg** is resolved by ranking in terms of juxtaposed strength. In negative statements, we need **FaithNeg** to be higher than ***Neg**, but in affirmative statements we need the ranking to be reversed.

However, since languages may have preverbal and/or post-verbal negation, some additional constraint(s) is/are needed. For example, **NegFirst** is a markedness constraint proposed to condition the position of the negation marker cross linguistically**.**

NegFirst: *Negation is preverbal* (Horn, 1989).[7]

Bensoukas (2012) found that the Northern dialects of Amazigh, called Tarifit, reinforce negation by a post-verbal particle, hence the use of the discontinuous negator [wa ... ʃa]. To account for the Amazigh data, Bensoukas adopted the often-used constraints which militate against deletion, insertion and/or alternation of material that matches input with output forms. He posited such faithfulness constraints along the following lines:

- **M-REAL(NEG)/ MAX-NEG**: *An input negative morpheme has a correspondent in the output (no deletion).*
- **DEP-V**: *An output vowel must have an input correspondent* (No epenthesis).
- **IDENT-V (ID-V)**: *An input vowel has the same features in the output*. (No vowel change).

In his analysis, Bensoukas showed that **MAX-NEG** should outrank both **IDENT-V** and **DEP-V.**

However, for post-verbal and discontinuous negation, both De Swart (2009) and Bensoukas (2012) argued that two other markedness constraints were also high ranking. These were:

***Neg2:** *Two expressions of negation are banned.*

FocusLast: *New information comes last in the sentence.*

For two negation markers to surface, it becomes, the argument goes, imperative that **MAX-Neg** dominate ***Neg2**, and that both **NegFirst** and **FocusLast** outrank the markedness constraint ***Neg**. Besides, the interaction of **NegFirst** and **FocusLast** with the other constraints at play surely guarantees that the negators appear at the edges of the negation domain.

Since ***Neg**: bans any occurrence of SN, **NegFirst** militates against candidates without an SN in pre-verbal position, and **FocusLast** militates against candidates without an SN in post-verbal position, the three types of negation surface when these three markedness constraints interact as follows:

[6] (See https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/negation/).

[7] NegFirst is functionally motivated by communicative efficiency, i.e. ‘by the desire ‘to put the negative word or element as early as possible, so as to leave no doubt in the mind of the hearer as to the purport of what is said’ (Jespersen, 1933, p. 297). It is worth mentioning here that the sentential negation marker can be a word or an affix which cliticizes onto the verb (as French *ne*), and can even be incorporated in the verb or adverb as in *never* which is built out of the incorporation of *ne* into *ever*

TABLE 1
RANKING OF NEGATION CONSTRAINTS

Meaning ¬p	Form	NegFirst	FocusLast	*Neg
	(S) SN V (O)		*	*
	(S) V SN (O)	*		*
☞	(S) SN V SN (O)			**

Thus, in languages with preverbal negation, **NegFirst** is highest, and in languages that do not have preverbal negation **NegFirst** is lowest. By the same token, a language with a highest-ranking **FocusLast** pushes the SN marker towards the end of the sentence. Discontinuous negation, by contrast, satisfies both constraints, but would incur two violations of ***Neg**, which would then be low ranking. In OT terms, discontinuous negation causes both **NegFirst** and **FocusLast** to be higher than ***Neg**. Preverbal or post-verbal negation causes ***Neg** to be 'sandwiched' between **NegFirst** and **FocusLast**. The Typology of the position of the negator is, thus, as follows:

- preverbal negation: {NegFirst, *Neg} >> FocusLast
- discontinuous negation: {NegFirst, FocusLast} >> *Neg
- post-verbal negation: {FocusLast, *Neg} >> NegFirst

(De Swart, 2009, p. 104)

As for the ranking of the constraints mentioned above, De Swart (2009) maintains that *Neg sanctions candidates with fewer sentence negators (henceforth SN), while **NegFirst** and **FocusLast** sanction candidates with SN before and after the verb, respectively. De Swart proposes the following table to demonstrate the ranking of these constraints, and thus obtain each of the three types of negation:

TABLE 2
STAGES OF NEGATION DEVELOPMENT AND THEIR CONSTRAINTS RANKING

Stage 1: pre-verbal	1.1	*Neg ≫ NegFirst ≫ FocusLast
	1.2	NegFirst ≫ *Neg ≫ FocusLast
Stage 2: discontinuous	2.1	NegFirst ≫ FocusLast ≫ *Neg
	2.2	FocusLast ≫ NegFirst ≫ *Neg
Stage 3: post-verbal	3.1	FocusLast ≫ *Neg ≫ NegFirst
	3.2	*Neg ≫ FocusLast ≫ NegFirst

III. METHODOLOGY

Although negation in Jordanian Arabic has been the focus of a number of previous works, it has not been approached from an OT theoretic perspective. The researchers therefore used the data already available in the literature on negation in JA for current research purposes, mainly to be reinterpreted from this theoretical framework. These included:

- Al-Momani's (2011) syntactic study on sentential negation in JA,
- Al-Qassas's (2012) morpho-syntax and pragmatics of negation forms in Levantine Arabic (LA),
- Murphy's (2014) sociolinguistic study on negation in MSA and four Arabic dialects,
- Mrayat's (2015) sociolinguistic study on negation in Urban, Rural and Bedouin areas of Jordan;
- Sallakh's (2021) sociolinguistic study on children's negation in JA.

However, two points are in order here. First, as these studies addressed negation from a syntactic, pragmatic, and/ or sociolinguistic perspective, none of them touched on the phonological differences that are pulled along by the three forms of negation. Second, the data in these studies were found to be insufficient to underpin the phonological changes that negation in general pulls along with it. Therefore, we set ourselves that task to collect supplementary spontaneous data. By focusing mainly on subtle phonological differences, we were able to detect special phonological features triggered by the different negators including, but not limited to, lengthening and shortening of the negative markers, and epenthesis and deletion of material before and after the negators. Consider the following illustrative examples:

(6) a. **ma**-bi-ʃtar-**i:ʃ** (shortening of NEG '**ma**' and lengthening of NEG '**i:ʃ**')
NEG-ASP-buy-NEG
'(He) does not buy.'

b. bi-ʕraf-**ʃ** >>> biʕraf-**iʃ** (epenthesis)
ASP-know-NEG
'(He) does not know.'

c. liʕ**i**b >>> ma liʕb-iʃ (deletion of short front vowel 'i' from the root)

play:PRF NEG-play:PRF-NEG
'(He) does not play.'

IV. An OT Analysis of JA Data

Given the main types of negation and the subsidiary features associated with them, we try in the main body of this paper to propose an OT analysis of the data gathered either from previous research or from the field. However, before embarking on this task, two points are in order here. First, we believe that the constraints already put forward by some researchers (e.g. by Bensoukas, 2012; De Swart, 2004, 2009; Lopopolo & Biro, 2011) cannot account for JA data under current scrutiny. Therefore, some other constraints are suggested, a significant contribution to the literature on the phenomenon. Second, we think that negation pulls along with it other phonological changes (e.g. vowel lengthening and shortening, etc.) that should be accounted for simultaneously, a statement underlying the thesis that language is a coherent whole. The analysis will show how all constraints (whether phonological, lexical, morphological, syntactic, pragmatic, social, etc.) interact to yield the optimal forms(s). In the main body of the paper below, we try to show that negation in JA is tense-constrained because each tense has certain negation forms (though overlapping).

A. Negation in Past Tense

We start our discussion with the past tense because it is, we believe, the closest to the tri-consonantal root, and thus does not incorporate aspectual proclitics.[8] With the past form verbs, negation can take the four following forms:

(7)	a. *preverbal negation with long vowel*	**ma:**	daras	
			NEG	study:3SM:PRF
	b. preverbal negation with short vowel	**ma**	daras	
			NEG	study:3SM:PRF
	c. *circumflex negation with epenthesis*	**ma:**	daras- **iʃ**	
			NEG	study:3SM:PRF-NEG
	d. *circumflex negation without epenthesis*	**ma**	daras-**ʃ**	
			NEG	study:3SM:PRF-NEG

Given the four main negation constraints introduced in section (3) above, we could quite easily suggest that **FaithNeg** and **NegFirst** must dominate ***Neg**; otherwise no negative form is likely to emerge.

- Preverbal negation: {faithNeg, NegFirst} >> *Neg.

What this means is that any candidate form that is not marked for negation is ruled out because it violates **FaithNeg:**[9]

TABLE 3
VIOLATING *FAITHNEG* IN PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning	Candidate	Faith Neg
¬ p **ma:** daras-**ʃ**	daras	*

Second, verbal negation is manifested pre-verbally with the negator *ma(:)* and optionally post-verbally with the negator *-ʃ*. Nominal negation, in contrast, surfaces only pre–nominally with the negator *miʃ.*[10] Therefore, a highly ranked constraint that militates against *miʃ* in verbal constructions is needed:

- * *miʃ/V*: *miʃ* cannot be used as a verbal negator in JA.

Thus, the candidate *miʃ daras* violates **miʃ/V* because *miʃ* is a nominal negator.

TABLE 4
VIOLATING **MIΣ/V* IN PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning	Candidates	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V
¬ p ma: daras-ʃ			
	miʃ daras[11]		*
	daras	*	

Third, recall that our main thesis is that negation in JA is tense dependent. While present tense verbs accept three main negation forms (pre–, post- and circumflex), past tense verbs accept pre- and circumflex, and future-marked verbs only accept preverbal negation. So, we need to account for not having a post-verbal negation, without a preverbal one, in the past tense. To capture this, all we need is to rank **NegFirst** low in the past tense, and hence candidates which have

[8] Arabic is mainly derivational, so Arabic verbs are derived mainly from tri-consonantal roots. Vowels and non-root consonants are infixed in the consonantal roots to form words which follow specific patterns.

[9] For our argument in this section and the following ones, we assume *ma:- -iʃ* as the underlying verbal negation form in JA.

[10] The interesting point here is that, unlike JA, some Egyptian varieties sanction *miʃ* verbally (e.g *miʃ daras* 'has not studied' and *miʃ bijidris* 'is not studying'.

[11] For speakers of Jordanian Arabic, *miʃ daras…* is in fact a grammatical form, especially in questions, where it has a wide-scope sense along the lines of "is it not the case that he studied…?".

only post-verbal negation violate **NegFirst**.

TABLE 5
VIOLATING *NEGFIRST* IN PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning ¬ p **ma:** daras-**ʃ**	Candidates	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V	NegFirst
	daras-ʃ			*
	miʃ daras		*	
	daras	*		

As for circumflex negation in past tense verbs, **NegFirst** and **FocusLast**, can both be satisfied at the expense of violating ***Neg**. However, what is interesting to notice is that postverbal *ʃ* cannot co-occur with long preverbal *ma:*. Rather, it could only be attached post-verbally should the preverbal negation be short (*ma)*. Yasin et al. (under review) found the vowel length of the negator *ma:* to be around 270 msc while *ma* is only 150 msc. The length of the reinforcer post negator -*iʃ* was found to be around 190 msc.[12] What this means is that the length of *ma* and -*iʃ* together equates to the length of *ma:* per se. We could therefore argue that in circumflex negation, *ma:* was shortened for quantity purposes. Put differently, the long variant *ma:* and the post negator -*iʃ* together cause the speaker extra unnecessary effort to execute negation. In terms of mora count, they both weigh two moras each: 2 for *ma: and 2 for* (-*iʃ*), counting last which could be extrametrical. However, with *ma*- -*iʃ* concurrences, we have only three moras (1 for *ma*- and 2 for -*iʃ).* In OT, we can put forward a constraint that militates against extra heavy negation. We dub this constraint as MAX 3µ

- **MAX 3µ: verbal negation cannot weigh more than 3 moras.**

What this constraint does is rule out all *ma:*- -*ʃ* configurations**.** Consider Table 4 below for demonstration**.**

TABLE 6
VIOLATING *MAX M* IN PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning ¬ p ma: daras-ʃ	Candidates	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V	NegFirst	MAX 3µ
	ma: daras-iʃ				*
	daras-iʃ			*	
	miʃ daras		*		
	daras	*			

In addition to the candidates in the previous tables, three more candidates, namely *la daras*, *ma: danras*, and *ma: dras,* violate the faithfulness constraints of IDENT (no feature alteration), DEP (no epenthesis) and MAX (no deletion), respectively. Adding these three candidates to Table 6 above, we get (7) below.

TABLE 7
VIOLATING *FAITHFULNESS CONSTRAINTS* IN PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning ¬ p **ma:** daras-**ʃ**	Candidates	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V	NegFirst	MAX 3µ	IDENT	DEP	MAX
	ma: dras							*
	ma: danras						*	
	la daras					*		
	ma: daras-iʃ				*			
	daras-iʃ			*				
	miʃ daras		*					
	daras	*						

As negation pulls along with it vowel lengthening/shortening (*ma* or *ma:* alternation), we need to decide in advance upon the input form. The question that arises immediately is this: which is the input form for preverbal negation *ma* or *ma:*? Although this requires extensive investigation on its own right, we are tempted to believe for brevity reasons that *ma:* (the long form) is present in the input representation. Following Aljarrah (2002), we argue that Arabic is one of the languages which respect word weight represented by mora count. As the negator is a prosodic word that is orthographically independent,[13] it should weigh at least two moras. This means that *ma* cannot be prosodically independent since it weighs only one mora, but *ma:* can as it weighs two moras. In terms of constraint satisfaction/violation, the preverbal Neg *ma:* satisfies IDENT, while *ma* violates the minimality requirement on word size imposed by LEX=PROS constraint.

- LEX=PROS: a lexical word must be a prosodic word that cannot weigh less than two moras.

LEX=pros is satisfied in *ma: daras* because *ma:* is bimoraic. LEX=PROS is also satisfied in *madaras*, *madaras-iʃ,* and

[12] Al-Qassas (2012) considers the post-verbal negator -*ʃ* as a reinforcer as it cannot stand on its own with past and future tenses.

[13] Had the word been represented in the orthography as part of the word by being prefixed to it, the minimality requirement would then have been totally irrelevant.

madaras-ʃ because *ma* is not a lexical word as it becomes a prefix attached to the verb. LEX=PROS is only violated by *ma daras* because *ma* is orthographically represented as a lexical word that does not make a prosodic word on its own right. All *ma*-prefixed verbs violate MAX because part of the input is missing. This means that MAX is then low-ranking, and hence its violation does not yield suboptimal forms. Another point worthy of mention here is that the negator *ma* is prefixed to the verb once the verb is suffixed with *ʃ*, thus obviating the need for superheavy negations. Otherwise, high ranking MAX 3μ would be violated.

TABLE 8
OPTIMAL CANDIDATES VIOLATING *LOW-RANKED CONSTRAINTS* IN PAST NEGATION IN JA

Meaning ¬p **ma:** daras-**ʃ**	LEX=PROS	FocusLast	*Neg
☛ ma: daras		*	*
☛ madaras		*	*
☛ madaras-iʃ			**
☛ madaras-ʃ			**
ma daras	*		

Having all possible candidate forms assessed against the set of constraints suggested so far in a number of tables, we can now generate one last table that shows how all candidates compete for optimality.

TABLE 9
CONSTRAINTS FOR PAST TENSE NEGATION IN JA

Meaning ¬p ma: daras-ʃ	Candidates	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V	Neg First	MAX 3μ	IDENT	DEP	MAX	LEX=PROS	Focus Last	*Neg
	☛ ma: daras									*	*
	☛ ma daras								*	*	*
	☛ ma daras-iʃ								*		**
	☛ ma daras-ʃ								*		**
	ma: dras							*		*	*
	ma: danras						*			*	*
	la daras					*				*	*
	ma: daras-iʃ				*						**
	daras-iʃ			*							*
	miʃ daras		*							*	*
	daras	*									

B. Negating Present Tense Verbs

In the present tense, negation surfaces in four preverbal variants differing in the presence (or absence) of vowel length (ma vs. ma:) and gliding (u vs. ju) (9a-b), in four post-verbal variants that differ in gliding and/or deletion before the postverbal *-ʃ* (10a-b), and in four circumflex forms that vary according to gliding and deletion as well (11a-b). The following examples show these variations:

(8) a. **ma:** b-**ju**-drus/ bu-drus *(long preverbal negation with/without gliding)*
NEG ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study / ASP-study
'(He) does not study.'
b. **ma** b-**ju**-drus/ bu-drus *(short preverbal negation with/without gliding)*
NEG ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study/ ASP-study

(9) a. b-**ju**-drus-ʃ / bu-drus-ʃ
ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study-NEG / ASP-study--NEG
(postverbal negation with/ without gliding with deletion)
b. b-**ju**-drus-iʃ /bu-drus-iʃ
ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study-NEG/ ASP-study-NEG
(postverbal negation with/ without gliding without deletion)

(10) a. **ma** b-**ju**-drus-ʃ / bu-drus-ʃ
NEG ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study-NEG / ASP-study-NEG
(circumflex negation with/ without gliding with deletion)
b. **ma** b-**ju**-drus-iʃ / bu-drus-iʃ
NEG ASP-**IMPRF:3SM**-study-NEG / ASP-study-NEG
(circumflex negation with/ without gliding & without deletion)

This means that we have 12 output forms. The interplay between negation and tense is evident here in that it is the only tense where post-verbal negation occurs in its own right. To account for all surface forms, we need to consider three more issues: *vowel deletion/insertion before -ʃ, gliding,* and *post-verbal* negation.

As for vowel deletion/insertion before *-ʃ*, the need arises as to see whether the input form of the post verbal negator is *-ʃ* or *-iʃ* because both are optimal variants in the language under current scrutiny (see 10a-b above). To decide on this, two observations about Arabic in general are called for: (1) Arabic does not allow words to start with a vowel. We therefore assume that the underlying post-verbal negator be *-ʃ*. Note that this assumption is in line with the economy principle, i.e. as long as both *-ʃ* and *-iʃ* serve as post-verbal negators, then the less-costly negator is assumed to be the underlying one. In addition, as long as /i/ does not change, then it is unlikely that this vowel is part of the input. (2) Arabic generally disfavors consonant clustering in the same syllable. Thus, when *-ʃ* is attached to a verb that originally ends with a consonant, the result would be consonant clustering in the same syllable (e.g. *bilʕa**bʃ*** 'does not play'). The constraint that rules out clustering of consonants is $*CC^{\sigma}$:

$*CC^{\sigma}$: avoid having a two-consonant cluster in the same syllable.

Jordanian Arabic, unlike Classical Arabic, sometimes sanctions the clustering of consonants (e.g. CC), so $*CC^{\sigma}$ is low-ranked in this dialect. What is worth noting her is that we do not need to put forward further constraints here simply because this can be captured by demoting the constraint which militates against epenthetic material.

As for gliding, we need to decide whether it is a process of epenthesis or deletion. In fact, there is evidence that gliding is part of the underlying representation in the present tense form. First, gliding conveys imperfective aspectuality, so if we change the verb form from a third person to the second person or first plural person, an imperfective allomorph surfaces along with the progressive aspectual *–b*. What this means is that the aspectual *–b* is different from the imperfective prefix. Consider:

(11) inta b-**tu**-drus / iħna b-**nu**-drus
you:2SMASP-**IMPRF**:2SM-study/ we:1PL ASP-**IMPRF**:1PL-study

Second, in some varieties of Arabic, the present imperfective glide always surfaces while the aspectual prefix *b-* does not.

(12) sa:mi **ji**-drus (Gulf varieties)
Sami **IMPERF**:3SM-study

Third, in embedded clauses in JA the imperfective glide is used without the aspectual prefix *b-*:

(13) ʔumm-uh ħaka-t-l-uh ʔinno **ji**-drus kweijjis
Mother-his tell:PRF-F-to-him that **IMPERF**:3SM-study well
'His mother told him to study well.'

Accordingly, the absence of the glide violates a whole set of constraints which militate against deletion, insertion or alternation of the input material. For brevity and convenience, we use GLIDE as an encompassing term.[14] Having this said, we find that a few of the optimal candidates violate GLIDE, indicating that this is a low-ranking constraint.

The other thing to note is that only negation with present tense verbs can surface post-verbally without a co-occurring preverbal negator. This kind of negation is blocked with past and future tenses, thus supporting our thesis that negation is tense-dependent. Recall that Al-Qassas (2012, 2015) considers *-ʃ* as a reinforcer. We argue that the deletion of the preverbal *ma* is phonologically triggered. Since the present tense often surfaces with the aspectual *b-* (which is bilabial and the preverbal negator *ma* is also bilabial), *ma* gets deleted as part of a progressive assimilation process. If this argument were right, we would expect *ma* to surface if the aspectual *b-* were not present. This prediction is borne out:

(14) a. ʔumm-uh ħaka-t-l-uh ʔinno ma **ji**-lʕab-iʃ
Mother-his tell:PRF-F-to-him that NEG IMPERF:3SM-play-NEG
'His mother told him not to play.'

b. * ʔumm-uh ħaka-t-l-uh ʔinno **ji**- lʕab-iʃ
Mother-his tell:PRF-F-to-him that IMPERF:3SM-play-NEG

Since (15b) is unacceptable, the preverbal negator *ma-* cannot be deleted unless it is assimilated to the aspectual prefix *b-*. Table 8 shows the optimal candidates for the proposition ¬ *b-judrus-iʃ*' 'does not study'. As mentioned in the literature, when some language permits preverbal and post-verbal negation, **NegFirst** and **FocusLast** are low-ranking:

[14] Accounting for this falls outside the scope of the paper. Those interested in the phenomenon could consult, for example, Daniel A. Dinnsen (2001) New insights from optimality theory for acquisition, *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics*, 15:1-2, 15-18, DOI: 10.3109/02699200109167623

TABLE 10
OPTIMAL CANDIDATES VIOLATING *LOW-RANKED CONSTRAINTS* IN PRESENT NEGATION IN JA

¬ bi-ju-drus-iʃ	*CC$^{\Sigma}$	GLIDE	LEX=PROS	Focus Last	Neg First	*Neg
☛ ma: bjudrus				*		*
☛ ma: budrus		*		*		*
☛ ma bjudrus			*	*		*
☛ ma budrus		*	*	*		*
☛ bjudrus-ʃ	*				*	*
☛ budrus-ʃ	*	*			*	*
☛ bjudrus-iʃ					*	*
☛ budrus-iʃ		*			*	*
☛ ma bjudrus-ʃ	*		*			**
☛ ma budrus-ʃ	*	*	*			**
☛ ma bjudrus-iʃ			*			**
☛ ma budrus-iʃ		*	*			**

Now, it is high time we generated one last table that shows how all possible candidate forms compete for optimality.

TABLE 11
CONSTRAINTS FOR PRESENT TENSE NEGATION IN JA

¬ bi-ju-drus-iʃ	Faith Neg	*miʃ/V	MAX 3μ	IDENT	DEP	MAX	*CC$^{\sigma}$	GLIDE	LEX=PROS	Focus Last	Neg First	*Neg
☛ ma: bjudrus										*		*
☛ ma: budrus								*		*		*
☛ ma bjudrus									*	*		*
☛ ma budrus								*	*	*		*
☛ bjudrus-ʃ							*				*	*
☛ budrus-ʃ							*	*			*	*
☛ bjudrus-iʃ											*	*
☛ budrus-iʃ								*			*	*
☛ ma bjudrus-ʃ							*		*			**
☛ ma budrus-ʃ							*	*	*			**
☛ ma bjudrus-iʃ									*			**
☛ ma budrus-iʃ									*			**
ma budrs						*		*	*	*		*
ma bundrus					*			*	*	*		*
la bjudrus				*						*		*
ma: bjudrus-iʃ			*									*
miʃ bjudrus		*								*		*
bjudrus	*											

All in all, this table shows that the major difference between negation with present and past tense is that **NEGFIRST** is ranked very low in the present but very high in the past. This allows all optimal present forms with post-verbal negation to become optimal.

C. *Negating Future- Marked Verbs*

With future-marked verbs, the preverbal negation is followed by a future auxiliary. In addition to vowel length, a preverbal nominal negator *miʃ* may be used here.

(15)	a.	**ma:**	reħ	ju-drus	
			NEG	will	IMPRF-study:3SM
			'(He) will not study.'		
	b.		**ma**	reħ	ju-drus
			NEG	will	IMPRF-study:3SM
	c.		**miʃ**	reħ	ju-drus
			NEG	will	IMPRF-study:3SM

All variants are followed by the imperfective present form without deleting the glide or alternating the root. This indicates that the faithfulness constraints (**DEP**, **MAX**, **IDENT**) are highly ranked.

Post-verbal and circumflex (discontinuous) negations are not permitted. We can account for the former by ranking **NEGFIRST** high. As for the circumflex, the constraint which militates against two negators is now high ranking. We cannot rank **FocusLast** high because that will also exclude the optimal (preverbal) candidates which also violate

FocusLast. Therefore, ***Neg2** and **MAX 3μ** block future circumflex negation forms.

There remains one issue: Why does future negation in (12c) surface as *miʃ*? As mentioned above, *ma:* (and its variant *ma*) are used as verbal negation, while *miʃ* is used as a nominal negator as in *miʃ usta:z* 'not a teacher', and *miʃ mari:D* 'not sick'. Therefore, having *miʃ* before the future auxiliary *reħ* casts doubts on its nature:

(16) a. sa:mi *miʃ* **reħ** jidrus il-leileh
Sami *NEG* **FUT** study tonight
'Sami will not study tonight.'

b. *miʃ* **aki:d/ muħtamal/ mumkin** ʔinno sa:mi jidrus il-leileh
NEG **sure/ possible/ probable** that Sami study tonight
'It is **not sure/ not possible/ improbable** that Sami study tonight.'

When comparing (17a) with (17b), it seems that *reħ* here is used as an epistemological adjective. As we are concerned with negation from an OT perspective, we will not pursue this point. In light of the constraints mentioned above, **miʃ/V* captures it. However, since future tense permits **miʃ*, this constraint is ranked very low unlike its ranking in present and past tenses.

In light of the above, the constraints used for future negation of the proposition ¬ *reħ judrus* 'will not study' and their rankings are as follows:

TABLE 12
CONSTRAINTS FOR FUTURE TENSE NEGATION IN JA

¬ reħ judrus	Faith Neg	Neg First	MAX	DEP	IDENT	*Neg2	*miʃ/V	LEX=PROS	Focus Last	*Neg
☛ ma: reħ judrus									*	*
☛ ma reħ judrus								*	*	*
☛ miʃ reħ judrus							*		*	*
ma: reħ judrus-iʃ						*				**
la reħ judrus -ʃ					*	*				**
ma: reħ jundrus				*					*	*
ma: reħ judrs			*						*	*
reħ judrus-ʃ		*								*
reħ-iʃ judrus		*								*
reħ judrus	*								!	

All candidates, but the last, violate the lowest constraint ***Neg**, but satisfy **FaithNeg**. **NegFirst** excludes *reħ judrus-ʃ* and *reħ-iʃ judrus* because they do not have a preverbal negator.[15] The faithfulness constraints **MAX**, **DEP** and **IDENT** exclude candidates *la reħ judrus-ʃ*, *ma: reħ jundrus* and *ma: reħ judrs*. The optimal candidate *ma: reħ judrus* violates FOCUSLAST. The second optimal candidate *ma reħ judrus* violates the low-ranking constraints LEX=PROS and Focuslast. The third optimal candidate *miʃ reħ judrus* violates **miʃ/V*.

V. CONCLUSION

The foregoing discussion has shown that negation, like any other phenomenon of semantic opposition whose expression is subtle and complex, is constrained by a universal set of violable constraints whose simultaneous satisfaction is impossible. In Jordanian Arabic, where the three forms of negation (preverbal, discontinuous and post-verbal negation) are attested, it is shown that variation is conditioned by the tense of the verb in the negation domain: Past tense verbs allow for preverbal and discontinuous negation but never allow for post verbal negation; present tense verbs allow for the three variants unconditionally; and future tense verbs allow for preverbal negation only. In OT terms, the constraints that govern the distribution of these negation forms allow for variation; hence more than one possible form is sometimes sanctioned. In this research paper, we tried to do two things to account for this variation. First, we proposed the high ranking constraints whose violations yield suboptimal forms. Second, we showed how those high ranking constraints conspire to yield the optimal output forms for each tense of the verb which was locus of the negation domain.

REFERENCES

[1] Aljarrah, Rasheed. (2002). *An optimality-theoretic analysis of stress in the English of native Arabic speakers*. Ball State University.

[2] Al-Momani, Islam. (2011). The syntax of sentential negation in Jordanian Arabic. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies 1*(5), 482-496.

[3] Al-Qassas, Ahmad. (2012). *The Morpho-Syntax and Pragmatics of Levantine Arabic Negation: A Synchronic and Diachronic Analysis*. ProQuest LLC.

[4] Al-Qqassas, Ahamd. (2015). Negation, tense and NPIs in Jordanian Arabic. *Lingua, 156*, 101-128.

[15] It is worth noting that double negation at the edges of the word can be accounted for by the satisfaction/violation of negation material not falling at the edges, right or left, of the word. The distance is relevant and gradient (the further away from the edge of the word, the more violations).

[5] Bensoukas, Karim. (2012). The morphology and syntax of negation in Amazigh: Synchronic variation and diachronic change. In Boumalk, A. & R. Laabdelaoui, eds. *Faits de Syntaxe Amazighe*, 37-53. Rabat: IRCAM Publications.
[6] De Swart, Henriette. (2004). Marking and Interpretation of Negation. *Crosslinguistic Research in Syntax and Semantics: Negation, Tense and Clausal Architecture,* 199-218.
[7] De Swart, Henriette. (2009). *Expression and interpretation of negation: An OT typology*, Vol. 77. Springer Science & Business Media.
[8] Dinnsen, Daniel. (2001). New insights from optimality theory for acquisition. *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics, 15:*1-2, 15-18,
[9] Horn, Lawrence. (1989). *A natural history of negation*. Chicago University Press.
[10] Jespersen, Otto. (1933). Notes on metre. *Linguistica*, *249*, 105-128.
[11] Lopopolo, Alessandro, & Tamás Biró. (2011). Language Change and SA-OT. The case of sentential negation. *Computational Linguistics in the Netherlands Journal, 1*, 21-40.
[12] McCarthy, John, & Prince, Alan. (1993). Generalized alignment. In *Yearbook of Morphology* (pp. 79-153). Springer, Dordrecht.
[13] McCarthy, John, & Prince, Alan. (1995). *Faithfulness and reduplicative identity*. University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
[14] McCarthy, John, & Prince, Alan. (1999). Faithfulness and identity in prosodic morphology. *The Prosody-Morphology Interface*, *9*. In René Kager, Harry van der Hulst, and Wim Zonneveld (eds.), 218–309. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
[15] Mrayat, Ahmad. (2015). Negative Particles and Morphemes in Jordanian Arabic Dialects. *Journal of Education and Practice 6*(36), 87-90.
[16] Murphy, Isa Wayne. (2014). *The realization of negation in the Syrian Arabic clause, phrase and word.* M. Philosophy in Applied Linguistics, Trinity College, Dublin.
[17] Ouali, Hamid. (2004). Negation and negative polarity items in Berber. In *Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society 30*(1), 330-340.
[18] Prince, A., & Smolensky, P. (2004). *Optimality Theory: Constraint interaction in generative grammar*. John Wiley & Sons.
[19] Sallakh, Mais. (2021). *Negation in Jordanian children's speech: A variationist approach*. MA thesis, Yarmouk University, Jordan.
[20] Wallage, P. (2005). *Negation in Early English: Parametric variation and grammatical competition.* Doctoral dissertation, University of York.
[21] Willis, D. W. (1998). *Syntactic change in Welsh: a study of the loss of the verb-second*. Oxford university press.

Ayman Yasin is currently the head of the Coordination Unit for Service Courses at Princess Sumaya University for Technology in Jordan. He studied linguistics at Purdue University in Indiana, USA (2008-2012). He is interested in social sciences in general and in linguistics in particular. He has published a number of papers in syntax, phonology, translation, and prosody. Dr. Yasin has also taught MA and PhD courses in linguistics and translation at the University of Jordan (part timer). He is supervisor and an external examiner for many MA and PhD theses in various Jordanian universities. He has experience in IELTS testing and he serves as a reviewer in several journals. Dr. Yasin has taught different language courses at university and at language centers that focus on the four skills: listening, reading, writing and speaking. He adopts the communicative approach which makes his classes very fun and interactive.

Rasheed Al-Jarrah is a Full Professor of English, currently teaching language and Linguistics courses in the English Department at Yarmouk University/Jordan. Al-Jarrah graduated from Ball State University – Muncie/ Indiana with a PhD in Applied Linguistics in 2002. Areas of research interests include language learning, second language writing, optimal solutions, language testing, contrastive and text/discourse analysis studies. Contact information: Language center- Yarmouk University- Jordan. E-mail: rsaljarrah@yu.edu.jo or rsaljarrah@yahoo.com

Hussein Obeidat was born in Ramtha, Jordan. He received his PhD in Linguistics from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign in the United States. He is currently an Associate Professor of Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Literature at Yarmouk University, Irbid- Jordan. His research interest includes Syntax and Psycholinguistics. He is on the Editorial board of JJMLL, and a member of the Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities (APETAU).

Ekab Al-Shawashreh was born in Ajloun, Jordan. He received his PhD in Linguistics from the Ottawa University in Canada in 2016. He is currently an Associate Professor of Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Literature at Yarmouk University, Irbid- Jordan. His research interest includes Arabic Syntax, Sociolinguistics, Variation Studies and Prosody. Dr Al-Shawashreh has served as a main supervisor for over 30 MA students and an external examiner for many MA students as well.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 891-900, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.10

Advantages and Challenges of eLearning Before and After the COVID-19 Pandemic: Faculty and Student Perceptions in Saudi Education

Siham Mousa Alhaider
English Department, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Sarwat un Nisa
English Department, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

***Abstract*—Novelty and Topicality: The COVID-19 pandemic significantly affected the education sector, with eLearning transforming the global education system. Research Purpose: This study sheds light on how the English departments of King Khalid University overcame the pandemic's impact, with respect to the shift to online learning. Motivation for the Study: The findings of the present study are of great importance for transforming the education system, not only in Saudi Arabia but worldwide. The globalization of education will help the universities of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia make borderless, cost-effective education available to the citizens of the world from the comforts of their homes. Design and Methods: The study seeks to identify the challenges and advantages of eLearning, based on the perceptions of English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners and instructors. The data were collected through Google forms and analysed using various SPSS software tools. Main findings: The findings revealed that the advantages of eLearning outweigh the challenges faced by students. The advantages of teaching English online include flexibility of learning, constant availability of learning materials, time efficiency, and the upgrade of technical skills. The major challenges for students and instructors include a lack of in-person interaction and poor Internet connectivity. Practical Implications: Notably, the study findings can improve the efficacy of eLearning in the education field in general and Saudi English departments in particular. Contribution: The outcomes can help explore future possibilities for reforming the education sector, both within and outside the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.**

***Index Terms*—COVID-19, eLearning, EFL, education, Saudi Arabia**

I. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic brought the world to a standstill by enforcing restrictions on mass gatherings, thereby impacting the education sector significantly. Learners and instructors worldwide were forced to stay at home and wait for educational institutions to implement eLearning systems. Although many universities had already adopted eLearning as a secondary mode of instruction, few had considered it as the primary mode before the pandemic. Given that the pandemic was likely to be long-term, educational institutions risked losing time on their academic calendars if they waited for in-person studies to resume. Therefore, the educational sector largely implemented eLearning, which, though advantageous, presented challenges for instructors and learners. The acceptance of this alternative to the traditional mode of teaching warrants the exploration of its challenges and advantages. Thus, this study ascertains the challenges and advantages of eLearning from the perspectives of English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) instructors and learners at King Khalid University (KKU), Saudi Arabia.

According to Feeney (2001), eLearning has received scholarly attention only recently. As the integration of technology and higher education becomes an institutional imperative at universities across the world, adopting digital courses in a new eLearning environment has become an organisational goal and source of data for performance evaluation. Various studies have examined eLearning, especially during the pandemic, and many have specifically probed into its challenges and advantages. Radha et al. (2020) note that eLearning has become popular among students in all educational institutions, given the lockdown caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. One reason why eLearning posed challenges for instructors and learners was the sudden shift from the traditional to online mode of teaching, with little time for education policymakers to prepare for the change. Therefore, it is important to identify and overcome the challenges of eLearning to lay the foundation for transforming the global education system.

A. Motivation for the Study

The online mode of learning has opened a new window to the world of education. It will not be long before eLearning is the preferred mode of global education, especially for the tech- savvy new generation which is always glued to their screens. Considering the interests of modern learners and the growing impact of technology on the new generation, the findings of the present study are significant and will play a pivotal role in the transformation of the education system, not only in Saudi Arabia but also worldwide.

The modern education system must be well prepared to fulfil the demands of learners who rely on technology for all information. The present study on the challenges and advantages of online learning will lay the foundation for the transformation of the education system from a ‘local to global’ system. Overcoming the challenges of eLearning and taking cues from its advantages to provide learners with the best online learning experience will equip Saudi universities with modern educational methods. Moreover, the findings of the present study will play a crucial role in disseminating quality education through online learning, which in turn will make it possible for the universities of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to enroll global learners in its programs irrespective of geographical borders.

B. Advantages of eLearning

Previous studies have presented several advantages of implementing eLearning technologies for university education (Raspopovic et al., 2017).

- eLearning provides greater and more flexible access (Yang & Cornelious, 2005); it is a web-based system that makes information or knowledge available to students, irrespective of spatial and temporal limitations (Piccoli et al., 2001).
- eLearning can benefit employees and students by providing the option to take advantage of on-demand courses, anytime and anywhere (Burgess & Russell, 2003).
- According to Ely et al. (2009), courses can be tailored to suit the various needs of learners. Moreover, the eLearning environment helps them become independent, such that instructors no longer remain the sole source of knowledge; rather, they become guides and advisers (Joshua et al., 2016).
- As per Abou El-Seoud et al. (2014), eLearning is crucial to the existing educational setting; it is one of the topics most preferred by academics for its ability to transform the education system.
- Ali et al. (2018) examined the effectiveness of eLearning for university students and found that it is affordable, easy to use, and saves time.
- According to Blinco et al. (2004), the success of eLearning depends on instructors and learners possessing adequate skills for using it.
- Al-Dosari (2011) probed the perceptions of the faculty and students regarding eLearning in English departments and concluded that the eLearning environment improved learning more than the traditional method.

Some advantages pertain to the system used for imparting eLearning. Of the various systems implemented, the Learning Management System (LMS) software has been widely used. Al-Handhali et al. (2020) highlight several benefits of LMS: user-friendliness, effective time management, easy courses, teacher and facility management, and report generation. Moreover, it provides timely reminders to users, such as for submission dates, answering questions, and test dates. Aydin and Tirkes (2010) also analysed the LMS and Moodle platforms and found them to be useful.

C. Challenges and Disadvantages of eLearning

Despite the benefits, studies have also noted various challenges of eLearning. Individual and behavioural characteristics, course design, and course facilitation influence the level of engagement in an online course (Purarjomandlangrudi et al., 2016). A further challenge is the lack of in-person interaction (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015). Infande (2013) claims that online learning sometimes induces incomplete studies among students, given the convenience of the anonymity associated with online platforms. For example, if students face obstacles alone, they are more likely to give up. Arkorful and Abaidoo (2015) further note that eLearning assessments are generally conducted online, limiting the ability to monitor possible illegitimate activities, such as cheating and plagiarism. Moreover, lack of motivation is linked with eLearning. Students lacking self-motivation and independence had lower success rates than their counterparts (Sarkar, 2012). Raspopovic et al. (2017) believe students can easily lose motivation and sight of their original objective. They rapidly become lost during the course and, consequently, may withdraw altogether. Therefore, the motivation for self-study and continuous dedication must be examined for the successful implementation of online learning. Some other eLearning challenges are:

- Accessing information is costly; it requires an Internet connection and computing devices (Noe, 2014), as well as experience, technical know-how, and time management skills (Educause, 2003).
- Donnelly and McAvinia (2012, p. 19) argued that ‘many academics have […] no training and little experience in the use of [information and communication technology (ICT)] as an educational tool’. Tarus et al. (2015) investigated the challenges of implementing eLearning in Kenyan public universities and noted ICT and eLearning as inconvenient.
- As per Salmon (2004, p. 6), ‘training on the technological features of the [eLearning] system is only the first step to success, and the real challenge is training for changes to pedagogy’. Goyal (2012) studied the importance of eLearning in modern teaching and explained its advantages and disadvantages. He compared it to Instructor-Led Training (ILT) and suggested implementing eLearning, rather than the traditional mode of teaching. Moreover, the study noted the major drawbacks of ILT in institutions and suggested how eLearning could help overcome them.

To summarise, previous studies have extensively investigated the advantages and challenges of eLearning and suggested ways to overcome the latter and improve its effectiveness. The common challenges include lack of training in the use of various technical tools and new pedagogical methods, adoption of digital courses, and lack of motivation and interaction. The advantages include time efficiency, affordability, and supplementation of instructor-led training. Nonetheless, few studies have examined such advantages and challenges within the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, and its impact on education worldwide. Thus, this study contributes to the discussion by elucidating how the KKU English department addressed the pandemic's impact on the education system, after switching to eLearning.

D. Research Questions

This study focused on various aspects of eLearning during the COVID-19 pandemic, conducted on the Blackboard LMS platform, and the traditional mode of teaching prevalent before the pandemic. It answers the following questions:

1. What are the challenges and advantages of eLearning from teachers' perspectives, regarding listening, speaking, reading, and writing?
2. What are the challenges and advantages of eLearning from students' perspectives, regarding listening, speaking, reading, and writing?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Design

Case study findings are usually shaped by educational policies and teaching practices (Duff, 2008). Thus, considering the drastic changes caused by the COVID-19 pandemic in the education field, it is vital to explore advantageous teaching practices, the challenges of online learning, and the possible solutions for making eLearning effective during exceptional circumstances, such as a pandemic.

The study employed a detailed questionnaire on in-person and online modes of learning, designed to explore instructors' and learners' perceptions of both modes. It broadly covered the following aspects:

1. Students' perceptions of the challenges and advantages of eLearning.
2. Instructors' perceptions of the challenges and advantages of eLearning.
3. A comparative study of EFL instructors' and students' perceptions of the challenges and advantages of eLearning.
4. Suggestions to overcome these challenges and make online education more effective.

B. Research Ethics

Informed consent was obtained from all participants before they could take part in the study. Ethical approval was received from the university.

C. Data Collection

Data were collected using a Google-forms questionnaire survey in two phases. First, a pilot survey was conducted; the link to the form was sent to students enrolled in the English Programme at various KKU campuses, irrespective of gender. The pilot study questionnaire sought to elicit students' perceptions of the pandemic's impact on the education sector, and their manner of adapting to eLearning. Based on the responses, the questionnaire was updated with more specific questions on the challenges and advantages of eLearning. It was then sent to EFL instructors across KKU, to understand their perceptions of online teaching. The second phase questionnaire included sections on (a) demographic information, (b) overall experience with eLearning, and its challenges and advantages, and (c) students' and faculty members' perspectives of eLearning.

Random sampling was the most suitable method for obtaining a representative sample (Gay et al., 2008). Thus, responses were collected randomly from English departments across KKU. Since the researchers were also instructors of some of the online courses, they were well placed to make reliable inferences about student and faculty member perceptions.

D. Data Analysis

Overall, 38 students and 30 instructors submitted their responses. The questionnaire included open-ended questions for qualitative analysis and statements for quantitative analysis, which were all scored on Likert scales. Descriptive statistics were analysed using the SPSS statistical package. These included numerical, relative, average, and standard deviation distributions for measuring dispersion. The statistical results of the qualitative and quantitative analyses were then correlated. Moreover, a comparative analysis of the perceptions of teachers and students was also conducted to improve the reliability of the findings.

The Cronbach's alpha test was employed to assess the reliability and validity of the research. The results showed that all study axes were stable, with the internal consistency of all dimensions reaching 0.86. Almost all the items yielded a ratio close to 1. The closer the Cronbach's alpha value is to 1, the more stable the internal consistency of the study tool (Sekaran, 2003).

III. Results

Table 1 presents a statistical analysis of the major challenges faced by students, according to faculty members. These challenges are as follows:

- Internet connectivity: 40% of the faculty members do not consider it an issue, 30% are neutral, and 30% agree that it is a problem.
- Faculty missing face-to-face interactions: 70% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 3.3% disagree, and 26.7% are neutral.
- Students' lack of motivation for studying at home: 60% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 26.6% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 13.3% are neutral.
- Students missing in-class interactions: 66.6% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 16.6% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 20% are neutral.
- Students are unable to easily understand course content in the eLearning mode: 33.4% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 53.4% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 13.3% are neutral.
- eLearning is comparatively more passive than face-to-face learning: 40% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 23% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 36.7% are neutral.
- Students are less enthusiastic about attending online lectures: 36.6% of the faculty members either agree or strongly agree, 36.7% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 26.7% are neutral.

In summary, students are less motivated for eLearning, both students and faculty members miss in-class and face-to-face interactions, and eLearning is passive. According to most faculty members, internet connectivity is not a challenge.

Overall, items 1.8–1.10 indicate that technical issues do not affect online teaching. However, an equal proportion of faculty members both agree and disagree that they face technical issues, while 60% either disagree or strongly disagree that technical issues hamper the teaching process. Moreover, 40% of faculty members either disagree or strongly disagree with students not having good devices to attend online classes, 26.6% of faculty members either agree or strongly agree that they face technical problems, 23.3% either agree or strongly agree that technical problems on Blackboard hamper teaching, and 26.6% either agree or strongly agree to students not having good devices.

The standard deviation ranges from the lowest (0.949) for missing face-to-face interactions with students, with a significance of 83%, to the highest (1.235) for students not understanding the content easily, with a significance of 54%. The overall result shows a standard deviation of 1.132 from a mean of 3.22, with a significance of 65%.

Table 1
Major Challenges to eLearning—Instructors' Perspectives

	Items		Valid					Mean	Std. Deviation	Importance
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree			
1.1	Students have poor Internet connectivity at home	Frequency	3	9	9	5	4	2.9	1.201	58%
		Percentage	10	30	30	16.7	13.3			
1.2	I miss face-to-face interaction with students	Frequency	0	1	8	6	15	4.17	.949	83%
		Percentage	0	3.3	26.7	20	50			
1.3	Students don't feel motivated when they study at home	Frequency	1	7	4	11	7	3.53	1.195	71%
		Percentage	3.3	23.3	13.3	36.7	23.3			
1.4	I miss in-class interaction	Frequency	1	2	6	7	13	3.93	1.172	79%
		Percentage	3.3	6.7	20	23.3	43.4			
1.5	Students can't understand the content easily in the eLearning mode	Frequency	5	11	4	8	2	2.70	1.235	54%
		Percentage	16.7	36.7	13.3	26.7	6.7			
1.6	eLearning is more passive than face-to-face learning	Frequency	1	6	11	7	5	3.3	1.088	66%
		Percentage	3.3	20	36.7	23.3	16.7			
1.7	I face technical problems while using Blackboard	Frequency	6	9	7	7	1	2.6	1.162	52%
		Percentage	20	30	23.3	23.3	3.3			
1.8	Technical problems on Blackboard take time to resolve, which hampers my teaching	Frequency	5	13	5	6	1	2.5	1.106	50%
		Percentage	16.7	43.3	16.7	20.0	3.3			
1.9	Students have less enthusiasm to attend my online lectures	Frequency	2	9	8	7	4	3.7	1.172	74%
		Percentage	6.7	30.0	26.7	23.3	13.3			
1.10	Students don't have a good device to attend my online lectures	Frequency	2	10	10	6	2	2.9	1.041	58%
		Percentage	6.7	33.3	33.3	20	6.7			
	Overall mean							3.22	1.132	65%

Table 2 shows instructors' perspectives of the major advantages of eLearning.

In summary, Table 2 indicates that most faculty members either agree or strongly agree with students being able to learn at their own pace, listen to the recorded lecture any time and as many times as they want, and access study materials. Moreover, they agreed that eLearning saves time for students, and upgrades the technical skills of both students and instructors.

The standard deviation ranges from the lowest (0.889) for the upgrade of students' technical skills, with a significance of 80%, to the highest (1.165) for students learning at their own pace, with a significance of 72%. The overall result shows a standard deviation of 1.003 from a mean of 4, with a significance of 80%.

TABLE 2
MAJOR ADVANTAGES OF ELEARNING—INSTRUCTORS' PERSPECTIVES

	Items		Valid					Mean	Standard Deviation	Importance
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree			
2.1	Students can learn at their own pace	Frequency	2	3	8	10	7	3.6	1.165	72%
		Percentage	6.7	10	26.7	33.3	23.3			
2.2	Students can listen to the recorded lecture any time and as many times as they want	Frequency	1	0	5	13	11	4.1	.922	82%
		Percentage	3.3	0.0	16.7	43.3	36.7			
2.3	Students have easy access to all study materials	Frequency	1	0	4	10	15	4.3	0.944	86%
		Percentage	3.3	0.0	13.3	33.3	50			
2.4	It saves students' time	Frequency	1	4	4	11	10	3.8	1.147	76%
		Percentage	3.3	13.3	13.3	36.7	33.3			
2.5	Students' technical skills were upgraded	Frequency	1	0	5	15	9	4.0	0.889	80%
		Percentage	3.3	0.0	7ز16	50	30			
2.6	My technical skills as an instructor were upgraded	Frequency	1	0	5	11	13	4.2	0.949	84%
		Percentage	3.3	0.0	16.7	36.7	43.3			
	Overall mean							4.0	1.003	80%

Table 3 shows students' perspectives of the major challenges of eLearning. According to items 3.1–3.6, the major challenges that students face can be summarized as follows:

- Internet connectivity being an issue: 18.4% of students disagree, 47.4% are neutral, and 34.3% agree.
- Missing face-to-face interactions: 42.1% of students either agree or strongly agree, 18.4% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 39.5% are neutral.
- Missing peer-to-peer interactions: 23.7% of students either agree or strongly agree, 23.7% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 52.6% are neutral.
- Lack of motivation to stay at home: 23.7% of students either agree or strongly agree, 33.6% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 44.7% are neutral.
- Easy understanding of eLearning content: 15.8% of the students agree, 44.7% either disagree or strongly disagree, and 39.5% are neutral.
- eLearning being more passive than face-to-face learning: 15.8% of the students either agree or strongly agree, 47.4% disagree or strongly disagree, and 36.8% are neutral.

Overall, items 3.7–3.9 indicate that technical issues do not affect the online mode of teaching, and 36.9% of the students either agree or strongly agree that they face technical problems using Blackboard, and 34.2% either disagree or strongly disagree. Meanwhile, 21.1% either agree or strongly agree that Blackboard issues take time to resolve, and 23.7% either disagree or strongly disagree. However, 55.3% are neutral, meaning that they may or may not face technical problems. Moreover, 60.5% either disagree or strongly disagree that they do not have devices to attend online classes, 13.1% either agree or strongly agree, and 26.3% are neutral.

The standard deviation ranges from the lowest (0.898) for face-to-face interaction, with a significance of 78%, to the highest (1.149) for eLearning being more passive than face-to-face teaching, with a significance of 53%. The overall result shows a standard deviation of 1.132 from a mean of 3.89, with a significance of 78%. The standard deviation indicates that the results are within the range of acceptability.

In summary, students miss in-class and face-to-face interactions, but not peer-to-peer interactions. Moreover, most of them do not find eLearning passive. Internet connectivity is a challenge for some students, but most had a neutral opinion, indicating that connectivity might or might not be an issue. Most students either disagree or are neutral about being less motivated for eLearning. The same holds true for not understanding content during online teaching, with most students either disagreeing or being neutral. Moreover, technical issues are not a hurdle for them.

TABLE 3
MAJOR CHALLENGES TO ELEARNING—STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES

	Items		Valid Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Deviation	Importance
3.1	I have poor Internet connectivity at home	Frequency	3	4	18	8	5	3.86	0.945	77%
		Percentage	7.9	10.5	47.4	21.1	13.2			
3.2	I miss face-to-face interaction with instructors	Frequency	3	4	15	7	9	3.91	0.898	78%
		Percentage	7.9	10.5	39.5	18.4	23.7			
3.3	I don't feel motivated when I study at home	Frequency	4	8	17	4	5	2.95	1.138	59%
		Percentage	10.5	21.1	44.7	10.5	13.2			
3.4	I miss peer interaction	Frequency	4	5	20	4	5	3.76	1.102	75%
		Percentage	10.5	13.2	52.6	10.5	13.2			
3.5	I can't understand the content easily in the eLearning mode	Frequency	7	10	15	4	2	2.58	1.081	52%
		Percentage	18.4	26.3	39.5	10.5	5.3			
3.6	eLearning is more passive than face-to-face learning	Frequency	6	12	14	2	4	2.63	1.149	53%
		Percentage	15.8	31.6	36.8	5.3	10.5			
3.7	I face technical problems while using Blackboard	Frequency	3	10	11	9	5	3.78	.998	76%
		Percentage	7.9	26.3	28.9	23.7	13.2			
3.8	Technical problems on Blackboard take time to resolve which hampers my learning	Frequency	4	5	21	3	5	3.0	1.090	60%
		Percentage	10.5	13.2	55.3	7.9	13.2			
3.9	I don't have a good device to attend my online lectures	Frequency	12	11	10	1	4	2.32	1.254	46%
		Percentage	31.6	28.9	26.3	2.6	10.5			
	Overall mean							3.89	1.132	78%

Table 4 presents students' perspectives on the major advantages of eLearning.

The standard deviation ranges from the lowest (0.991) for the upgrade of students' technical skills, with a significance of 77%, to the highest (1.131) for easy access to study materials, with a significance of 73%. The overall result shows a standard deviation of 1.289 from the mean of 3.81, with a significance of 76%.

Table 4 indicates that most students either agree or strongly agree with being able to learn at their own pace, listen to the recorded lecture any time and as many times as they want, access all study materials, save time, and upgrade their technical skills.

TABLE 4
MAJOR ADVANTAGES OF ELEARNING–STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES

	Items		Valid Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Deviation	Importance
4.1	I can learn at my own pace	Frequency	2	3	9	13	11	3.74	1.131	75%
		Percentage	5.3	7.9	23.7	34.2	28.9			
4.2	I can listen to the recorded lecture any time and as many times as I want	Frequency	1	1	8	12	16	4.08	0.997	82%
		Percentage	2.6	2.6	21.1	31.6	42.1			
4.3	I have easy access to all study materials	Frequency	3	0	14	12	9	3.63	1.101	73%
		Percentage	7.9	0.0	36.8	31.6	23.7			
4.4	It saves my time	Frequency	4	0	11	111	2	3.71	1.228	74%
		Percentage	10.5	0.0	28.9	28.9	31.6			
4.5	My technical skills were upgraded	Frequency	1	0	15	9	13	3.87	0.991	77%
		Percentage	2.6	0.0	39.5	23.7	34.2			
	Overall mean							3.81	1.289	76%

Table 5 shows an analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main challenges and problems faced by teachers during eLearning.

For the main challenges faced by instructors, there is a statistically significant relationship at an alpha level ($\alpha = 0.05$, where $F = 5.601$ is statistically significant, and $P - value = 0.004 < 0.05$). Thus, there are statistically significant differences across the four skills, with teaching writing skills being comparatively more challenging. For the main advantages, there is a statistically insignificant relationship at an alpha level ($\alpha = 0.05$, where $F = 1.564$ and $P - value = 0.222 > 0.05$).

TABLE 5
MAJOR CHALLENGES AND ADVANTAGES OF ELEARNING FROM INSTRUCTORS' PERSPECTIVES—ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Major challenges	Between Groups	532.899	3	177.633	5.601	.004
	Within Groups	824.567	26	31.714		
	Total	1357.467	29			
Major advantage	Between Groups	32.902	3	10.967	1.564	.222
	Within Groups	182.298	26	7.011		
	Total	215.200	29			

Table 6 shows a comparison of the main challenges and problems faced by students during eLearning.

For the main challenges faced by students, there is a statistically significant relationship at an alpha level ($\alpha = 0.05$, where $F = 3.726$ and the level of statistical significance $P - \text{value} = 0.020 < 0.05$). There are statistically significant differences across the four skills, with writing skills being most favoured. For the main advantages too, there is a statistically significant relationship at an alpha level ($\alpha = 0.05$, where $F = 4.504$ and the level of statistical significance $P - \text{value} = 0.009 < 0.05$); i.e., there are statistically significant differences across the four skills with reading skills being the most favoured.

TABLE 6
MAJOR CHALLENGES AND ADVANTAGES OF ELEARNING FROM LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES—ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Major Challenges	Between Groups	390.813	3	130.271	3.726	.020
	Within Groups	1188.688	34	34.961		
	Total	1579.500	37			
Major Advantage	Between Groups	365.842	3	121.947	4.504	.009
	Within Groups	920.500	34	27.074		
	Total	1286.342	37			

Findings from Instructors' Perspective

Challenges

- Students are less motivated in the eLearning mode.
- Students and faculty members miss in-class and face-to-face interactions.
- eLearning is passive.

- Internet connectivity is not a challenge, as per most faculty members.
- Writing skill poses major challenges.

Advantages

- Students can learn at their own pace.
- Students can listen to the recorded lectures any time and as many times as they want.
- Students have access to all the study materials.
- eLearning saves time for students.
- Students' and instructors' technical skills were upgraded.
- There are major advantages for reading.

Findings from Students' Perspective

Challenges

- Students miss face-to-face interactions with instructors.
- They struggle with their Internet connection.
- Though many students reported facing technical problems, it cannot be considered a challenge as most agreed that these problems did not take long to resolve, indicating that it did not hamper their learning process.
- Writing skill poses major challenges.

Advantages

- Students can learn at their own pace.
- They can listen to the recorded lectures any time and as many times as they want.
- They have access to all the study materials.
- eLearning saves time for students.
- Students' technical skills are upgraded.
- There are major advantages for reading.

Comparisons Between Both Perspectives

The findings show that instructors posited students as being less motivated for eLearning; however, this was not validated through the statistical analysis of students. Both instructors and students agreed that they missed face-to-face interactions. While students faced Internet issues, it cannot be considered a challenge, as the recorded lectures were constantly available. Technical issues constituted another challenge faced by some, but most participants also agreed that Blackboard issues did not take much time to resolve. Regarding the advantages of eLearning, both students and instructors stated that it gave students greater flexibility for learning, made learning materials easily accessible, and upgraded their technical skills. In addition, instructors and learners found that it presented challenges for both teaching and learning writing skills, while benefitting reading skills.

IV. Discussion

The pandemic made it imperative that educational institutions implement online teaching and learning. However, addressing the challenges posed by the pandemic introduced various possibilities for teaching and learning methods. The implementation of online education during the pandemic was a learning experience for instructors and learners both within and outside Saudi Arabia. This study sheds light on perceptions of both instructors and learners, from the KKU English Department, and ascertains the advantages and challenges of eLearning for teaching and learning at the undergraduate level. Apart from linguistic, literature, and translation courses, undergraduate students study courses on listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) skills in the first two years of the programme. This is when they require more intensive training for learning these skills, as they come from different schools where English is not the primary language of instruction.

Therefore, it is crucial to consider the challenges and advantages faced by learners and instructors in learning LSRW skills, before and after the pandemic. The present study helps researchers understand these challenges and advantages, in comparison with those of the traditional mode of learning.

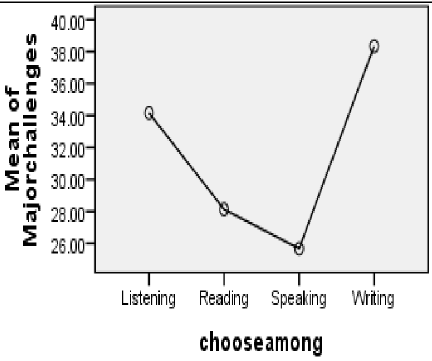
The statistical analysis (Figure 1) indicates the contrasts between the learners' and instructors' perspectives of the advantages and challenges of learning LSRW skills. Overall, when these challenges and advantages are correlated, it is found that the online mode presents advantages for reading and challenges for writing. Writing requires greater typing speed and knowledge of other technical aspects.

Moreover, both students and instructors agree that the advantages of eLearning include more flexibility in learning, constant availability of learning materials, and the upgrade of technical skills. Previous studies (Yang & Cornelious, 2005) had found that eLearning provides more flexible access as a web-based system that makes information available to students, regardless of spatial and temporal time limitations (Piccoli et al., 2001). Furthermore, Ali et al. (2018) argue that eLearning has the advantage of being time efficient, and is supported by students for its ease of use, time-saving quality, and affordability. Learners and instructors stated that their technical skills were upgraded, a result that contrasts with prior studies, which found the lack of technical skills to be a challenge.

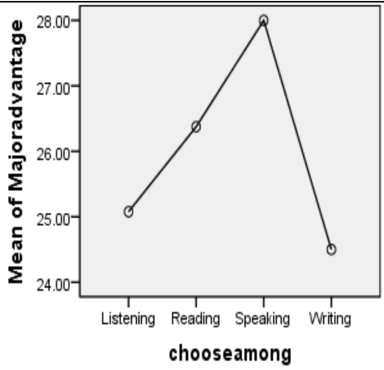
Educause (2003), a non-profit that uses information technology to advance higher education, recommends the following for enhancing technical skills: computer experience, computer ownership, ability to resolve technical problems, and time management. Furthermore, lack of motivation is a concern for instructors. Accordingly, Raspopovic et al. (2017) found that students can lack motivation and easily lose sight of their original objective. However, this could not be verified by the students' perspectives, as they did not consider lack of motivation to be a disadvantage. Though both students and instructors face challenges, the advantages of the online mode outweigh the challenges. Considering advantages like flexible learning and availability of content, eLearning can revolutionise the field of education. Further research is required to ascertain the challenges to eLearning, especially regarding teaching and learning LSRW skills, by building upon the finding that writing poses a challenge in eLearning.

Teachers' perspectives on challenges and advantages before and after the pandemic

Before COVID-19

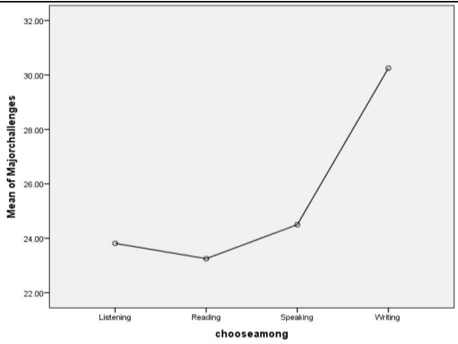


After COVID-19



Students' perspectives on challenges and advantages before and after the pandemic

Before covid-19



After covid-19

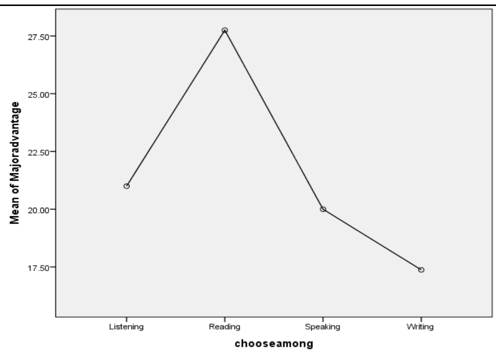


Figure 1 Teachers' and Learners' Perspectives of the Challenges and Advantages, Before and After the Pandemic

V. CONCLUSION

The advantages of eLearning outweigh the challenges faced by students. The major challenges faced by both students and instructors include the lack of in-person interaction and poor internet connectivity. To fill this void created by the lack of in-person interactions, audio and video can be used during lectures, with greater emphasis on interacting with students using various teaching methods and educational tools. Future studies can explore ways of increasing teacher-student and peer interaction in eLearning, and improving the teaching and learning of LSRW skills.

Limitations and Scope for Future Research

As the number of study participants was limited, the sample does not accurately represent the EFL community of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In the future, an in-depth study can be conducted across Saudi Arabia to ascertain the needs of EFL learners, such that a comprehensive education plan can be prepared to teach English online. Detailed research can help improve the online teaching of LSRW skills to overcome the challenges faced by learners and instructors in eLearning.

REFERENCES

[1] Abou El-Seoud, M. S., Taj-Eddin, I. A., Seddiek, N., El-Khouly, M. M., & Nosseir, A. (2014). E-learning and students' motivation: A research study on the effect of e-learning on higher education. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning, 9*(4), 20–26. http://dx.doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v9i4.3465

[2] Al-Dosari, H. (2011). Faculty members and students perceptions of e-learning in the English department: A project evaluation. *Journal of Social Sciences, 7*(3), 391–407. https://dx.doi.org/10.3844/jssp.2011.391.407

[3] Al-Handhali, B. A., Al-Rasbi, A. T., & Sherimon P. C. (2020). Advantages and disadvantages of earning Management System (LMS) at AOU Oman. *International Journal of Technology*, *1*(2), 222–228.
[4] Ali, M., Khaled Hossain, S. M., & Ahmed, T. (2018). Effectiveness of E-learning for university students: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Empirical Research*, *8*(10), 352–360. http://dx.doi.org/10.18488/journal.1007/2018.8.10/1007.10.352.360
[5] Arkorful, V., & Abaidoo, N. (2015). The role of e-learning, advantages and disadvantages of its adoption in higher education. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, *12*(1), 29–42.
[6] Aydin, C. C., & Tirkes, G. (2010). *Open source learning management systems in e-learning and Moodle*. In IEEE EDUCON 2010 Conference (pp. 593–600). IEEE. https://dx.doi.org/10.1109/EDUCON.2010.5492522
[7] Blinco, K., Mason, J., McLean, N. & Wilson, S. (2004). *Trends and issues in E-learning infrastructure development: A white paper for alt-i-lab*. Prepared on behalf of DEST (Australia) and JISC-CETIS (UK).
[8] Burgess, J. R., & Russell, J. E. (2003). The effectiveness of distance learning initiatives in organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*(2), 289–303. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00045-9
[9] Donnelly, R. & McAvinia, C. (2012). Academic development perspectives of blended learning. In P. S. Anastasiades (Ed.), *Blended learning environments for adults: Evaluations and frameworks* (pp. 1–18). IGI Global. https://dx.doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-0939-6.ch001
[10] Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. Routledge.
[11] EDUCAUSE. (2003). Impact and challenges of e-learning. *Supporting E-learning in Higher Education 3*(0). http://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/ers0303/rs/ers03036.pdf (Accessed 13 March 2014).
[12] Ely, K, Sitzmann, T., & Falkiewicz, C. (2009). The influence of goal orientation dimensions on time to train in a self-paced training environment. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *19*(1), 146–150. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2008.08.003
[13] Feeney, D. R. (2001). *Rates of adoption in a university course management system* [Doctoral dissertation, West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV].
[14] Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. W. (2008). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. Pearson Merrill.
[15] Goyal, S. (2012). E-Learning: Future of Education, *Journal of Education and Learning*. *Vol.6* (2) pp. 239-242. https://media.neliti.com/media/publications/74869-EN-e-learning-future-of-education.pdf
[16] Infande, A. (2013, July 8). *A dozen strategies for improving online student retention*. Faculty Focus. http://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/online-education/a-dozen-strategies-for-improving-online-student-retention/ (Accessed 21 January 2015).
[17] Joshua, D., Obille, K., John, E., & Shuaibu, U. (2016). E-Learning platform system for the department of library and information science, Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola: A Developmental plan. *Information Impact: Journal of Information and Knowledge Management*, *7*(1), 51–69.
[18] Noe, R. A. (2014). *E-learning and use of technology in training.* http://answers.mheducation.com/business/management/employee-training-and-development/e-learning-and-use-technology-training (Accessed 31 March 2014).
[19] Piccoli, G., Ahmad, R., & Ives, B. (2001). Web-based virtual learning environments: A research framework and a preliminary assessment of effectiveness in basic IT skills training. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, *25*(4), 401–426. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3250989
[20] Purarjomandlangrudi, A., Chen, D., & Nguyen, A. (2016). Investigating the drivers of student interaction and engagement in online courses: A study of state-of-the-art. *Informatics in Education*, *15*(2), 269–286. http://dx.doi.org/10.15388/infedu.2016.14
[21] Radha, R., Mahalakshmi, K., Sathish, V., & Saravanakumar, A. R. (2020). E-learning during lockdown of Covid-19 pandemic: A global perspective. *International Journal of Control and Automation*, *13*(4), 1088–1099.
[22] Raspopovic, M., Cvetanovic, S., Medan, I., & Ljubojevic, D. (2017). The effects of integrating social learning environment with online learning. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *18*(1), 142–160. http://dx.doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v18i1.2645
[23] Salmon, G. (2004). *E-moderating: The key to online teaching and learning* (2nd ed.). Taylor & Francis.
[24] Sarkar, S. (2012). The role of information and communication technology (ICT) in higher education for the 21st century. *The Science Probe*, *1*(1), 30–41.
[25] Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
[26] Tarus, J. K., Gichoya, D., & Muumbo, A. (2015). Challenges of implementing e-learning in Kenya: A case of Kenyan public universities. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *16*(1), 120–141. http://dx.doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v16i1.1816
[27] Yang, Y., & Cornelious, L. F. (2005). Preparing instructors for quality online instruction. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, *8*(1), 1–16.

Siham Alhaider is an assistant professor at King Khalid University. She works in English department. She is interested in theoretical linguistics, sociolinguistics, language studies, linguistic landscape and second language acquisition. She earned her PhD in 2018 from University of Florida in Linguistics. She has an MA from the same university. Also, she has an MA in Computer Assisted Language Learning from King Khalid University. She has an experience of more than 10 years of teaching undergraduates.

Sarwat un Nisa has many publications to her credit which include chapters in a textbook prescribed for Master's level participants of EFL-University, India. She has worked with the best of the organizations both at the National and the International levels from Google Pvt. Limited, India to English and Foreign Languages University, India. Regarding the work experience, she has more than 10 years of teaching experience.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 901-910, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.11

The English Communication Experiences of Accounting Undergraduates During Internships

Faridah Musa
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

Melor Md Yunus
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

Zarina Othman
Center for Liberal Studies, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

***Abstract*—The issue of poor communication skills among undergraduates, which hamper their performance during internship and employment, has been researched extensively in the literature. However, empirical studies on what the interns have gained and learnt from the internship have not been widely explored. This paper presents the findings of a study of Accounting interns' experiences in their English communication during their six-month internship at respective companies in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The study employed a qualitative research method using semi-structured interviews with five undergraduate interns from the Faculty of Economics and Management of a public university in Malaysia. Interviews with the managers and supervisor who were in charge of the respondents were also carried out. The interview data was transcribed verbatim, coded and analyzed into specific themes and subthemes using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step thematic analysis. The interns' data was triangulated with supervisor and managers' views and validated by three independent coders using the Cohen's Kappa Reliability Test. The findings of the study show that during the internship, the accounting interns gained valuable experience in practicing their English communication skills, which included opportunities to communicate with clients, colleagues and supervisors, enhance professional communication, learn new terms and knowledge and lastly improve their self-confidence. The language and communication skills in which the interns were still lacking need to be addressed by the university in its efforts to produce Accounting graduates who are competent in English communication.**

***Index Terms*—Internship, Accounting Interns, Communication Experiences, English Communication Skills**

I. Introduction

Communication is one of the employability skills necessary to determine a graduate's success in entering the workforce (Suarta et al., 2017). It is stated that accountancy graduates are highly sought after by the industry, though they are reported to be lacking in their communication skills. University needs to provide the relevant measures to enable undergraduates to gain the required communication skills for employment. Employers in studies by Jaafar et al. (2018), Kadir and Noor (2015) blamed graduates' preference for using the Malay language in the workplace as a barrier to effective communication in English. They asserted that the wide use of Malay language in classes and lectures in some universities and peer pressure were hindrances to the English communication skills of accounting graduates at workplace.

Internships have long been recognized in providing valuable learning experience to connect undergraduates with the real world outside. Evidently, an effective and meaningful internship will help undergraduates become knowledgeable, and skilful in their future jobs. Lecturers and supervisors also assert that internships provide students with both the technical and soft skills required in the marketplace, as Maelah et al. (2014) noted that most employers were satisfied with the interns' performance in relation to job competency, responsibility and compliance with working requirements. However, it was found that interns faced problems in communicating their ideas and preparing technical reports, as asserted by Sawani et al. (2016), and this deficiency was noted amongst the Malaysian undergraduates. Many managers and supervisors have cited undergraduates' poor command of English as a barrier to them being hired (Sarudin et al., 2013; Saleh & Murtaza, 2018).

This study was conducted to explore the experiences of Accounting undergraduates, focusing on their English communication skills during their six-month internship at several companies. This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the Accounting interns' experiences of English language communication during their internship?
2. How has the internship improved the English communication skills of the Accounting interns?

II. Literature Review

Findings from the TalentCorp Survey (2015) indicate that firms' collaboration with universities is limited, with 90% of the firms surveyed stressing the importance of providing more practical training for undergraduates. This triggers the importance of a structured training or internship by the universities to prepare undergraduates professionally before they enter the job market. The company plays a crucial role in helping to develop not only the interns' knowledge and skills in their field of study, but also their soft skills such as communication skills and other relevant skills.

A. English Communication Skills of Accountants

The TalentCorp Survey on Graduate Employability (2015) proposed ways to improve the quality of future accountants. It is reported that 122 employers supported an increased focus on improving communication skills at schools and universities, as shown in Figure 1 below. University administrators had been advised by the 127 employers to meet industry requirements in their Accounting syllabus. Consequently, the universities need to provide a curriculum that is capable of producing future employees who are not only competent in their respective career fields but are also able to demonstrate the effective communication skills required for their future job.

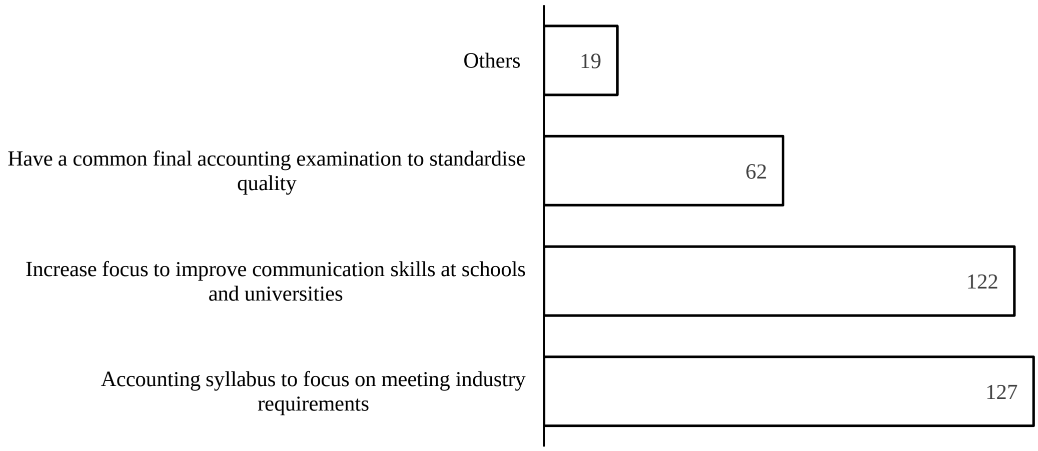


Figure 1 Ways to Improve the Quality of the Accounting Profession
Source: TalentCorp Survey on Graduate Employability (2015)

Tan and Fawzi (2017) studied the employability skills required of accountants in Australia and New Zealand as indicated in job advertisements. The most sought-after skills included the ability to collaborate with colleagues, present, discuss and defend views, and having a positive attitude. Employers perceived being a team player with a positive attitude and good communication skills to be the most valued behavioral skills that accountants should possess. A similar result is found in Ghani et al. (2018), where employers in the private sector required communication skills for Accounting graduates job placements and communication was perceived as one of the important soft skills that Accounting graduates should possess.

There are various forms of workplace communication, including oral communication, written communication and interpersonal communication. Written communication for Accounting interns mostly involves writing letters, emails and reports; while other forms include applications, proposals, applications for promotion, purchase orders and publications relating to permanent staff. Meanwhile, oral communication includes meetings, client interviews and oral presentations. In this study, only the oral and written communication skills of the Accounting interns were examined. This study did not include interpersonal communication skills.

Riley and Simons (2016) studied the importance of written communication skills for entry-level Accounting graduates, such that specific written communication skills errors are considered the most bothersome in the profession. The study discovered that 79% of practitioners believed that written communication skills were considered in hiring decisions and 84% of respondents believed that these skills were essential for entry-level Accounting graduates. However, 72% of Accounting faculties believed that there was currently a serious problem with written communication skills among Accounting students. Sawani et al. (2016) found that the interns in their study "were not technically equipped with competency skills required by the employer" (p. 352) related to reporting and communication skills which were found to be less satisfactory. Saad and Idris (2015) reported that the Accounting graduates who completed their internship had relatively low ability in written English, although their prospective employers claimed the graduates possessed adequate soft-skill competencies that would enable them to compete in the global job market. According to Riley and Simons (2016), most Accounting faculties who have taught for several decades would likely agree that today's students' communication skills are not better than those of previous past students.

B. English Communication at Workplace

Previous studies have shown that the workplace is a site where researchers can glean much useful information about professional communication (Evans, 2010; Louhiala-Salminen, 2002). The workplace is the best site where interns can learn much about their future workplace communication needs. It is in this setting where they learn how to handle workplace tasks that facilitate their experiential learning (Kolb, 2015) and interact with colleagues who are experienced members of their community of practice (Wenger, 1998). According to Mikkola and Valo (2020), the process of building communication with the workplace community and among its members begins with "a shared understanding of job responsibilities and then progresses to the identification of communication practices and the analysis of both work and communication processes" (p. 179). Machart (2017) wrote about interns' experiences in Malaysian tertiary language education and reported of an intern whose internship was beneficial because she received sufficient direction and assistance not just from her supervisor, but also from her co-workers. The workplace, specifically the boss and/or co-workers, appears to be the point of entry for undergraduate integration, according to Machart (2017).

Related research on English language communicative needs in the workplace in Malaysia has mostly been conducted with Engineering undergraduates (Kassim & Ali, 2010; Marzuki et al., 2013; Abdullah et al., 2014). According to Abdullah et al. (2014), participation in communicative tasks such as meetings, discussions, presentation and socialising with colleagues would only be possible if undergraduates have the language skills and necessary language competencies to express themselves. Similarly, in Heang et al. (2019) Accountancy respondents believed that their communication skills were inadequate and adversely affected their performance in their jobs.

University prepares undergraduates by providing the knowledge and skills required in workplace communication from the several English courses that are offered. Gu (2020) considered Business English, a branch of English for Special Purposes (ESP) as a practical course which is closely related to a profession. According to Gu (2020), cooperative learning is an effective teaching model which can "cultivate students' business practice ability, language competence and cross-cultural communication ability" (p. 1172). These three aspects are highly sought after by future employers and companies. Rebele and Pierre (2019) emphasized that the Accounting faculty plays an important role in helping to develop students' knowledge and soft skills through various activities both inside and outside of the classroom. However, according to Siriwardane et al. (2015), the oral and written communication tasks that involve interns in the workplace are similar to those areas where students often receive limited guidance in their Accounting program

C. Impact of Internship on Undergraduates' Knowledge and Skills

Internships are regarded as being helpful in enabling students to develop a professional identity, professional competence and generic workplace skills (Pham et al., 2018; Gribble, 2014; Sawani et al., 2016; Maelah et al., 2012). Interestingly, there is great concern from past studies where universities were urged to develop certain areas where interns and graduates were considered weak. This includes improvement in workplace communication skills in English (Sanahuja & Ribes, 2015; Gribble et al., 2015; Siriwardane et al., 2015). Maelah et al. (2012) reported that the Accounting students develop various soft skills including time management, oral communication and working in group during their internships. Sawani et al. (2016) reported that most employers were satisfied with interns' performance in relation to job competency, responsibility and compliance with working requirements.

Maelah et al. (2014) carried out a study to examine the benefits, skills, and outcomes students gained through an internship from the perspective of students, university and employers. The results showed all three groups of stakeholders concluded that students benefitted from the internship program, such that it provided the students with both the technical and soft skills required in the marketplace. Abu et al. (2011) studied the Business and Accounting students' views on industrial internships and found that their career was the most important aspect, followed by soft skills, knowledge and practical experience. Evidently, students gained several benefits from the internship in terms of the various soft skills, which included workplace communication skills in English. However, in-depth studies of experiences of workplace English communication during internships remain limited. Most studies on the impact of an internship were based on the results of questionnaires sent to undergraduates and employers. For this reason, Abdullah et al. (2014) called for a semi-structured study that brings together the perspectives of multiple stakeholders.

Companies who are engaged in the university internship placement programs must be committed to providing valuable workplace learning experience to interns. According to Szadvari (2008), management must be committed to create challenging, meaningful, and relevant work assignments for students; and aim to provide frequent and constructive feedback. O'Donovan (2018) believed the managers in the industry and host organisations could benefit from the newcomers' learning opportunities and opening them up to new ideas and skills – particularly in applying new technologies. He discovered that the undergraduates achieved "full participation in their respective communities of practice" (O'Donovan, 2018, p 126), despite a relatively short period of internship.

The internship should ideally seek to broaden the scope of work-related experiences, rather than focusing on tasks based on interns' existing knowledge. Interns should be given more time to be actively involved in the overall workplace experience, rather than them being mere passive observers during the progress of the internship. To achieve a meaningful workplace learning experience, supervisors are advised to assign varying levels of tasks and monitor the interns' performance in completing them. However, despite the importance of the internship and the roles of the management, empirical studies on how the tasks assigned help improve English communication skills of interns have not been extensively investigated and discussed in the literature. Reports on Accounting undergraduates' English language experiences during internship are still lacking; thus, this study explores the interns' six-month experiences of using English during their workplace communication with the experienced members of their community of practice (Wenger, 1998).

III. Methodology

A. Research Design

The study adopts a qualitative research design in collecting its data on the experiences of the Accounting interns in their English communication during the internship. It enables the researcher to understand how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their words and what meaning they attribute to their experiences (Merriam, 2009). Using a qualitative research design, the researcher was able to explore how these Accounting interns were utilizing their English language and communication skills in their professional communication in a real workplace setting.

B. Participants

As qualitative research, purposeful sampling is chosen as the people and sites selected are those that can best help the researcher to understand the central phenomenon, namely the English communication experiences of the Accounting interns. According to Creswell (2008), a detailed understanding of the participants and sites will lead to information that allows individuals to "learn" about the phenomenon or to an understanding that provides a voice to individuals who may not be heard otherwise. The participants of this study are:

(a). Accounting Undergraduates

Five undergraduates who were in their final year at the School of Accountancy at a local public university participated in this study. They were completing an internship training placement at selected company in Kuala Lumpur, three Chartered Accounting Companies (CA) and an Oil and Gas Company (O&G). The interns' English language proficiency was at pre-intermediate and intermediate level, and with a Malaysian University Entrance Test (MUET) band score of 3 to 4 when they registered for the Accounting program. The details of the interns are shown in Table 1.

(b). Human Resource Officers

Two managers and a supervisor in the Human Resource Department from two audit companies where the interns were trained were also involved in this study. They were interviewed separately after the interns themselves had been interviewed.

TABLE 1
PROFILE OF INTERNS

No	Interns	Company	Sex	Age	MUET	Description
1	Int L	CA1	Male	22	4	Friendly and very confident. A student leader.
2	Int K	CA2	Male	22	2	Active in sports and friendly. Less confident with his English ability.
3	Int N	O&G	Male	23	4	Lacking confidence and shy but very hardworking.
4	Int R	O&G	Female	24	3	Friendly and positive. Very confident of herself.
5	Int A	CA3	Male	22	3	A student leader and had joined the students exchange program.

C. Research Instruments

In order to unravel the Accounting undergraduates' experiences in their English communication skills, two research tools methods were employed. These were interviews and observations, which enabled the researcher to triangulate the data obtained. A better understanding of the issue investigated was achieved through the detailed analysis of the data from interviews and observations. The questions devised generally followed the semi-structured question format, so as to elicit substantial data for the research. The interview questions that were used were adopted from the previous studies by Rahmat et al. (2016), Low et al. (2016), Kadir and Noor (2015) who used qualitative research design in gathering their data.

D. Data Analysis

The data analysis for the findings utilized the qualitative method. The responses from the face-to-face, semi-structured interviews with the interns and officers were transcribed verbatim and the occasional language inaccuracies in the interview transcripts are maintained to illustrate authenticity of data. Using NVIVO software, responses from both the interns' and officers' transcript data were individually entered and coded using different themes and subthemes. The interns are referred to as Int L, Int A, Int K, Int N, and Int R to protect their privacy and maintain confidentiality. The managers are referred to as Mgr Int L (signifying Int L's manager) and Mgr Int A, while the supervisor is referred to as Spv Int A. Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step thematic analysis was adopted for the analysis of the data. A content analysis of the interviewees' (Itv) responses was categorized based on several aspects, such as English communication skills and needs, and also the experiences in English communication in the workplace. The themes and subthemes were analyzed, interpreted and later validated by three independent coders using Cohen's Kappa Reliability Test.

IV. FINDINGS

This section discusses the findings from the interns, managers and supervisor's interview data based on the research questions of the study. Excerpts from the semi-structured interviews are used to support the findings and discussion. Some of the findings from the interns' data were triangulated with the data from the two managers and the supervisor.

Most of the respondents responded positively when sharing their experiences regarding their English communication with experienced members of their community of practice, which included clients, colleagues, and superiors (managers, supervisors). The following findings in Table 2 are presented based on the themes, subthemes and sub subthemes identified. The interns' experiences in English communication included their opportunities to communicate in English, enhancing professional communication, learning new words and terms, and improving self-confidence to speak in English.

TABLE 2
INTERNS' EXPERIENCES OF ENGLISH COMMUNICATION AT WORKPLACE

RQ 1	**Experiences**					
Subthemes	Opportunities to communicate in English			Enhancing professional communication	Learning new words/terms	Improving self confidence
Sub Subthemes	With clients	With colleagues	With superiors	Communicate professionally	Accounting terms in English	Use English with non-native speakers
	Audit interviews and meetings	Formal interactions	Clarify tasks	Business emails	Legal terms	Write business e-mails
		Meetings & Discussions	Formal meetings	Formal Business English		Carry out audit field

A. Opportunities to Communicate in English

Opportunities to communicate in English were considered by the interns as invaluable experiences of communicating professionally with the people at their workplace. The internship has enabled the undergraduates to learn and benefit from the exposure to real workplace environments (Pham et al., 2018; Gribble, 2014). The interns were exposed to the authentic use of English in their workplace communication with their clients, colleagues, managers/directors, and supervisors accordingly. They also communicated in English when making telephone calls, making appointments for audit meetings, carrying out audit tasks with clients and their supervisors and during formal meetings. The opportunities identified by the interns are discussed in the following sub-sections.

(a). Communicating With Clients

Communication with clients was one of the important tasks for the interns when carrying out audit interviews. Three of the interns, Int A, L and K communicated in English with clients during the auditing sessions, which were carried out at their clients' office. During their internship, the interns had to interview the company's staff for auditing purposes, which would last a few days. The interview sessions were conducted in English if the company being audited was owned by non-Malays or foreigners.

> ***With client, 100% I will use English*** *because I think it's, it's more professional to use in English and most of the clients is Chinese. So, I don't think so Malay is suitable language to use as a communication.* (Itv Int A)
>
> *If the clients: first language is English, then we have to* ***use English la as a medium communication between the client and us.*** (Itv Int L)

The language that the interns used also depended on the type of company they were auditing. English was widely used by the interns when they were in the auditing meetings. However, for Int L, who was attached to a company that audited small companies and government-linked companies (GLCs), the language used most during the auditing meetings was Malay. Clients from private and non-GLC companies would communicate in English; but with Malay clients and managers in the GLC companies, the Malay language would be widely used. Although Int L's company used the Malay language during the auditing meetings, the audit report would be written in English; as Int L claimed, *"The main language is Malay but* ***the working task is all in English****. As in the* ***submission of accounts is all in English"*** (Itv Int L).

However, a small company delegated the audit meetings for their interns to perform on their own. This was the experience of Int K, who was assigned to carry out an audit interview with his internship partner without the presence of his supervisor or seniors. They had to audit a foreign-owned company, and this was his first time communicating in English with a foreign client. Although Int K was anxious at the beginning, he gradually gained confidence when he was able to communicate with the foreign client in English. He communicated with his client in simple English, using a local Malay accent and common English words, known as Malaysian English (Manglish), as he explained in the following long excerpt:

> *I need to go to client office with my partner, my colleague, which is intern with me. So: just do without senior. We go to our client office do uhm stocktake and then from that, I don't know the, the company is a foreigner. So, I just go and oh foreigner! I just scared first and then we start to talk with me because I,* ***I lead the, the – things, the things. So I try to talk, so I, I see … from that, oh boleh speaking rupanya (can speak actually).*** (Itv Int K)

The internship has given the interns opportunities to communicate in English with clients and discover their language ability during the audit interviews. As for Int K, who was conscious of his lack of proficiency and communication skills in English, when given the opportunity to communicate in English, he was able to perform the tasks assigned. This eventually boosted his confidence to speak in English with his company's client.

(b). Communicating With Colleagues

During the internship, communication with colleagues of various ethnicities and nationalities governs the language choice in use in the workplace. The interns reported that with non-Malay colleagues (such as Indians and Chinese for example), English was commonly spoken even though they could understand and speak Malay, the national language of Malaysia. Among their Malay colleagues, for formal interactions regarding work, the main language used was English. However, some preferred to use the Malay language to ease communication at the workplace, since they shared the same mother tongue.

However, with foreign colleagues who were not Malaysians, the preferred language was English, as they did not understand the Malay language. For instance, Int R, who was attached at a gas and oil company, had Korean and Vietnamese colleagues with whom she communicated in English. As she explained:

> *So yeah and then also I will be trying to communicate with foreign executives. I also have a foreign executive also in my department which is uhm she's from Vietnam. So for yeah umm with umm also from Korea as well. So umm* ***with both of them, I have to communicate in English.*** (Itv Int R)

This finding is similar to the one in Kassim and Ali (2010), whose respondents used English frequently with colleagues from international branches and offices, as English is the major language used at their workplace. For interns who worked with international colleagues and executives at their company, English was the main language used, as these foreign colleagues did not know nor speak the Malay language. Int N and Int R, who were attached to the oil and gas company, shared their experiences of communicating in English with foreign colleagues as Int N explained, "*So basically, for my department, my department is international. So, we have* ***a lot of foreign bosses, colleagues and we need to communicate with them with English****"* (Itv Int N). Likewise, another intern, Int K also used English during his workplace communication with a foreign colleague; as he explained, "***I have an Indian colleague that cannot speak Malay, so I have to speak English*** *with her"* (Itv Int K).

Most of the interns communicated well with their colleagues and seniors during meetings and discussions at the workplace. Int A observed: "*I think there is no uhh problem to communicate with each other****. I can communicate with senior, colleagues,*** *with managers, with the directors"* (Itv Int A). This is supported by Int N: "*But, if in,* ***we sit in a meeting or work related uhm activities, then we need to speak in English****"* (Itv Int N). English was used in formal situations, such as writing emails and attending meetings, as reported by Int R, "*but umm* ***when we want to submit an email, to towards someone then err from there we have to communicate in English*** *or in umm* ***really formal meeting****"* (Itv Int R). As reported by Machart (2017), with sufficient direction and assistance not just from the supervisor, but also from co-workers, an internship is considered beneficial to interns. The workplace, specifically the boss and/or co-workers, appears to be the point of entry for undergraduate integration (Machart, 2017).

Through the internship, the interns were involved in meetings and discussions related to the audit tasks with their colleagues and supervisors. They often referred to their colleagues when they were in doubt of certain tasks assigned to them. An example of this came from Int A regarding the audit procedure that he had to perform: *I think with, usually when I have a problem in audit and maybe in my team, because uhh if you're doing the audit, you have a team. Maybe five people, four or five, depends on the company. And* ***we need to communicate with each other, yeah****. We need to separate the jobs,* ***we need to uhh we need to discuss what is the problem,*** *what is the risk, what is, what we need to do before this audit field.* (Itv Int A)

As Int A was entrusted to perform his job as one of the company's staff as explained by his supervisor, "… *when we go to client place, we will not actually tell them, we brought an intern here… So, most of our interns have to play as a, a staff"* (Itv Spv Int A). Int A carried out the tasks assigned to him like other senior staff during the company's auditing meetings and this supports the assertion of Abdullah et al. (2014), which holds that undergraduates who have the language skills and competencies would be able to participate in the communicative tasks such as meetings and discussions with colleagues.

Consequently, the challenging tasks assigned to the interns during the internship have not only helped them familiarize themselves with the real work environment but have also broadened their experience in English communication with the audit team. The interns evidently did face communication problems during the first two months of their internship; however, as they progressed and shared the work tasks, they eventually developed their communication skills. The supervisor to Int A commented, "*After some time, I think* ***after two months or one month****, they simply* ***casually talking with us*** *uh" (*Spv Int A). This concurs with the explanation given by Mikkola and Valo

(2020), such that workplace communication begins with a shared understanding of job responsibilities and then progresses to the identification of communication practices and processes.

However, during informal interactions with Malay colleagues, the interns admitted that the language they often used was Malay, the mother tongue, especially when they were talking about daily life. According to Int R, she used both Malay and English in her informal conversation with colleagues, "***But informal meeting, we can like you know rojak (mix), err just mix everything***" (Itv Int R). But with non-Malay colleagues, English was much preferred, as the interns wanted to improve their English communication skills and as emphasised by Heang et al. (2019); where their respondents regarded their internship as an experience that enabled them to maintain conversations with colleagues and clients and share ideas with their employers. Consequently, Siriwardane et al. (2015) urged universities to "find ways to sharpen graduates' informal speaking skills" (p. 14) besides the emphasis on formal presentations; so that they would become proficient and confident in using the English language in all situations.

(c). Communicating With Superiors

Communication with superiors at each intern's workplace involved the supervisors and the managers or Head of the Human Resource Department of the company. The interns would communicate in English with the managers/directors, but some of the interns communicated more often with their supervisors than with their managers/directors. They communicated with their manager in English when reporting certain tasks assigned to them, and also while they were in meetings together with the executives, their supervisors, and colleagues. Int A explained, "*… we easily can communicate with each other. For example,* ***I can communicate with my director easily****. If I have, if I have a problem about uhh about the audit that I'm doing"* (Itv Int A).

Unlike Int A who had many opportunities to communicate with his manager, Int R and N rarely communicated with their superiors in top management professionally because there was no necessity for them to do so. However, Int N explained that he did communicate with his manager in informal situations. Nonetheless, his communication was in the Malay language as his manager is a Malay. He explained, "*We have a Senior Manager, Malay, I think uhm basically because we not uhm we never have some work related to him. So basically, I would like,* ***basically informal talk to him in Malay****"* (Itv Int N). This finding shows that some interns communicated in English during formal interactions with their managers and directors but opted to use the Malay language in informal interactions because they share the same mother tongue. The importance of informal speaking skills should not be denied, and these skills should be taught alongside the formal language, which has a greater emphasis and is taught at university (Siriwardane et al., 2014).

However, for Int L, who worked at a Malay-owned audit company (AC1) where Malay was the main language used at the workplace, he personally preferred to speak to his manager in English. He only communicated in the Malay language when his manager was together with other office staff; as he shared, *"Uhm: it depends on the situation. If we are in a clique, or a group, we just uh spoke Malay. But personally,* ***I prefer to speak in English with her****"*. (Itv Int L). Int L's preference of communicating in English was validated by his manager who remarked*, "I think* ***dia (he is) more comfortable in English****. Samada dia rasa itu adalah (Probably he feels that), he should present himself in English so that he has the: apa ni (what's that), extra merit point"* (Itv Mgr Int A). Int L's manager believed that Int L's preference to use English in their communication was because he felt more comfortable speaking in English, and that it is the way Int L felt he should present himself. Being a proficient speaker of English, Int L was more comfortable and confident communicating in English.

As shown in the above findings, most of the interns actively engaged in communication at workplace with the experienced members of their community of practice: their supervisors, colleagues and even managers. This had a positive impact on their communication skills in English. This positive attitude towards communication in an interactive environment with extensive opportunities to communicate in the workplace is outlined by Mikkola and Valo (2020) as engaging in interaction, being interactive, creating interactivity, and communicating interactively. With the good interpersonal relations that the interns had developed and with plenty of opportunities contribute to well-functioning workplace communication, and thus improve the English communication skills of the interns.

B. Enhancing Professional Communication

Professional communication includes skills in written, oral, visual and digital forms. Thus, interns who possess effective communication skills will be able to improve themselves professionally and deliver communication effectively. The following findings exemplify how the internship has helped the interns enhance their professional communication experiences in English. Being aware of the need to communicate using formal and professional language with the people at their workplace, the real work setting and situation exposed them to the ways of communicating professionally in writing and speaking.

Int A learnt the importance of listening correctly and delivering the message well to his clients. He knew that the consequence of not listening and delivering the message well would cause misunderstandings, which should be avoided in his work; as he explained, "***I need to communicate professionally with my clients****, I need to deliver my message very well and I need to receive the information correctly. If not, something will uhh, some misunderstanding will happen"* (Itv Int A). Similarly, Int L knew that the form of communication he was dealing with at the workplace was not the daily conversation of English but formal interaction, using business terms and language. Int L mentioned, "*I guess it just add up* ***my business language*** *…* ***More formal, business formality****"* (Itv Int L). Through the internship, the interns learnt the importance of using formal language in their professional communication and the need for them to acquire it fast so as to enable them to perform the tasks assigned effectively.

The importance of professional communication is also shared by Int R, who felt that the improvement in communication skills she made during her internship was in terms of speaking in a professional way. As she recounted, "*Okay, **it improve like umm for me to how to speak in a professional way**"* (Itv Int R). She was also concerned with her email writing, to the point that she was checking it constantly with her supervisor to make sure it was professionally written. She knew that the choice of words and the style of language used were important when writing a professional email in the workplace. She describes this in the following excerpt: "*Err in terms of writing an email.. err before I send the email, I umm: show her, is my - is my sentence correct? **Is it professional enough?*** (Itv Int R)

With this awareness of the importance of professional communication, the interns tried hard to use it in their oral and written communication at the workplace. In ensuring that they could communicate correctly and professionally, they consulted the more experienced staff at the workplace often. Through their positive attitude towards improving themselves in their professional communication, the interns were able to move forward, learn and practice within the workplace context and the community in which they were working. Consequently, these interns developed professional communication skills during their internship.

C. Learning New Words and Terms

Employees in the accounting profession deal with specific terms and Accounting jargon in the English language while at the workplace. Undeniably, this would be more challenging for interns who lack work experience. This is especially true for the interns in this study who were taught Accounting courses in the national language, the Malay language. The interns benefit from learning new Accounting terms and jargon during their internship, despite the difficulties they faced in grasping and understanding the terms and jargon in the English language. The following excerpts show the interns' responses to their new learning experience:

> *From there, umm yeah I learn a lot**, I learn a lot of umm you know the words** I've never heard before.* (Itv Int R)
>
> ***We learn many new words.** I learn many new words, yeah. Actually words. Oh yeah.* (Itv Int N)
>
> *Uhm… I guess it just add up my business language la. Not-not the daily conversation of English. But ... uhh a few… not slangs**. Terms, different terms.** More formal, business formality.* (Itv Int L)

Upon learning new Accounting words and terms in English, the interns were inevitably required to use the words in their workplace communication. For Int N, who was placed in a department that dealt with international operations, learning the legal terms was a really challenging task that he had to master in order to accomplish the tasks assigned to him effectively. He had to produce a Board Paper which is a written report to be submitted to his superior for the board meeting. Int N had to provide important information to the board members regarding certain oil and gas operations in a country abroad.

> *We never learn that things even though it's related to our finance and everything **but it's something new.** That we **need to use the legal terms** like very- very legal.* (Itv Int N)
>
> *Board paper, board paper. Actually**, it's like alien to me, something new,** yeah.* (Itv Int N)

The interns perceived the need for them to deal with new words and to learn these during the internship as new knowledge that they needed to acquire and familiarise themselves with. As Int L remarked, "*So I got, uh I just need to push myself to understand and just **make myself, familiar with the terms of Accounting**"* (Itv Int L). The learning of new words and terms during the internship has exposed the interns to real and authentic use of workplace English for communication. The interns are able to learn about their future workplace communication needs when they are involved in handling workplace tasks during their internship.

D. Improving Self-Confidence

The interns also reported that through the English communication opportunities, they had improved their self-esteem, and this had made them more confident to communicate in English. Int K and N both had foreign officers at their workplaces who did not understand nor speak the Malay language, and this had a profound impact on them as they had to use English when communicating with these members of staff. The situation resulted in them having to communicate in English and consequently, being given the opportunity to use the language frequently during the internship boosted their confidence level. Int K explained, "*I, I have two foreigners in our office. So sometime from that, would uh **increase my, my self-confidence to speak with them**"* (Itv Int K).

Despite the lack of proficiency in English, Int K was able to carry out the audit stocktake meeting that was assigned to him by his company. He was able to motivate himself and gained the courage to communicate in English with his client who was a native speaker of English. He was able to understand the native speaker's accent during his audit interview and more importantly, this experience made him confident in using the language he had been learning for many years but did not fully utilize.

Another intern, Int N, also gained a lot of experience through the internship, and it helped him learn how to speak in English. He said, "*Help me a lot. Because before this: I even cannot speak in English. So basically **it boosts my confidence level** and err teach me how to speak to others"* (Itv Int N). Int R also shared the same experience as Int K and Int N, where she felt the internship had helped her gain confidence in her speaking skills. According to Int R, "*After I've gone through my internship I think, umm**… I think, I'm more confident with my umm speaking"*** (Itv Int R).

The findings show the interns valued the opportunities to communicate in English during their internship, and the opportunities to learn new words and terms to become efficient accountants. Enhancing professional communication and improving self-confidence were also important for some of the interns in their efforts to improve their communication skills in English, especially among the interns who lacked the language proficiency and adequate skills. The support of the management and staff of the company also helps the interns in becoming better communicators at workplace. Thus, the success of interns' placements in the workplace can be achieved "if companies fulfil their obligation to support and mentor their new staff" (Machart, 2017, p. 15).

V. Conclusion

Given the opportunities to communicate in English, each intern has his or her own unique English communication experiences during the internship. The interns responded very positively to the new experiences they had gained at their respective companies during their internships. The internships played an important role in enriching the interns' language proficiency and improving their English workplace communication skills. The findings show that most of the interns were actively engaged in various communication opportunities at the workplace with the experienced members of their community of practice, namely their supervisors, colleagues, clients and even managers –who had all contributed significantly to their communication skills in English. The good interpersonal relations that the interns had developed and the opportunities given to engage in interactions had clearly contributed to the well-functioning workplace communication experienced by the interns. The real workplace situations that they experienced made them aware of the need to communicate using formal and professional language when dealing with workplace matters with clients, colleagues and superiors. Consequently, the interns enhanced both their oral and written professional communications when carrying out the tasks assigned to them. Through this internship, the interns discovered new things, such as the use of a certain language register with specialized terms, as well as the jargon that is commonly used in the real Accounting workplace setting. Eventually, they realised the ultimate need to equip themselves with the necessary terms and jargon deemed important to maintain their workplace English communication with the professional staff at their workplace. Consequently, the internship has boosted their self-confidence, which eventually motivated them to improve their proficiency and communication skills in English.

References

[1] Abdul Kadir, K., & Wan Mohd Noor, W. S. (2015). Students' awareness of the importance of English language proficiency with regard to future employment. *World Review of Business Research*, *5*(3), 259-272.

[2] Abu, M. J., Yusof, K. N. C. K., & Tahir, I. M. (2011). Business and Accounting Students Perceptions on Industrial Internship Program. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*, *1*(3), 72-79.

[3] Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.

[4] Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey. Pearson

[5] Evans, S. (2010). Business as usual: The use of English in the professional world in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes, 29*(3): 153-167.

[6] Ghani, E. K., Rappa, R., & Gunardi, A. (2018). Employers' perceived accounting graduates' soft skills. *Academy of Accounting and Financial Studies Journal, 22*(5), 1-11.

[7] Gribble, C. (2014). Employment, work placements and work integrated learning of international students in Australia. *International Education Association of Australia, Research Digest*, *2,* 1-10.

[8] Gribble, C., Blackmore, J., & Rahimi, M. (2015). Challenges to providing work integrated to international business undergraduates at Australian universities. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning, 5*(4): 401-416.

[9] Gu, J. (2020). Problems and Countermeasures of Cooperative Learning in Business English. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *10*(9), 1167-1172.

[10] Heang, L. T., Ching, L. C., Mee, L. Y., & Huei, C. T. (2019). University education and employment challenges: An evaluation of fresh accounting graduates in Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 9*(9), 1061-1076.

[11] Jaafar S. N., Zakaria, N., & Abd Rasheid, N. (2018). Career choice and employability skills for vocational college undergraduates. *Journal of Physics Conference Series, 1049*(1):012050. IOP Publishing.

[12] Kassim, H. & Ali, F. (2010). English communicative events and skills needed at the workplace: Feedback from the industry. *English for Specific Purposes*, *29*,168–182.

[13] Kolb, D. A. (2015). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

[14] Louhiala-Salminen, L. (2002). The fly's perspective: Discourse in the daily routine of a business manager. *English for Specific Purposes*, *21*(3): 211-231.

[15] Low, M. B., V., Dela Rue. D., & Allen, J. (2016). Accounting employers' expectations - The ideal accounting undergraduates. *e-Journal of Business Education & Scholarship of Teaching, 10*(1), 36-57.

[16] Machart, R. (2017). The implementation of industrial training in tertiary education in Malaysia: Objectives, realisations and outputs in the case of foreign language students. *International Review of Education, 63*(1), 103-122.

[17] Maelah, R., Aman, A., Mohamed, Z. M., & Ramli, R. (2012). Enhancing soft skills of accounting undergraduates through industrial training. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 59*, 541-549.
[18] Maelah, R., Muhammaddun Mohamed, Z., Ramli, R. & Aman, A. (2014). Internship for accounting undergraduates: comparative insights from stakeholders. *Education + Training, 56*(6), 482-502.
[19] Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. San Francisco*: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
[20] Mikkola, L., & Valo, M. (Eds.). (2020). *Workplace communication*. Abingdon: Routledge.
[21] O'Donovan, D. (2018). Bilateral benefits: Student experiences of work-based learning during work placement. *Industry and Higher Education, 32*(2): 119-128.
[22] Pham, T., Saito, E., Bao, D., & Chowdhury, R. (2018). Employability of international undergraduates: Strategies to enhance their experience on work integrated learning (WIL) programs. *Journal of Teaching and Learning for Graduate Employability, 9*(1), 62–83.
[23] Rahmat, N., Ayub, A. R., & Buntat, Y. (2016). Employability skills constructs as job performance predictors for Malaysian polytechnic graduates: A qualitative study. *Geografia, 12*(3), 154-167.
[24] Rebele, J. E., & Pierre, E. K. S. (2019). A commentary on learning objectives for accounting education programs: The importance of soft skills and technical knowledge. *Journal of Accounting Education, 48*, 71-79.
[25] Riley, T. J., & Simons, K. A. (2016). The written communication skills that matter most for accountants. *Accounting Education, 25*(3), 239-255.
[26] Sanahuja Vélez, G., & Ribes Giner, G. (2015). Effects of business internships on students, employers, and higher education institutions: A systematic review. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 52*(3), 121-130.
[27] Sawani, Y., Abdillah, A., Rahmat, M., Noyem, J. A., & Sirat, Z. (2016). Employer's satisfaction on accounting service performance: A case of public university internship program. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 224*, 347-352.
[28] Siriwardane, H. P., & Durden, C. H. (2014). The communication skills of accountants: what we know and the gaps in our knowledge. *Accounting education*, *23*(2), 119-134.
[29] Siriwardane, H. P., Low, K. Y., & Blietz, D. (2015). Making entry-level accountants better communicators: A Singapore-based study of communication tasks, skills, and attributes. *Journal of Accounting Education*, *3*3(4), 332-347.
[30] Suarta, I. M., Suwintana, I. K., Sudhana, I. F. P., & Hariyanti, N. K. D. (2017). Employability skills required by the 21st-century workplace: A literature review of labour market demand. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, 102*(58), 337-342.
[31] Szadvari, L. (2008). Management buy-in: The most crucial component of successful internship programs. *NACE Journal*. 1-8. https://www.uis.edu/sites/default/files/inline-images/managementbuyin.pdf.
[32] *TalentCorp Survey on Graduate Employability*. (2015). https://www.talentcorp.com.my/clients/TalentCorp_2016_7A6571AE-D9D0-4175-B35D-99EC514F2D24/contentms/img/publication/Matching-Talent-to-Job-1.pdf. Retrieved 22 March 2022.
[33] Tan, L. & Fawzi, L. (2017). *Employability Skills Required of Accountants*. SHS Web of Conferences. 34. 06001. 10.1051/shsconf/20173406001.
[34] Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *Systems Thinker*, *9*(5), 2-3.

Faridah Musa is currently a EdD candidate for the Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Bangi, Selangor. She holds a Master's Degree in English Language Studies from UKM. Her research interests include Communication Strategies, Language Learning Skills and Employability Skills.

Melor Md Yunus is a Professor and PhD supervisor at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She is best known for establishing the integration of ICT in teaching and learning English as a Second Language research. She contributed to developing the PERMATApintar National Gifted Centre in Malaysia in 2009. She is active in scholarly journal writing and publishing. She has been cited almost 600 times and she has an author SCOPUS h-index of 11.

Zarina Othman is the Deputy Director of Center for Liberal Studies at Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). She obtained her Bachelor degree in Kent University UK, her Masters from University of Malaya in 2007, and her Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics in Lancaster University, UK in 2007. Her research interests include academic discourse, linguistics sexism, ELT and ESP Teaching and Language and Communication.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 911-916, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.12

A Practical Study on Foreign Language Anxiety of College Students in Online Classes

Zhuying Li
School of Management, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, China

Lei Du
School of International Studies, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, China

***Abstract*—In the spring of 2020, due to the outbreak of COVID-19, college students in China had to take online classes at home. The present paper aims to explore whether college students suffer more anxiety in online classes and what factors may affect students' anxiety. The study finds that in addition to demographic variables like age and gender, factors such as grade, English test scores, self-concept, and network stability can lead to students' anxiety. Constructive suggestions are given to alleviate students' anxiety and improve learning effect.**

***Index Terms*—online classes, language anxiety, English learning, college students**

I. Introduction

The past two years have witnessed the prevalence of the pandemic COVID-19 throughout the world. While threatening the health of people, COVID-19 has also profoundly changed people's way of life and learning style. Under the government's call of "classes suspended but learning continues", millions of learners, from primary school students to college students, by applying such platforms as Tencent Classroom, Dingding, Chaoxing, and Cloud Class, had online classes during the spring season in 2020 and 2022.

Foreign language anxiety has long been a concern of researchers and foreign language experts, who believe that anxiety is one of the key factors that may affect the effect of language learning. It is acknowledged that English learning anxiety is popular among Chinese English learners. Do college students also have anxiety in online classes? If so, what are the causing elements and how to reasonably alleviate learners' anxiety and stimulate their learning interest? These are the questions to be probed into in the present paper.

II. Theoretical Backgrounds

A. *Foreign Language Anxiety*

Anxiety is one of the common emotions of human beings, which is usually manifested by a person in face of a threat or a situation beyond his control. Anxiety plays a dual role in dealing with threat or danger, one being positive and the other being negative. For the former, people in anxiety will take effective measures to tackle the problem till it is successfully solved; for the latter, people in anxiety may spoil the whole thing and lead it to failure.

Foreign language anxiety is a specific type of anxiety closely related to foreign language performance, which is defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" by Horwitz (1986, p.125), the first scholar to have put forward this concept. Horwitz holds that foreign language anxiety contains three components, namely, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. The first component refers to the fear and the inability of using a foreign language in communication; the second, fear of negative evaluation, refers to the learner's fear of negative comments on his language performance from his teachers and peers; the third, test anxiety, signifies the fear of taking language examinations, the result of which may freak them out. The three components are interrelated, which demonstrates that foreign language anxiety is a threat to a learner's self-esteem. The foreign language classroom anxiety scale formulated by Horwitz and his colleagues is widely used and has become a standard to measure foreign language learning anxiety.

In their research, Maclntyre and Gardner (1993) find that learners are more likely to suffer from negative emotions, like being nervous and uneasy, when they are engaged in foreign language learning. Maclntyre (2007) divides anxiety into three types: trait anxiety, a stable general behavior pattern; sate anxiety, a temporary experience; situation specific anxiety, a recurring feature in a specific situation. Among these three types, the third one, situation specific anxiety, has been the most widely studied in the field of second language acquisition. Research on foreign language anxiety is of great significance, because it will help learners enhance their understanding of language learning and their emotional state, thus making adjustment to ensure good learning efficacy.

B. Factors Associated With Foreign Language Anxiety

Various factors, internal or external, may have associations with foreign language anxiety. The factors related to learners include gender, age, personality, self-concept, language ability, motivation and self-evaluation. The factors related to teachers' teaching practice include teachers' classroom facial expressions, attitudes when correcting students' mistakes, classroom teaching rules and the like. Other external factors that might affect foreign language learning anxiety include classroom teaching environment and peer response to language errors (Cheng & Erben, 2012). In the present study, the following factors will be taken into consideration.

Gender is believed to have certain relations with foreign language anxiety. It is believed that female learners tend to have higher level of anxiety in their foreign language study. The research conducted by Maclntyre (2007) has also proved this. It is widely accepted that females are more vulnerable and susceptible to anxiety while males are tougher and have more self-control. However, whether it is always the truth remain inconclusive and debatable.

Grade is also considered as an influential factor that may have an effect on foreign language anxiety. It is found that as the proficiency level of undergraduates gets higher, the learners tend to be less anxious (Liu, 2006). Aydin et al. (2017) assert that lower-grade students suffer more anxiety than higher-grade students in foreign language learning, as they are less confident and inexperienced.

Self-concept is another factor that cannot be neglected. Bailey (1983) contends that competitiveness can lead to anxiety when language learners compare themselves with others. It is found that students with high self-esteem are more likely to be able to deal with anxiety-producing situations. These findings help to explain why students with high-level of language anxiety tend to be more fearful of negative evaluation than their less-anxious counterparts.

In addition, students' living environment, physical condition, emotional state and other factors will also have effects on foreign language anxiety. However, as these are relatively personalized factors, it is not involved in our study.

III. Differences Between Online Teaching and Traditional Teaching

Being a new product of modern technology, online teaching differs a lot from traditional teaching with respect to teaching mode, teaching methods and teaching effect. In online teaching, teachers need to transfer what they plan to teach by virtue of an online platform, while in the traditional classroom, teachers can interact with students on a face-to-face basis. For online teaching, the stability of the network and the proficiency of the teacher's operation of the platform will also affect the learning effect to a large degree.

With regard to teaching methods, for online teaching, teachers need to take such things as the number of students, the duration of the activity and the conditions of the network into consideration. By contrast, in the traditional classroom, teachers are not constrained by the network and platform, which means they can carry out the teaching process more freely.

Thirdly, the traditional evaluation methods usually include attendance, performance in class, completion of homework, and the results of the examination. In online teaching, although students' attendance and the submission of homework can be well recorded by the platform, the supervision of students' online learning effect is relatively poor. The teacher cannot guarantee that the student is listening to him/her attentively, nor can he/she make sure students are not just perfunctorily parroting what they see on-line while taking up their questions orally. For online learning, self-discipline really matters.

IV. Research Design

A. Research Aims

This study aims to explore whether taking online English classes will bring college students more anxiety and why they are anxious, and to find out effective measures to ease the anxiety. The research is intended to find out the answers to the following major questions.

(1) Compared with traditional classes, are students more anxious in online classes?
(2) In what situations are students more anxious?
(3) Does the anxiety have something to do with gender, grade, self-concept and language proficiency?
(4) What are the effective measures to deal with anxiety?

B. Research Methods

The subjects of our research are college students, mainly from School of Management and School of International Studies in Zhejiang University. The research methods involve quantitative study and qualitative study. The questionnaire of this study is designed according to Horwitz's foreign language classroom anxiety scale, which consists of two parts. The first is about the basic information of the participants, including gender, grade, major, and score of College English Test Band 4. The second part contains 24 specific questions, mainly about the participant's anxiety degree before and during the online classes, the situations in which the participant feels anxious, and the participant's attitude towards self-evaluation after the class. The design of the questionnaire can be completed through a platform called "Wenjuanxing" ("Questionnaire Star" in English), and then it is distributed to different WeChat groups of the students. The answered questionnaires were collected and analyzed automatically by the software.

Another method, interview, is also employed in our study. We interviewed 6 English teachers who teach college English, asking them how they felt about online lessons, whether they noticed the anxiety of students, and what measures they took to alleviate the anxiety of students.

C. Data Collection & Data Analysis

A total of 80 valid questionnaires are collected through “Wenjuanxing”, among which 52 are done by female students and 28 are by male students. In terms of grade, 18 are freshmen, 22 are sophomores, 24 are juniors and 16 are seniors. Among these students, all of them have taken the College English Test Band 4 (CET-4), but 18 of them failed. The following figure presents the number of male and female students in different grades.

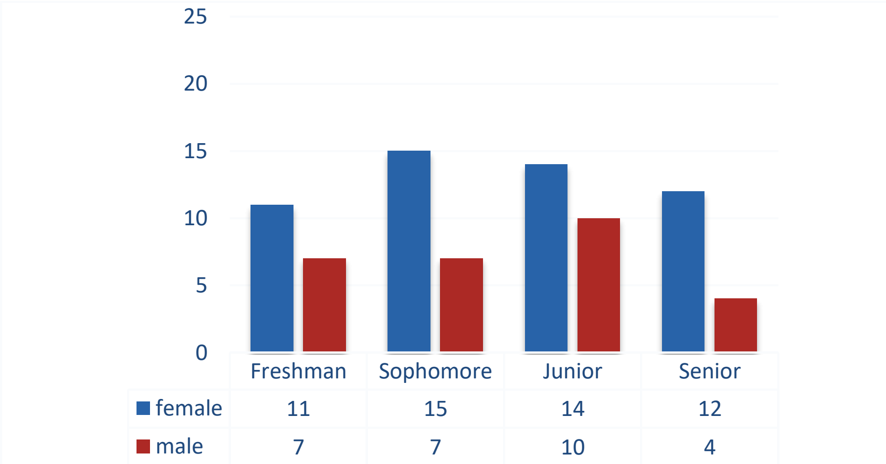


Figure 1 The Number of Students in Different Grades

The data having been collected, the possible correlations of language anxiety with gender, grade, self-concept and other elements are easy to find. The following line chart indicates the percentage of male and female students in different grades who feel anxious in online English classes. From the chart we can see that as grades rise, the percentage of students who feel anxious declines. Also, it can be found that females are comparatively more anxious than male students.

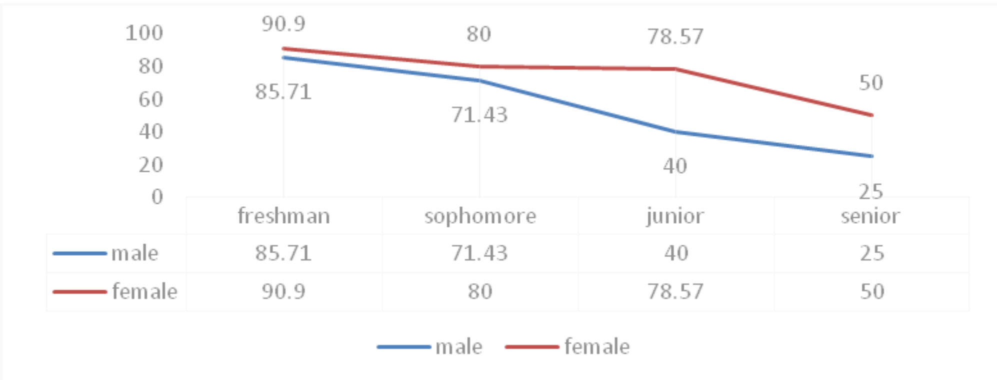


Figure 2 The Percentage of Male and Female Students Who Feel Anxious in Online Classes

As to whether students feel more anxious in online classes than in traditional classrooms, the answer is surprising. 28% of the participants strongly agree and 63% agree that even if they are well prepared for online English classes, they still feel anxious. With regard to the statement “I feel very sure and relaxed before the online English class”, 55% of the participants choose to strongly disagree. Those who strongly disagree with the statement “It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more online English classes” also take up a large percentage.

Among the 80 participants, when asked whether they have passed the College English Band 4 Test, 62 of them have given a positive answer while 18 have failed the test. For those who have passed CET-4, 41 claim that they feel more anxious while taking online classes. On the other hand, 14 out of 18 who have failed the test admit they suffer more anxiety in online classes. It seems that students who have lower language proficiency suffer more anxiety in online English classes. The following chart demonstrates this situation.

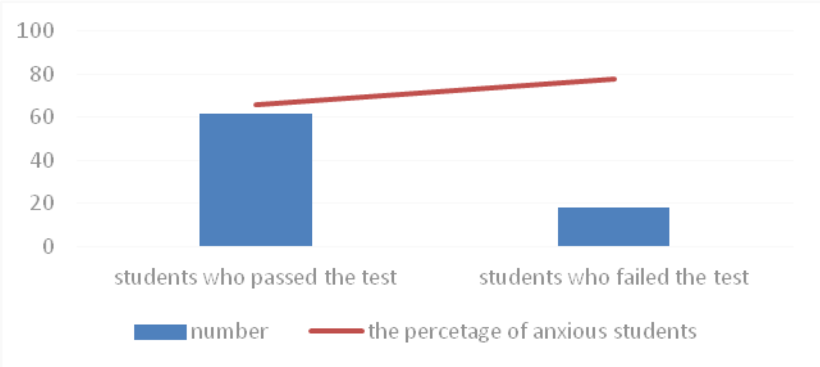


Figure 3 The Correlation Between CET-4 Passers and Language Anxiety

Situations that might lead to students' anxiety in online classes have been provided in the questionnaire. When asked in which situation they feel more anxious, the participants have made different choices. Among them, "speaking without preparation" ranks the first, "being asked to answer questions by the teacher" comes the second, "missing/having doubts about what the teacher said" ranks the third, and such situations as "peers' unfriendly feedback", "the teacher's correction/criticism", and "unexpected in-class quiz" are also on the list, as indicated in Figure 4.

Another influential factor cannot be neglected, which is the stability of the Internet. When asked whether they feel more anxious when they know the condition of the Internet is not good, over seventy-eight percent of the participants expressed their agreement. Zhejiang University is one of top universities in China, with students from all over the country, including those underprivileged from poverty-stricken areas and remote areas. Comparatively speaking, those from poverty-stricken regions have a less solid foundation in English and their English proficiency is lagging behind that of the students from urban cities. Even worse, a small number of students even have no access to the Internet at home and they have to go to some public places to "borrow" the use of the Wi-Fi. Therefore, the more unstable the network situation is, the more anxious they will be.

From the interview with the teachers, we find that the teachers have also noticed the anxiety of their students in online classes. When a student was randomly called to answer a question in class, he/she was often very nervous and even stammered. Some students who missed the attendance checking because of the unstable network will explain to the teacher again and again after class, for fear that the teacher would record his/her absence. In addition, the teachers have also found that junior students are more anxious than senior students, girls are more anxious than boys, students with low English proficiency are more anxious than students who are good at English, and rural students are more anxious than urban students. As a matter of fact, most of the teachers interviewed said that they had also experienced a process of adaptation to online classes: from confusion in the initial stage to the high proficiency a month later, from anxiety to calmness. They said they could understand the students well and they tried their best to help students.

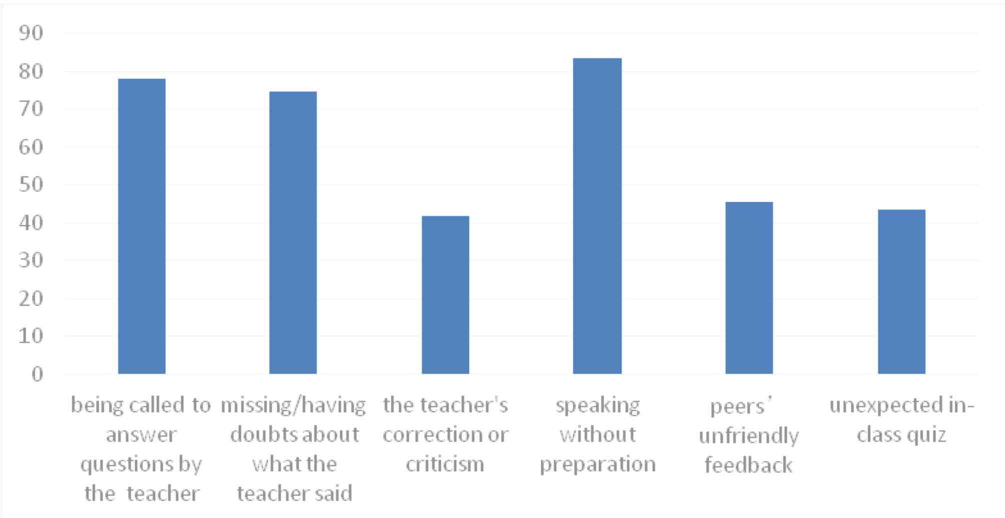


Figure 4 The Percentages of Situations That Cause Language Anxiety

V. Research Findings and Discussions

From the data collected and analyzed through the questionnaire and the interview, it is not difficult to find out the answers to the questions put forward at the beginning of the third part.

Why is it that students seem to be more anxious in online classes than in traditional classrooms? There might be a couple of reasons. Firstly, online class is a new form of education, which is unfamiliar to most students. The uncertainty of this mode of teaching makes students puzzled and even anxious, as they cannot see the facial expressions of the teacher and they don't know when the teacher will ask them to answer questions. Secondly, the stability of the network is not guaranteed, which will occasionally cause certain small "accidents" and make the students embarrassed or worried. Thirdly, in online classes, by taking the advantage of the modern technological facilities, teachers tend to organize more interactive activities and require full involvement of students, which will make students feel uneasy and worried.

Why do female students feel more anxious or stressful than male students in online classes? We think it has something to do with the characteristics of each gender. It is generally believed that females have higher emotional susceptibility than males. They are afraid of losing face and they care a lot about their classroom performance. On the contrary, males are comparatively more confident and composed, which will help them deal with demanding situations skillfully. Another point is that, to a certain extent, female students are more mature in psychological state than male students, so they have a stronger desire to study well and achieve success.

It is understandable that lower-grade students and those who failed the CET- 4 exam suffer more anxiety. Freshmen and sophomores, compared with juniors and seniors, are immature and inexperienced, especially when they are faced with unfamiliar and challenging situations. Therefore, they are more likely to feel anxious and panic when they are unable to answer the teacher's questions or when they have to do presentations before the whole class. Another possible reason is that higher-grade students have a better understanding of themselves and know clearly how to regulate and control their emotions. Even though they sometimes feel anxious in class, they are able to reduce the anxiety to the least degree. As for those who failed in the proficiency test, they tend to experience more anxiety because they lack confidence and feel inferior to other good performers. As they are eager to improve their English proficiency, they may become nervous while answering questions or doing presentations. The more urgent their desire is, the more anxious they are. This can easily form a vicious circle that is hard to break, which will have a negative impact on students' academic performance.

As is mentioned in the previous part, anxiety occurs when students have to speak English without preparation, or when they are asked to answer questions by the teacher, or when they are unable to understand the teacher, or when their answer/performance receives their peers' unfriendly feedback. We deem that a student's reaction to any of these situations has something to do with his self-concept. From the perspective of sociology, a class/classroom is like a miniature society, in which teacher-student and student-student interactions are inevitable. The feedback or evaluation from the teacher and the other students will definitely influence the student. Those with high self-esteem are usually self-disciplined and sensitive, which may cause more anxiety while they are taking online classes. However, there is another possibility. Those who have a clear self-cognition may be more composed and sophisticated; therefore, they have better emotion management ability, which means they have less anxiety in interacting with teachers and classmates in online classes.

VI. Countermeasures to Alleviate Anxiety

With the rapid development of science and technology and the popularization of multimedia teaching equipment, also due to the prevalence of COVID-19, online teaching has become and will continue to be a major form of education. Therefore, to alleviate students' anxiety in foreign language learning is of great necessity. Teachers and students need to make joint efforts to improve the effect of learning.

Teachers should play the role of guidance and supervision, building a practical scaffold for students. Firstly, teachers need to make good use of positive emotional factors. For example, teachers need to regularly give students positive evaluation, which can enhance their confidence and alleviate anxiety. As we all know, eye contact between the teacher and the students can effectively promote the teaching effect. However, due to the limitation of the online class, it is impossible for the teacher to have direct eye contact with his/her students. Under this circumstance, teachers should pay more attention to the integration of teaching resources. Teachers can show students multimodal courseware and create a three-dimensional teaching environment through pictures, sounds and videos to attract students. For the comprehensible input resources required by the course, including video and authenticity supplementary materials related to the theme of the text, teachers can effectively guide students to find and screen them before class, study independently and make use of them. While in class, teachers should strengthen the interaction with students and encourage them to speak more and participate in more classroom activities, thus gradually eliminating their psychological anxiety. In addition, for the school, professional psychological counseling should be provided with and mental health education should be integrated into the teaching processing, which can help release students' pressure and easy anxiety. Last but not least, teachers should give special understanding and care to the students from poverty-stricken areas or poor families, encouraging them to relax, to study hard and to improve learning efficiency.

For the part of students, it is advisable that they try their best to get accustomed to online classes and build up self-confidence through self-study. As is known to all, there are all kinds of English learning resources available on the Internet, which can be obtained easily. Students are encouraged to make full use of these materials to improve their English. If they have a strong interest in English and practice listening and speaking every day by themselves, they will have confidence in themselves and will not be nervous or worried when they are asked to answer questions or do presentations in class. In addition, making full preparations before class is of immense importance, which is also a good learning habit. Students need to get up earlier and check the stability of the Internet, making sure that they can have online classes smoothly. If something unexpected or urgent happens, they should have a Plan B, which will greatly lessen their anxiety. Last but not the least, students should learn to understand that getting a high score in a test is not the most important thing. For a student, the purpose of learning English is to improve his language proficiency, to strengthen his cultural awareness, to develop his critical thinking, and to promote his interpersonal relationship. Only when students fully understand this point can they have a confident, positive, and relaxed attitude towards online learning.

VII. Conclusion

Nowadays, online classes are becoming more and more popular because they are not limited by time and space. However, as a newly emerging thing, its characteristics and efficacy have not been fully recognized. The present research has shown that college students are more likely to suffer anxiety in online classes than in traditional ones. It has been found that students' anxiety in online English classes have certain correlation with gender, grade, test score and their self-concept. Females, lower-grade students, and those with lower scores in CET-4 are suffering more anxiety than their peers in online classes. Moreover, students who lack self-confidence and who care much about their teachers' and their peers' evaluation tend to have higher degree of anxiety. In view of this, constructive suggestions are offered. For teachers, they need to make full use of the modern technology to create a relaxing and harmonious class atmosphere, which will help to ease the students' anxiety. Students are encouraged to build up confidence and face up to the new learning environment bravely, having a clear understanding of themselves and taking positive measures to reduce anxiety. Only when teachers and students work together can they overcome obstacles and improve learning efficiency.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities.

References

[1] Anthony, J., Onwuegbuzie, & Christine, E., & DALEY. (1999). Factors associated with foreign language anxiety. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 20*(2), 217-239.
[2] Aydin, S., Harputlu, L., Celik, S. S., Özgehan Uştuk, & Güzel, S. (2017). Age, gender and grade effect on foreign language anxiety among children. *TEFLIN Journal- A Publication on the Teaching & Learning of English*, *28*(2), 133-154.
[3] Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. Seliger, & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom-oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 67–102). Rowley: MA: Newbury House.
[4] Cheng, R., & Erben, (2012). A. Language anxiety: experiences of Chinese graduate students at U.S. higher institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(5), 477-497.
[5] Dong L.Q. (2021). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and academic achievement of Chinese English Learners: an argument based on meta-analysis. *Foreign Language World, (1)*, 54-61.
[6] Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning, 43*, 157-194.
[7] Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, *70,* 125-132.
[8] Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in Chinese EFL students at different proficiency levels. *System, 34*(3), 301-316.
[9] MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal,* 564-576.
[10] Xu, Y. L. (2022). Research on the Construction of Online Teaching Learning Effect Evaluation Index System. *Journal of Heilongjiang Vocational Institute of Ecological Engineering, 1*, 136-138.

Zhuying Li was born in Yancheng, Jiangsu, China in 2001. She is currently a senior student in the School of Management, Zhejiang University, China. Her research interests include Social Science, Management and Economics.

Lei Du was born in Hangzhou, Zhejiang, China in 1985. He received his PH. D degree in English Language and Literature from Shanghai International Studies University in 2018. He is currently an associate researcher in the School of International Studies, Zhejiang University, China. His research interests include foreign language teaching practice and translation studies.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 917-926, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.13

Developing English for Nurses in Indonesia: From Learning Supporting Tools to Assessment

I Made Rai Jaya Widanta
Mechanical Engineering Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Kampus Bukit Jimbaran Street, Kuta Selatan, Badung-80364, Bali, Indonesia

I Made Ardana Putra
Administration Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Kampus Bukit Jimbaran Street, Kuta Selatan, Badung-80364, Bali, Indonesia

I Wayan Dana Ardika
Civil Engineering Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Kampus Bukit Jimbaran Street, Kuta Selatan, Badung-80364, Bali, Indonesia

Ni Nyoman Ayu Tri Hidayanti
English Letters, Bali Dwipa University, Bali, Indonesia

***Abstract*—This study aimed to develop English for nurses in Indonesia. Specifically, the development included three levels of a test and their supporting tools such as a competency standard, a scoring rubric, curriculum, and a blueprint. The development was conducted for some stages. The research team was comprised of two lecturers, one staff member, and two students. The students were involved in creating the online version of the test. All supporting tools were validated prior to developing and validating the assessment tool. Upon the tests' validation, the supporting tools were then disseminated to nursing students in Bali province and East Java. The nursing students tried the tests for approximately two hours and 40 minutes. The written test, which consisted of listening, reading, and writing, was done for 2 hours and 30 minutes, and the spoken test was conducted for 10 minutes for a couple of students. Following the try-out, the students were also assigned to fill in the questionnaires distributed via Google Form. A public experiment involving 20 lecturers also gave the lecturers a questionnaire to fill in. Both questionnaires required the respondents to provide opinions, suggestions, and comments on the test before the tests were revised. In conclusion, the tests were valid and submitted to the English Competency Test Certification Foundation under the Directorate for Course and Training Advancement, Republic of Indonesia.**

***Index Terms*—assessment tool, English for nurses, competency test, project-based learning**

I. Introduction

The strategic effort undertaken by the government of Indonesia to struggle for and recover economic condition during and especially upon the COVID-19 pandemic era has been to decrease imports and optimise exports. In order to achieve this goal, the government is empowering industries to produce internationally competitive tangible and intangible products. One of these, namely qualified manpower, is in the service area. Many offers in the form of job vacancies especially in the nursing area are regularly forwarded to Indonesia. Nurses are required to help the elderly, work in orphanages or hospitals, provide home care, or be caregivers. Job providers abroad, both government-owned and private foundations, require that job seekers be competent in English for nursing as evidenced by a certificate of competence.

The presence of this specific requirement has seemed demanding for the job seekers because the government and institutions in other countries including those providing the vacancies have not previously required such English competency tests. Thus, all parties are energised to create a standard test to measure candidates' English competency in the nursing area. The endeavour to construct such an assessment tool has been a focus of attention for both the government and scholars as well as English instructors, educators, and researchers. Nevertheless, the target has not come into reality for reasons including shortages of resources, finances, and information about the needs of stakeholders as well as other related information.

The English Competency Test Certification Foundation under the Directorate for Course and Training Advancement, Republic of Indonesia has been assigned to organise the development of English assessment tools in the country. Of the tools successfully developed, none are considered to be a nursing-related assessment. Ironically, requests for an English competency test in the field of nursing increase in line with the increase in manpower needs in the nursing field in some other countries. In addition, the need for English courses, training, or materials related to nursing from private language foundations, English courses, training centres, and the like have also increased from year to year.

The development of an English competency test for nurses has been undertaken in a limited and partial manner in the last two decades. It might be caused by its specific use, people restricted request upon it, and its unfamiliarity among its users. Such a test has neither been found and issued to be used formally in any institution nor publicly sold. Although there have been some academic efforts like reviewing, validating, examining, and even developing nursing-related tests, they have been only partially undertaken. Some studies have been conducted on developing English for nurses' learning materials (Putra et al., 2019), analysing skills learners need in English proficiency tests (Yuyun et al., 2014), developing English speaking materials for nursing students (Fadillah et al., 2018), developing English for nursing materials based on communicative language teaching (Febrijanto et al., 2017), and developing and validating English language teacher competence tests (Pishghadam et al., 2011). However, a wholistic effort to develop an English for nursing competency test and its supporting tools which can help institutions, teachers, instructors, and lecturers instruct, assess, and develop curriculum and materials for English for nurses courses has not yet been made.

Some mere obstacles explained in prior seem to be strongly supportive of the development of such an assessment tool. The Indonesian government relied on the English Competency Test Foundation to develop such a test in order for them to have a tool of measurement for the nurses planning to apply for jobs in other countries. These nurses shall be prepared and provided with training or courses in English for nurses. However, the assessment tool for measuring such competency had not been provided. The government wishes that English courses and trainings would be undertaken not only by government-owned foundations but also by private institutions; however, a number of essential components have not yet been provided and determined, such as learning materials, graduate competence, curriculum, assessment rubrics, and assessment tools. In addition, some research undertaken to support the teaching of English for nurses explained in advance was partially and limitedly done. Some of those studies focused on learning materials in schools and some on analysing learners' or test takers' needs and competency, developing speaking materials, developing English nursing materials based on communicative language skills, and validating English language teacher competence tests. This lacuna drove us to undertake a development of a holistic English for nursing assessment comprising test-supporting components such as curriculum, a graduates' competence frame, assessment rubrics, and assessment tools.

II. Related Studies

A. *The English Competency Test and Its Supporting Components*

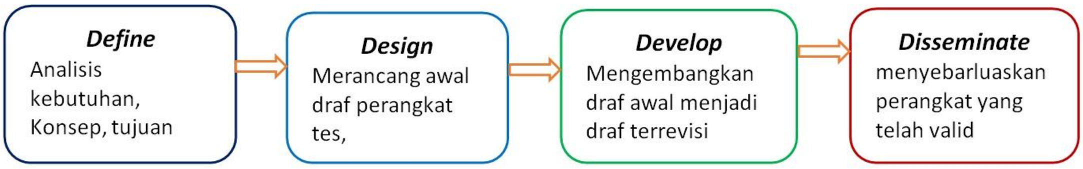
There has been vagueness of comprehension of the difference between proficiency tests and competency tests among people. Basically, an English proficiency test is that which is used to measure one's level of English mastery. This test is used to reveal students' English proficiency or mastery, which is indicated with scores converted into different levels. English tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, IELTS, and TOEP are of this kind. In contrast, an English competency test is a tool which measures one's English competency. A competency test is normally used to measure the depth of someone's understanding of the given topics in a course. English competency for non-English major students is the ability to use any strategies effectively and comprehensively by utilising reading, writing, listening, and speaking as well as translating using academic, global, linguistic, and intercultural knowledge in nay academic activities in class or at work (Zhang, 2021). Thus, test takers should be given training in line with the topics being evaluated in the form of a test. The test result is not shown in the form of numerical scores but rather in the form of an evaluation of 'competent' or 'not competent'. Thus, a competency test requires a descriptor for the examiner to determine the score of test takers.

According to Zhang (2021), in developing English competency for a specific field, it is necessary to include aspects of content or subject matter in the test. The content shall be inserted in test-supporting tools such as a graduates' competency standard, descriptors, an assessment rubric, and curriculum. Graduates' competency shall be determined because it will provide guidance about what competence the test taker shall achieve. A descriptor is usually attached in the assessment rubric. The descriptor contains information related to the description of each score, namely what the test taker shall accomplish in order to achieve a certain score. There are some perceptions of what the descriptor shall include, such as that it shall include skills and elements (Lado, 1961); ignore context (Chomsky, 1969); and use comprehensive tests (Oller, 1976) and knowledge about linguistics, topics, character, strategy, specific situations (Bachman & Palmer, 2010), and communicative language ability (Yan, 2012). Of all concepts, the concept proposed by Lado (1961) is supportive because it covers all language skills. The assessment rubric has to cover three main aspects, namely criteria, the description, and the scoring strategy (Jonsson & Panadero, 2016). Additionally, Chowdhury (2018) states that a rubric is essential for examiners when evaluating students' performance. It can also help examiners comprehend the goal to be achieved, provide informative feedback, and support them in being consistent and fair as well as enhancing better learning.

B. *Development*

This development comprised four main tools supportive of learning activity, namely a students' competence frame, scoring rubrics, curriculum, and a test. The model of development implemented that of 4-D, (i.e., defining, designing, developing, and disseminating; Thiagarajan et al., 1974). The model was chosen because it offers clear stages (Bano, 2018) and systematic steps (Arywiantari et al., 2015). In its implementation, the model was combined with project-based learning which empowered students majoring in information technology (IT) in the role of research team member to support them learning and applying the knowledge they are gaining in university. The development of learning tools using 4-D has been undertaken by many scholars in numerous fields such as mathematics (Nurmanita et al., 2019) and chemistry (Andromeda et al., 2018; Sakdimah & Dewata, 2018) and in 21^{st}-century learning (Djamahar et al., 2018).

The 4-D model seems to be popular among researchers in pedagogical intervention. Some scholars used full stages, and some adopted part of the whole. Some applied it for English learning materials and some others focused on areas apart from English. Some other researchers utilised 4-D combined with other learning models. Nurmanita et al. (2019) developed a learning model of mathematics which involved project-based learning that was found successful. However, learning mathematics is different from learning language, which involves productive and receptive skills. Sakdimah and Dewata (2018) developed a module for chemistry pursuant to 4-D, and Andromeda, Lufri et al. (2018) developed chemistry materials using 4-D paired with the guided inquiry model. Both experiments produced visible learning materials and models. None of this research was in English language learning, which was apart from English both in model and learning tools. This development of learning tools and a test of English for nurses adopted 4-D by Thiagarajan et al. (1974) with the following stages:



C. Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning (PjBL) is an innovative learning approach which provides students with a problem to solve in a project (Thomas & Mergendoller, 2000; Larmer et al., 2003; Bell, 2010). This approach utilises students' prior knowledge so that students are able to discover a concept on their own (Weegar & Pacis, 2012), facilitates students working out their task in a concrete activity (Kriwas, 2007), uses authentic materials in the real world (Ndon, 2011), and prioritises their learning experiences (Kotti, 2008). Through activities such as exploration, discussion, writing reports, and making presentations (Gu Ven, 2014), students are able to activate their communicative skill (Harun, 2006) and improve their autonomous learning skill (Imtiaz & Asif, 2012).

PjBL has been proven effective to improve students' English competency (Imtiaz & Asif, 2012; Rochmahwati, 2016). Apart from its function to improve students' cognitive skill, PjBL has also succeeded in improving their supporting skills such as enthusiasm, self-confidence, creativity, collaboration (Astawa et al., 2017), emotional quotient, learning ability, and enjoyment in learning (Fragoulis, 2009) as well as students' autonomous learning and integrated curriculum development (McCarthy, 2010; Lam, 2011), students' critical thinking (Allan & Stoller, 2005), and vocabulary mastery (Shafaei & Rahim, 2015). Doing projects enables learners to use prior knowledge and energises their language acquisition through group work activities such as discussion, work-presentation inform of the group and other groups. The activities which could attract students' active participation in using their schemata to build new knowledge make the learners pragmatically competent, meaning that they are able to use the language appropriately and effectively (Widanta et al., 2018). In line with this, the success of learners' language acquisition also depends on how teachers give inputs; thus, teachers must provide comprehensible inputs. Inputs benefit learners when they are explicit and comprehensible by means of problem clarification, explicit concept building, and learners' awareness building (Widanta et al., 2020). The more comprehensible the inputs are, the more easily they are processed in the learners' brain and made intakes which will enhance good output. In this case, teachers really have to make learners able to notice as efficiently as possible (Schmidt, 1990; Widanta, 2017).

Students were involved in this research to help develop the online version of the test. The IT students were assigned to participate in developing an online test using the developed offline test. The assignment was in the form of a project done in cooperation with lecturers under the research team including preparing for test development, searching for and collecting materials for the test, and designing the test. The project was also used as the students' final project as a requirement for graduation.

III. Development and Discussion

A. Development

The test development covered some stages because there are a number of test-supporting tools which should be produced, namely doing needs analysis; developing a standard of competency, scoring rubric, and competency-based curriculum; developing a test; validating the standard of competency; trying out the test; and conducting a public test.

(a). Needs Analysis

The initiating stage which was the starting point of all test-developing stages was the needs analysis (NA). NA was done in an attempt to recognise the needs of test users. Thus, in undertaking NA, a number of users including main users and sub-users were involved to provide information about their needs regarding the test. The main user of the test is the English Competency Test Foundation. As the research partner to whom the research output will be granted, the foundation reserves a right from the Directorate for Course and Training Advancement, Republic of Indonesia to utilise the assessment tool to assess the English competency of nurses across the country. The foundation successfully gave the research team general and specific guidance for developing the test. With the assistance of the Directorate for Course and Training Advancement, Republic of Indonesia, the foundation encompassed the test development team namely general issues, format, and general content related to language aspect.

Other sub-users which significantly contributed are parties who offered content input for the competency standard, curriculum, scoring rubric, and test. These parties were lectures at a nursing academy; the National of Indonesian nurse board; teachers from a vocational nursing high school; and nurses working in hospitals who directly interact with the academic side such as teaching, learning, curriculum, and practicum, namely nurses working in hospitals and clinics. The input about content was significantly supportive to embody an appropriate standard of competency of nurses as they introduce the current work of nurses, which is apart from that of doctors or midwives. Apart from a direct method of raising inputs, the research team also searched for content from the syllabi, lesson plans, and learning materials of a number of universities, diplomas, and schools offering nursing programs. The NA succeeded in formulising the content of the competency standard for nurses, the scoring rubric, the curriculum, and the test.

(b). Competency Standard for Graduates

The competency standard for graduates was the first supporting tool developed. This was the basis for formulising other test components. Because the test was made to be integrative and interdependent with other tools such as the learning materials, curriculum, scoring rubric, and competency standard for graduates, the test relies on those items.

There are three levels of the standard of competency pursuant to the levels of the test. Each competency standard has some aspects such as competency unit, competency element, and passing indicator, and the passing indicator covers three subcomponents, namely work competency, knowledge, and attitude.

The competence standard formula was gradually developed with some revision sessions. First, it was developed through some focused group discussion sessions resulting in the competency element containing some work or duties held by nurses. Upon some input from stakeholders, the final formula was successfully determined. The competency units finally contained four language skills, namely listening, reading, writing, and speaking because the test focuses on assessing participants' language, not on content or core competency.

The competency element was then agreed to contain subskills in language that the test takers have to gain, such as expressing or explaining the main idea, explaining the meaning of words or phrases in a certain context, writing words or phrases with correct spelling, writing discourses, using grammar and structure appropriately, using vocabularies appropriately, and pronouncing words or phrases correctly.

The passing indicator contains work or duties the nurses have to complete when using their language skills. It is divided into three parts because there are three levels. Eight items of nurses' work or duties are included in the level 1 standard of competency including (1) starting dialog and exchanging personal and information about a patient; (2) asking and giving information about patient condition; (3) explaining the use of medicine, blood pressure, temperature, and patient height and weight; (4) asking about the foods and drinks consumed by the patient; (5) explaining the patient's pattern of activity and exercises; (6) explaining health facilities in the hospital; (7) reporting patient condition to a colleague and/or doctor; and (8) asking about and reporting on the patient's house, family, and environment condition. The level 2 standard of competency covers eight items of work nurses, namely (1) holding further dialog with and about a patient; (2) conducting dialogue via phone with the patient, patient family, and doctor or colleague; (3) explaining orientation and rules about specific rooms; (4) asking about and handling complaints; (5) planning a nursing treatment; (6) explaining the result of a nursing medical record; (7) responding to patient or patient family requests; and (8) giving instructions during a check-up or nursing treatment. Finally, the level 3 competency standard consists of seven items of work including (1) asking about the condition of a patient with a specific diagnosis; (2) offering services or treatment for a patient at a specific room such as the intensive care unit, high intensive care unit, or medical surgery room; (3) giving more complex instructions to a patient in a specific room such as the intensive care unit, high intensive care unit, or medical surgery room; (4) interviewing and observing patients with a specific disease diagnosis; (5) describing the health of patients with a specific disease diagnosis; (6) explaining treatment given by nurses to nurses or doctors; and (7) reporting the result of nurse treatment given to a patient with a specific diagnosis.

The second subsection of knowledge in the language area covers some items that the test takers need to be accurate or appropriate in such as using vocabulary, terms, discourses, content, and knowledge of sentence structures and making summaries or conclusions. Finally, the last subsection, which other standard English tests do not include, is attitude. Attitude is also realised with indicators, namely accuracy, appropriateness, and discipline in performing the four language skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking) when performing nursing work.

(c). Scoring Rubric

The scoring rubric is essential because it provides a clear answer about what scores or values should be given to a certain test taker's work. The finally agreed-upon scoring rubric uses the polytomy scoring system, which provides three score levels of 0, 1, and 2. Sore 0 represents that less than 65% of the competency required is achieved, score 1 means that the test taker performed 65 to 79.9% competency, and score 2 means that the test taker performed 80 to 100% competency. This system is wiser and more reasonable than that of the former rubric (i.e., the rubric prior to revision), which used the dichotomy system, applying only two scores of 0 and 1. This system suggested an absolute model which categorised test takers' work into two categories: correct and incorrect. The polytomy scoring system is considered more flexible in that each work of the participant represents a certain competency and is valued.

The format of the scoring rubric also contains aspects like competency unit, competency element, passing indicator, scoring component, and quality of score (i.e., 0, 1, or 3). Examiners will use this rubric to score speaking and writing test results. Because the scoring is done using Excel, this scoring system is inserted computer-based scoring program. Thus, the examiner has to input the scores given to each part, and the value for each part as well as the total value in the form of numbers will automatically appear.

(d). Competency-Based Curriculum

The curriculum developed in this study is intended to help with the English learning facilitated by English courses, foundations, vocational schools, and higher nursing education. It will be very helpful for instructors, teachers, lectures, and other professionals in developing learning materials and undertaking the teaching. This curriculum was developed to help learners achieve competency and is thus called a competency-based curriculum.

The curriculum covers some aspects such as the graduate profile; learning outcome; and curriculum matrix, which consists of the competency unit, competency element, materials, credit, duration, method, passing indicator, and module for references. The graduate profile is divided into three parts based on the three levels. Graduate profile level 1 is equalised with level B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which means having attitude, ability factual knowledge and concept in communicating and doing social and professional work using simple sentences, structure, and vocabulary in performing skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Graduate profile level 2 is equalised with level B2 in CEFR, which means having attitude, ability factual knowledge and concept in communicating and doing social and professional work using compound sentences, structure, and vocabulary in performing skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Graduate profile level 3 is equalised with levels C1 and C2 in CEFR, which means having attitude, ability factual knowledge and concept in communicating and doing social and professional work using compound sentences, structure, and vocabulary in performing skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking as well as being able to give reasons and opinions and make presentations.

The learning outcome comprises three elements, namely attitude and value, on-the-job ability, and knowledge mastered. Elements of attitude and value are similar at each level, meaning that students are required to be able to implement attitude and character when communicating in English. On-the-job ability covers different jobs or duties at every level. Students are required to be able to speak English appropriately in performing their nursing-related work. Each level draws on different nursing-related work or duties, and knowledge mastered relates to what language knowledge students have to master in order to pass the level. The knowledge concerned covers the ability to use grammar, phrases, sentences, vocabularies, paragraphs, language function, and linguistic features. Elements of grammar and language function differ at every level.

The matrix of competency-based curriculum consists of some items such as the competency unit, competency element, materials, credit, duration, learning method, passing indicators, and module. The competency unit at each level differs pursuant to its goal; for instance, level 1 covers expressing fact and information, expressing the meaning of words in a certain context, expressing the main topic, and writing words or phrases based on appropriate. Level 2 contains slightly different items, such as writing discourse subjects to context, using appropriate grammar, using vocabularies in accordance with context, and writing a discourse with correct structure. Finally, level 3 contains more complex items such as expressing discourse based on context; using grammar with appropriate structure; using vocabulary; pronouncing words, phrases, and sentences based on regulation; and speaking fluently.

(e). Test

Three levels of tests were developed. The development occurred approximately two months after other supporting tools were settled. All of the tests are comprised of four sections, namely listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The first three sections evolved into a written test, and the speaking section individually evolved into a spoken test.

Section 1: Listening, which occurs for 25 minutes, consists of five parts. Part A: Answering Questions has 10 questions, Part B: Understanding Dialogs has 10 questions, Part C: Understanding Mini Talk has 10 questions, Part D: Writing Short Answers has 10 questions, and Part E: Filling in the Blanks consists of 10 questions.

Section 2: Reading Comprehension is divided into two parts, namely Part A: Answers to Questions and Part B: Completing Sentences and Writing Answers. Parts A and B of level 1 and level 2 consist of 35 and 50 questions and 25 and 15 questions, respectively. However, section 2 of level 3 only consists of Part A: Answers to Questions with 35 questions. It differs from test levels 1 and 2 because it is of the highest difficulty level. It includes a higher level of language knowledge and more complicated vocabularies, technical terms, and other phrases. This determination also led researchers to formulise Section 3: Writing for levels 1 and 2 differently than for level 3. In this section, Part A:

Sentence Completion and Part B: Paragraph Writing were only fully involved in Section 3: Writing levels 1 and 2 with number of questions 20 and 1, 20 and 1 respectively, while Section 3: Writing level 3 only consists of Part B: Paragraph Writing with one question.

Section 4: Speaking was designed separately from the other three sections. Speaking is considered the exclusive part of the test because it is one of the important determining aspects for test takers to be considered competent or incompetent. The speaking point of value must be at least 75 for the participant to be competent. If the test taker's other scores per section reached 80 but his or her speaking score did not reach 75, he or she is not considered competent. The speaking test consists of three sections. Section A is a question and response. In this case, test takers are given roleplay cards requesting them (as new nurses) to introduce themselves to each other. Section B is picture-card talk, which requires a pair of test takers to explain pictures and cards consisting of direction. The test takers have to speak to their partner pursuant to the card. Section C is roleplay, where they have to play the role based on the card scenarios.

Prior to test execution, I made more samples of test formulised into questions reservoir, collection, or bank. The questions for the real test were then taken from that question collection. During the test development, the research team collaborated with stakeholders, particularly with the English Competency Test Certification Foundation. The team undertook a number of intensive virtual FGD in order to obtain input on stages for developing, trying, and testing the raw test. They also helped formulate the listening section, which included a recording process. Each test was made for a time allotment of approximately two hours.

The test was completed with other supporting tools apart from the scoring rubric such as the answer sheet, computer-based scoring program, and answer key. The answer sheet was designed in such a way that it fits the test both number of section and number of questions in each section of every level. The computer-based scoring program is a simple program in the form of Excel which can help examiners note the points test takers gain. It is only used for noting points or scores of speaking and writing tests. Each point is inserted in the column concerned, and the table automatically adds and indicates the total score a test taker gains. In order for the examiner or other administrators of the test to be able to check the result of the listening and reading section, an answer key is provided. To do so, examiners note the mark or point of each section manually on the test taker's answer sheet.

(f). Validation

Validation was undertaken prior to developing and trying the test. Two validating sessions were conducted. First, prior to test development, some tools were validated such as competency standard, curriculum, scoring rubric, and question collection. These tools are essential to be validated because they provide guidance for some parties, such as for instructors, teachers, and lecturers to conduct training in English for nurses; for institutions like English courses, work training institutions, schools, or higher education institutions for nurses to develop learning materials; and for the research team to develop the test. The first validating session involved both a language expert and a nursing-related content expert. The language expert was assigned to check and comment on both the Indonesian and English language used in the competency standard, curriculum, and scoring rubric, while the content expert was assigned to check whether the nurse content of those tools was relevant and synchronised with that of a real-life situation like on campus or in a hospital. Thus, an expert who is a lecturer, member of the Nurses Association of National of Indonesia, and practitioner was chosen and assigned to validate the content.

The first validation resulted in revision after both expert judges made some comments. The comments were delivered for revision of the competency standard as the starting point for development of other tools. The main revision suggested by the expert judges concerned the unit of competency, which should focus on language, not content. Thus, it was decided that only four units of competency would be used, namely listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The other comment was on the scoring rubric, which should use the polytomy scoring model instead of the dichotomy model. Apart from this, the scoring criteria shall also use percentage ranges, namely less then 65%, 65 to 79.9%, and 80 to 100%. In addition, the description should use the term 'accuracy', such as 'accuracy in understanding, mentioning, identifying, writing answers, expressing meaning, using, choosing, speaking', and others.

The second validation session specifically focused on assessing the tests. Upon their completion, the three levels of test were validated. The validation was concentrated on language used in the test, format, fonts and font size, the direction of each test section, and pictures included in the test. There were minor comments about the test, such as those concerning instruction, font type and size, and spelling. Based on both comments, revision of those tools was then undertaken.

(g). Dissemination

Dissemination was done to publicise the tests and their supporting tools. A number of dissemination sessions were undertaken. The first session was done for nursing students at government institutions. Approximately 100 students were informed virtually about the newly issued test. They were participants who tried the test. Dissemination was done by informing them about the issued test and its supporting items, the test structure, the sample test, how to apply for the test, to what institution the test would be assigned, test duration, certificate recognition, and the history of the test development. The second dissemination was made to a group of lecturers teaching in some nursing schools and colleges in Bali province. Apart from being given an instrument or questionnaire to fill in about the competency standard, they were also informed about the published test. The third session of dissemination was done virtually with a group of students and lecturers outside Bali. The members were not asked to criticise and comment on the test but only to let them know and ask questions about the test.

(h). Try-Out

The try-out was held upon test dissemination. It was done once involving students who were given information about the test virtually via previous dissemination. These students were chosen because they majored in nursing, which is in line with the test area. They could represent other members of nursing academies or higher vocational institutions of nursing because they have similar curriculum. In addition, they were participants who could be easily accessed and coordinated with.

The test try-out was undertaken virtually using a paper and pencil test model. There were 135 students involved in the try-out who were divided into three groups (levels 1–3) involving 35 students respectively. The test was divided into two sessions: the written test session and the spoken test session. Of the 140 minutes, the written test took 130 minutes and the spoken test 10 minutes.

During the spoken test, which was undertaken in the first session, there were examiners who interviewed, delivered test questions in the form of scenario cards, and scored their production and three staff who arranged turn of test participants. The spoken test took 10 minutes for a couple of participants. The written test allotted 130 minutes was administered in the second session. It comprised three sections, namely listening, reading, and writing. Each group of participants was gathered in one room.

Each examiner checked the test result pursuant to his or her group. The examiners had to check and input the writing and speaking test mark into a system on a computer followed by the listening and reading test mark. The system could directly add the total mark, and with reference to criteria concerned, the examiner could decide which participants were competent or incompetent.

Apart from taking the test, participants were asked to fill in a commentary form distributed via Google Form to provide their perspective about the test in terms of level of difficulty; their comprehension of words, sentences, or each question in the test; listening materials; directions of each section; and terms or lexicon used. The inputs were then collected, explicated, and analysed to undertake test revision.

(i). Public Experiment

Inputs from stakeholders—in this case, lecturers teaching nursing subjects—were also raised. Upon dissemination of the competency standard and scoring rubric of levels 1, 2 and 3, the lecturers were given an instrument based on which inputs on both tools were delivered. The instrument contains 14 questions asking whether the items asked are in accordance with both tools. These questions concern rules or laws which underlined them, purposes of the tools, level of competency, graduate profile, work and title of nurses at each level, learning outcome, language knowledge of each level, field of work or duties of nurses at each level, competency units of each level, indicators of graduates at each level, and relevance between each aspect in both tools.

Of 20 members of the public experiment towards the tools, 75% participants stated that each aspect was in accordance with the tools. The rest (25%) mostly stated that the tools were in accordance and appropriate; however, some inputs in the forms of suggestions or questions were forwarded to the research team. One participant suggested that the laws or rules which underlined the competency standard have to be ordered accordingly. Another participant suggested that a statement about being ‘able to express opinion in an interprofessional team’ should be added to the speaking competency standard. Concerning the law or rule, a participant also suggested that law of UU number 38, year 2014 about a nursing competency standard should be added. Another participant suggested that any statement of ‘*hasil terapi*’ (i.e., result of therapy) should be replaced with ‘*tindakan keperawatan*’ (i.e., nursing treatment). The inputs were used to finally revise the tools the tool which was given input for revision was competency standard, while the scoring rubric was considered valid.

(j). Involvement of Students

A research team conducted development of the test and its supporting tools. The team included lecturers, staff, and two students. The students majoring in informatic management were mainly assigned to develop the online or computer-based test version. Prior to their final task execution, they were involved in some stages of development including gathering data for needs analysis, collecting resources used for determining and formulating the nurse competency standard, and helping with FGD in arranging work-related topics for the competency standard and developing questions for the test. Upon the three-level tests were successfully developed.

The students were assigned to create the online test version. They were given data to be uploaded. The data consisted of the final test-like to be made into the test to provide test-taking candidates with a practice test. The practice test questions were made pursuant to the blueprint of the test. The blueprint of the test was prepared to synchronise the real test with other supporting tools such as the competency standard, curriculum, and scoring rubric. In addition, it correlated between materials of learning and the evaluation tool. The development stages and involvement of students and staff indicated that it was undertaken pursuant to a project-based model (Thomas & Mergendoller, 2000; Larmer et al., 2003; Bell, 2010; Weegar & Pacis, 2012; Kriwas, 2007; Ndon, 2011; Kotti, 2008). Involvement of students in lecturers' project is definitely suggested to give students opportunities to implement their knowledge and skills obtained during their study.

B. Discussion

Development of this assessment tool was done holistically. Realising the competency test for nurses was the main goal of the development. However, because this assessment tool is used widely not only for test takers but also for other stakeholders as a barometer of whether the English for nurses teaching and learning is considered successful, it was developed with some supporting tools such as the competency standard, curriculum, and scoring rubrics. These supporting tools were used as a device to bridge what test takers had learned during preparation and what tool was used to evaluate their achievement. Coherence between the two main aspects of what was learned and what was used to evaluate became essential in this case.

According to the result of the literature review, this development is considered novel because none of the findings in the same area were like it. This development could foster a complete set of learning equipment from the beginning to the end. Although learning materials will become the further development goal and have not been embodied, it will be a small part of its continuation because other devices such as curriculum and competency standard have been realised. This development did not only realise learning materials of English for nurses (Putra et al., 2019; Fadillah et al., 2018) or focus on drawing skills learners need in an English proficiency test (Yuyun et al., 2014), developing English for nursing materials based on communicative language teaching (Febrijanto et al., 2017), or developing and validating an English language teacher competence test (Pishghadam et al., 2011) but rather all of the above. Almost all of the research outputs embodied by the abovementioned researchers were covered by this development.

The test as the final goal of the development was considered holistic because the test could cover cognitive, affective, and psychomotor aspects. The three aspects are included in the competency standard in more realistic embodiments such as knowledge, ability to perform work or duties, and attitude shown when using language ability at work. Based on the review result, other English tests could not be realised explicitly how aspect of psychomotor was performed in the test. This test could contain aspects of psychomotor with, that how nurses shall use English with an appropriate attitude. It was evidenced with the used of the words 'appropriately' and 'politely' or other attitude-related adverbs of manner.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the test development can be considered holistic because it succeeded in developing not only the test but also its supporting tools, such as the competency standard, assessment rubrics, and competency-based curriculum. The development comprised some stages such as needs analysis and developing the competency standard, curriculum, scoring rubrics, and blueprint. Apart from these, the development also covered a number of actions such as validating and testing. Because the materials for learning have not been developed, further research may focus on the materials or book given by the researcher.

REFERENCES

[1] Allan, B & Stoller, F. (2005). Maximizing the benefits of project work in foreign language classrooms. *English Teaching Forum (43)* 4. 10-21.

[2] Andromeda, A., Lufri, Festiyed., Ellizer, E., Iryani, I., Guspatni, G., Fitri, L. (2018). *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, 335.

[3] Arywiantari, D., Agung, A.A.G., Sastra, I. D. K. (2015). Pengembangan multimedia Interaktif model 4D pada pembelajaran IPA di SMP Negeri 3 Singaraja. *E journal Edutech Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha Jurusan Teknologi Pendidikan 3*(1), 1-12.

[4] Astawa, N. L. P. N. S, L. P. Artini, & P. K. Nitiasih. (2017). Project-based learning activities and EFL students' productive skills in English. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research. Vol 8*. No. 6. pp. 114-1155. http://dxdoi.org/10.17507/jltr.0806.16.

[5] Bachman, L. F., and Palmer, A. S. (2010). *Language testing in practice: designing and developing useful language tests.*

[6] Bano, V. O. (2018). Pengembangan model pelatihan pengelolaan penilaian autentikguru IPA SMP. *Kelola Jurnal Mnajemen Pendidikan. Vol. 5*, No. 2, Juli-Desember. pp. 139-151. jurnalkelola@gmail.com

[7] Chomsky, N. (1969). *Aspect of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press. http://doi.org/10.21236/AD0616323. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[8] Chowdhury, F. (2018). Application of Rubrics in the Classroom: A Vital Tool for Improvement in Assessment, Feedback and Learning. *International Education Studies, 12*(1), 61. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v12n1p61.

[9] Djamahar, R., Ristanto, R.H., Sartono, N., Ichsan, I. Z., and Muhlisi, A. (2018). *CIRSA: Designing instructional kits to*.

[10] Fadilah, U., Sugirin. (2018). Developing English Speaking Materials for Nursing Students. *Advances in Social Sciences. Education & Humanities Research, vol. 326*. 3rd International Conference on Current Issues in Education (ICCIE 2018) pp. 503-508

[11] Febrijanto & Kurnianjati. (2017). Developing ESP nursing based on communicative language teaching. *Journal of English Teaching and Research Vol. 2,* Number 2. October 2017 pp. 62-87.

[12] Fragoulis, I. (2009). Project-based learning in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Greek Primary School: From theory to practice. *English Language Teaching.* www.CCSenet.org/journal.html. Vol 2. No. 3. September 2009.

[13] Gu Ven, Z. Z. (2014). Project Based Learning: A constructive way toward learner autonomy. *International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching.* Turkey: Necmettin Erbakan University Department of Linguistics.

[14] Harun, Y. (2006). *Project-based learning handbook "Educating the millennial learners"*. Kuala Lumpur: Educational Technology Division Ministry of Education.
[15] Imtiaz, S. & Asif, S. I. (2012). "I almost learnt to learn": Promoting learner's autonomy through project-based learning in access classrooms. *Language in India 12*. 1, 24-45.
[16] Jonsson, A., & Panadero, E. (2016). *Chapter 7 The Use and Design of Rubrics to Support AfL*. January, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-3045-1
[17] Kotti, D. (2008). Experiential learning form theory to practice. *Adult education, 13*, 35-41.
[18] Kriwas, S. (2007). *Pedagogical science. Basic Theme.* Athens: Gutenberg. (in Greek).
[19] Lado, R. (1961). *Language testing: the construction and use of foreign language tests*. London: Longman.
[20] Larmer, J., Markham, T., & Ravitz, J. (2003). *Project-based learning handbook*. Oakland, CA: Wilsted and Tylor.
[21] Li, T., Zhang, Y. (2021). The construct of English competence and test design for non-English major postgraduates. *English Language Teaching, Vol.14*, no.1: elt.ccsenet.org.
[22] Mc. Carthy, T. (2010). *Integrating Project-based Learning into a Traditional Skill-based Curriculum to Foster Learner Autonomy: Actin Reseach.*
[23] Ndon, U. (2011). *Hybrid-context instructional model: The internet and the classrooms: The way teachers experience it*. Information Age Publishing Inc. The USA. 28th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching & Learning.
[24] Nurmanita, Pargaulan, S., and Sitompul, P. (2019). Development of learning device through problem-based learning model assisted by Geogebra to improve students' critical mathematical thinking ability. *Journal of Mathematical Sciences and Applications, Vol. 7*, no. 1, 1-9. http://pubs.sciepub.com/jmsa/7/1/1. November 2019.
[25] Oller, J. W. (1976). Evidence of a general language proficiency factor: an expectancy grammar. *Die neven sprochen, 75*(2), 165-174.
[26] Pishghadam. R, Baghaei. P. & Ahmadi, S.A. (2011). Development and validation of an English language teacher competence tests using item response theory. *The International Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment Vol. 8*(2) pp. 54-68. September 2011.
[27] Putra, I G.A.P., Padmadewi, N.N., Budasi, I G. (2019). Developing English Materials or Nursing Students of SMK Kesehatan Bali Medika Denpasar. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Indonesia.*
[28] Rochmahwati, P. (2016). Project-based learning to raise students' speaking ability: its effect and implementation (mix-method research in speaking II subject at STAIN Ponorogo) Kodifikasia, 9(1), 199-222. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research 3*(2) pp.83-99. www.urmia.ac.ir/jltr. June 2016.
[29] Sakdimah, Dj, L., and Dewata, I. (2018). *Development of chemistry laboratory guides based on chemoentrepreneurship (Cep) for odd semester in science class second grade*. Proceeding ICESST (International Conference on Education, Social Sciences.
[30] Schmidt, R. (1990). "The role of consciousness in second language learning". *Applied Linguistics. 11*. 129-158.
[31] Shafaei, A. & H. A. Rahim. (2015). Does project-based learning enhance Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary and recall and retention? *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research 3*(2) pp. 83-99. July 2015.
[32] Thiagarajan, S., Semmel, D.S., & Semmel, M. I., (1974). Instructional development for training teacher of exceptional children. Blomington: Indiana University. Technology), pp.252-263 http://icesst.fipunp.ac.id. empower 21th century skill. *Educational Process International Journal. Vol. 7*, issue 3. pp. 200-208. www.edupij.com.
[33] Thomas, J. W. & Mergendoller, J. R. (2000). *Managing project-based learning: Principles from the field.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Education Research Association, New Orleans.
[34] Weegar, M. A. & Pacis, D. (2012). A Comparison of two theory of learning-behaviorism and constructivism as applied to face-to-face and online learning. In *Proceedings E-Leader Conference, Manila.* https://www.g-casa.com/conference /manila/ppt/Weegar.pdf (accessed 13/11/2016).
[35] Widanta, et al. (2017). How should pragmatic be taught at vocational school? *International Journal of Language and Linguistics. Vol 4*. 2. www.ijllnet.com. pp. 110-115. Retrieved August 5, 2021.
[36] Widanta, et al. (2018). Interlanguage request modification: a case in vocational college. *Journal of Physics: conference series* 953012095, doi:10-1088/1742-6596/953/1/012095, pp.1-8, retrieved June 8, 2021.
[37] Widanta, et al. (2020). Explicit inputs and concept mastery: a case in Indonesian language for foreigner (ILF) instruction. *Asian ESP Journal, Volume 16*, 1 December 2020, pp.101-126. Retrieved August 5, 2021.
[38] Yan, M. (2012). *A study of genre-based discursive competence of business English: construct definition and test development* (Doctoral dissertation) Retrieved from http://.www.cnki.net/
[39] Yuyun, Meyling, Laksana, Abednego. (2018). A study of English proficiency test among the first-year university students. *Journal of Language and Literature, Vol. 18*. No.1, April 2018.

I Made Rai Jaya Widanta is an associate professor in Linguistics and is currently working as a permanent lecturer at Politeknik Negeri Bali. His research interests include developing learning model, first and second language acquisition, and inter-language pragmatics.

I Made Ardana Putra is a permanent English lecturer at Administration department, Politeknik Negeri Bali. His research interests are developing English learning model, developing agro tourism and cultural tourism.

I Wayan Dana Ardika started his career as an English lecturer in Bali State Polytechnic in 2009. His research interests are both in English education and English literature, including designing learning model, designing engineering dictionary, and pragmatics.

Ni Nyoman Ayu Tri Hidayanti is a lecturer at Bali Dwipa University, Bali, Indonesia. She is assigned to teach both general English and English for specific purposes (ESP).

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 927-937, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.14

Interaction as a Predicator for EFL Undergraduate University Students' Satisfaction With Online English Language Courses

Kholoud H. Amoush
Department of English Language and Literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Salt, Jordan

Rabab A. Mizher
Department of English Language and Literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Salt, Jordan

***Abstract*—As online learning becomes widespread in education field especially higher education, researchers showed great interest in identifying factors that affect students' satisfaction with online courses. This study aimed at examining EFL undergraduate students' satisfaction with online English courses in Jordanian universities. More specifically, it aims at investigating the role of interaction as a predicator for EFL students' satisfaction with online English language courses. It is a quantitative approach. The researchers collected data by administering an online Microsoft Teams form to 189 undergraduate EFL students. One hundred and twelve responded to the five-Likert scale questionnaire. The accepted forms are 105. By applying the statistical method of SPSS, regression findings showed that the four-predictor variables (student-content interaction, student-instructor interaction, student-student interaction and student-technology interaction) affect positively students' satisfaction with online English language courses. The study found that student-technology interaction and student-instructor interaction were the strongest and most significant predictors of student satisfaction with online English language courses. Moreover, findings showed statistically significant differences for the effect of students' interaction on students' satisfaction due to the students' past online learning experience. This study helps the university instructors to understand the factors that contribute to the students' satisfaction, which ultimately lead to an effective online learning. It also builds on the findings of previous studies that necessitate the need for much attention to two types of interaction: student-student and student-content.**

***Index Terms*—satisfaction, interaction, EFL learners, online learning, online English courses**

I. Introduction

Students' satisfaction in online learning has been a target for researchers to examine its possible influence in the online learning process (Kumar et al., 2021). Plenty of research articles provided many definitions of students' satisfaction and its significance. According to Elliot and Healy (2001), satisfaction is the attitude that students have towards learning process based on their learning experience. Weerasinghe et al. (2017) pointed that satisfaction in online learning is resulted from the students' own evaluation of the educational system and its services. Considering these definitions, one may conclude that students' satisfaction relies heavily on the students' evaluation of their educational experience. Elshami et al. (2021) believe that students' satisfaction is crucial for having successful learning process. Puzziferro and Shelton (2008) state that students who are more satisfied with online learning would be more successful in their studies. Moreover, Meyer (2014) added that students' satisfaction is linked with the students' academic performance. Other researchers confirm that students' satisfaction has a relation with the students' motivation towards online learning process and its components (Jitsupa et al., 2022).

Researchers excreted great effort to explore the factors that may influence the students' satisfaction in online learning environment. Interactivity, according to plenty of studies, is one of these factors that affects students' satisfaction in online learning setting (Moore, 1989, 1993; Moore & Kearsley, 1996; Strachota, 2003; Sun et al., 2008; Bray et al., 2010; Hillman et al., 1994 ; Junq et al., 2002; Muzammil et al., 2020; Dharmadjaja & Tiatri, 2021; Pham et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2021; Alqurashi, 2019; Kuo et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2010). Accordingly, this study aims at examining EFL undergraduate students' satisfaction with online English courses in Jordanian universities. More specifically, it seeks to investigate the relation between online learning interaction types and students satisfaction, in addition to the impact of the online interaction types on the students satisfaction with online English language courses.

II. Literature Review

Pedagogical literature assured that interaction is a significant factor that has a distinguished impact on the students' satisfaction (Moore, 1989). In online learning environment, Bray et al. (2008) proposed that students' interaction is a very complicated process that has variety of aspects, patterns, or types that affect, with varying degrees, the students' satisfaction in online learning courses. There are three types of interaction that take place in online learning setting: learner-content; learner-instructor, learner-student (Moore, 1989, 1993; Moore & Kearsley, 1996) and the fourth type is the learner- technology interaction that was proposed by Hillman et al. (1994).

Learner –content interaction refers to the learner who participates actively and intellectually with the course content. The learner matches the new information with the previous one to build his/her own knowledge. Interacting with the course content activates the students' problem-solving and critical thinking skills, which are the target behind the process of learning in general (Jung et al., 2002). According to Moore (1989, 1993), in this type of interaction, the learner becomes a knowledge creator since s/he thinks by himself/herself and talks to himself/herself about the information and knowledge s/he has in the course content. Reading variety of materials, listening to audios, watching videos, and doing assignments represent possible ways by which the students can interact with the content (Moore & Keasley, 2011). A number of studies have found that interaction with the online content has an obvious impact on the students' satisfaction (Dharmadjaja & Tiatri, 2021; Strachota, 2003; Moore, 1989; Moore & Kearsley, 2011). Other researchers pointed that learner-content interaction was significantly predictive of satisfaction (Pham et al., 2021; Alqurashi, 2019; Kuo et al., 2013) while Sun et al. (2008) believed that such impact was vague.

The second type of interaction that affects students' satisfaction in online learning is the student interaction with another student (Moore, 1989, 1993). According to Moore (1989), this type of interaction occurs between a student and another, or among a group of students discussing an issue, doing an activity, or working on a project. Some studies highlighted the relation between the student-student interaction and satisfaction in online learning environment. For example, Fredericksen et al. (2000) and Moore (2014) found that learner-learner interaction is one of the strongest patterns of interaction that predicts students' satisfaction in online courses. In the same vein, Chen and Chen (2007) revealed a strong connection between the students' interaction with their peers and the degree of satisfaction. Muzammil et al. (2020) found a relationship between students' interaction with their peers and the degree of their satisfaction. Similarly, Ngo and Ngadiman (2021), Pham et al. (2021), and Dharmadjaja and Tiatri (2021) also found positive relation. On the other hand, some studies as Jung et al. (2002), Bernard et al. (2009), Kuo et al. (2013), Kuo (2014), and Kurucay and Inan (2017) did not show significant influence of student-student interaction on the students' satisfaction.

Another type of interaction that has a possible effect on students' online satisfaction is the learners' interaction with their instructors. Learner-instructor interaction is a communication via platform between the learner and the instructor of the course (Moore & Kearsley, 1996). And such communication in online learning environment can take place through many channels as online chat, discussion boards, instructors' guidance, and emails (Sher, 2009; Bernard et al., 2009; Hawkins et al., 2011; Moore, 1989; Swan, 2001). Moore (1989) believes that online learning becomes more effective if the learner- instructor interaction's quality is high. Moreover, Chang and Fisher pointed that the instructor – learner interaction's quality has an influence on the students' satisfaction. Consequently, the students' satisfaction is linked with the instructor's performance (Deloach & GreenLaw, 2007). Moore (1989) assured that any obstacles facing the learner-instructor interaction process makes the learner unmotivated and less satisfied. Vesely et al. (2007) found that increased interaction between the instructor and the learner enhances the students' satisfaction level. Additionally, researchers as Turkiewicz et al. (2022), Ayanbode (2022), Pham et al. (2021), Dharmadjaja and Tiatri (2021), and Lin et al. (2016) confirmed the positive relation between learner-instructor interaction and the learner's satisfaction. As different from these previous studies, Kuo (2014) found that the students' interaction with the instructor did not significantly predict the students' satisfaction.

The last type of interaction is the learner-technology interaction. It is a concept that was introduced by Hillman et al. (1994) who believe that this interaction is achieved by a variety of high-technology devices that serve as the interface between the learner, the content, and the instructor. Because of the high demand of technology in the field of education, this type of interaction becomes more valid than ever. Many studies assured the positive and significant impact of learner-technology interaction on the students' satisfaction in online learning contradicting the studies of Clark (1994), Sun et al. (2008), and Wu et al., (2010) that did not come up with the same result.

Regardless of the great amount of research effort that examined interaction role in the students' satisfaction in online learning, there is limited research on the role of interaction and its types in predicating EFL students' satisfaction with the context of online English language courses in higher education institutes in the Arab region in general and in Jordan in particular. Therefore, this study aims at examining the role of interaction in predicating the EFL students' satisfaction with online English language courses in the Jordanian universities. Based on literature and previous studies, we will test the following hypotheses:

H1: Students' interaction with their instructor affects positively the students' satisfaction.
H2: Students' interaction with the content affects positively the students' satisfaction
H3: Students' interaction with their peers affects positively the students' satisfaction
H4: students' interaction with technology affects positively the students' satisfaction
H5: There are no statistically significant differences for the effect of students' interaction on the students' satisfaction due to the students' past online learning experience.

III. Methodology

Sample and Data Collection

To examine the effect of the four types of interaction on EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction with online English language courses, the researchers have adopted a quantitative approach by administering an online survey to the EFL learners. The survey consists of demographic information and four variables from previous studies as shown in Table 1. The variables are Student-Content Interaction, Student- Instructor Interaction, Student-Student Interaction and Student-Technology Interaction. A set of arbitrators who are specialized in teaching English as a foreign language reviewed the items of the questionnaire to check its validity. Their notes and suggestions were taken into account. Consequently, 23 items were determined for the survey. A five-point Likert scale was prepared for the survey in which "strongly disagree" is one and "strongly agree" is five. Based on their own online learning experience of interacting with their peers and instructors, content, and technology, students were asked to choose the item that is related to them. Online survey was distributed via Microsoft forms to 189 EFL students at Al-Balqa Applied University (Jordan). Only 112 students responded and 105 forms were accepted for the statistical analysis.

TABLE 1
SOURCES OF ITEMS USED IN THE SURVEY

Student-Content Interaction	**Source**
Q1 : The course materials used in this class have facilitated my learning	Ngo & Ngadiman (2021)
Q2: The learning content Provided(online) for this course has facilitated my learning	Ngo & Ngadiman (2021)
Q3: The tasks in this course have facilitated my learning	Elaine M. Strachota (2003)
Q4: The learning activities in this course have required critical thinking skills which facilitated my learning.	Elaine M. Strachota (2003)
Q5: The learning activities in this course have required problem solving skills which facilitated my learning	Elaine M. Strachota (2003)
Student-instructor Interaction	**Source**
Q1 : I felt free to ask questions throughout this course	Pelteir et al. (2003)
Q2: The instructor responded to my questions in a timely manner.	Pelteir et al. (2003)
Q3: The instructor was easily accessible to me.	Pelteir et al. (2003)
Q4: I felt free to express and explain my own views throughout this course.	Pelteir et al. (2003)
Q5: the instructor cared about my progress in this course	Gray & Diloreto (2016)
Student-Student Interaction	**Source**
Q1 : I was able to share learning experiences with other students	Johnson et al. (2000)
Q2: I was able to communicate with other students in this course	Johnson et al. (2000)
Q3: Increased contact with fellow students helped me more out of this course.	Johnson et al. (2000)
Q4: A sense of community existed with fellow students taking this course	Johnson et al. (2000)
Q5: This course encouraged me to work in small groups/teams	Johnson et al. (2000)
Student – Technology Interaction	**Source**
Q1 : Most difficulties I encounter when using computers, I can usually deal with	Cassidy & Eachus (2002)
Q2: I find working with computers very easy	Cassidy & Eachus (2002)
Q3: I am very sure of my abilities to use computers	Cassidy & Eachus (2002)
Q4: I enjoy working with computers	Cassidy & Eachus (2002)
Q5: I find that computers are good aids to learning.	Cassidy & Eachus (2002)
Satisfaction	**Source**
Q1: online language courses met my needs as a learner.	Artino (2007)
Q2: My satisfaction level encourages me to register in other online courses	Elshami et al. (2021)
Q:3overall, I am satisfied with my online language courses experience	Elshami et al. (2021)

IV. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

A. Analytical Methods and Tools

This study seeks to test interaction as a predicator for EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction with online English courses. We adopted a quantitative approach, collected the data using online-survey, and used the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) v.26 to complete the analysis and gather results. Data screening was conducted and Cronbach alpha was used to test instrument reliability. Furthermore, Pearson correlations provided internal consistency for instrument scales. Based on mean and standard deviation (std.) values, descriptive analysis was provided. Finally, multiple and simple linear regression models examined the influence of interaction on students' satisfaction and hierarchal multiple linear regression examined the influence of prior experience on the influence of interaction on students' satisfaction.

(a). Data Screening

Data collection started on 1/7/ 2022 and completed on 10/7/ 2022. A total of 112 responses were collected and Excel sheet was coded into SPSS. Regular patterns in responses were detected through examining std. values for Likert based statements of each questionnaire. Five questionnaires were found having regular pattern. Accordingly, they were excluded from the sample. Sample after drop pattern responses comprised of 107 responses. Further, two observations were dropped due to outliers, as scored Cook's distance values above (0.1) cutoff proposed by (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008). Finally, clear sample comprised of 105 valid responses.

(b). Students' Characteristics

Table 2 gathers students' characteristics using counts and percentages. Majority of surveyed EFL undergraduate university students' were females n= 76 [72.4%] compared to n= 29 [27.6%] were males. Further, most of surveyed students have adequate prior experience with online courses. Those who have less than one year scored the least count n= 21 [20%], meanwhile those who have one year counted n= 43 [41%], and those who have two years counted n= 41 [39%].

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS (N= 105)

Characteristic	Subset	Count	%
Gender	Male	29	27.6%
	Female	76	72.4%
	Total	*105*	*100%*
Students' prior experience with online courses	Less than one year	21	20%
	One year	43	41%
	Two years	41	39%
	Total	*105*	*100%*

(c). Instrument Reliability (Cronbach Alpha)

To test the statistical reliability of instrument scales, Cronbach alpha coefficient was gathered. A scale is reliable whenever coefficient exceeds minimum cutoff [0.7] for Cronbach alpha (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). Referring to results at Table 3, all scales were found having adequate reliability as Cronbach alpha coefficients were above 0.7 cutoff showing that all scales were statistically reliable. Cronbach alpha coefficients scored as follows: Interaction with instructor [0.905], Interaction with content [0.890], Interaction with peers [0.857], Interaction with technology [0.915], Interaction [0.922] and Students' satisfaction [0.859].

TABLE 3
CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENTS (N= 105)

Factor	No.	Cronbach alpha
Interaction with instructor	5	0.905
Interaction with content	5	0.890
Interaction with peers	5	0.857
Interaction with technology	5	0.915
Interaction	*25*	*0.922*
Students' satisfaction	*3*	*0.859*

(d). Internal Consistency (Pearson Correlation)

The internal consistency of the instrument scales was tested through Pearson correlation that tests the association between each statement and it proposed factor. Each statement should positively and significantly correlate to its factor to support factor internal consistency. Minimum acceptable cutoff for Pearson correlation is (r= 0.20). Results at Table 4 showed that all statements were positively and significantly correlated to its proposed factor. All correlations were greater than (r= 0.20) cutoff and significant at (0.01) level entailing adequate internal consistency.

TABLE 4
INTERNAL CONSISTENCY THROUGH PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (N= 105)

Factor	Q	*r*	Factor	Q	*R*
Interaction with instructor	Q1	0.779**	Interaction with technology	Q1	0.803**
	Q2	0.827**		Q2	0.851**
	Q3	0.878**		Q3	0.878**
	Q4	0.889**		Q4	0.885**
	Q5	0.883**		Q5	0.900**
Interaction with content	Q1	0.745**	Students' satisfaction	Q1	0.852**
	Q2	0.808**		Q2	0.903**
	Q3	0.857**		Q3	0.895**
	Q4	0.907**			
	Q5	0.877**			
Interaction with peers	Q1	0.760**	//		
	Q2	0.773**			
	Q3	0.778**			
	Q4	0.859**			
	Q5	0.827**			

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

B. Statistical Assumptions

Prior to the proceeding with the analysis, normality and multi-collinearity assumptions were tested for the dataset. Parametric analysis was valid to use for the current dataset considering that normality issues were not seen. Values of skewness and kurtosis supported data normality. Sposito et al. (1983) proposed the range ±2.2 for a normal distribution free of skewness and kurtosis issues. Referring to the findings at Table 5, both skewness and kurtosis values were found around zero within proposed range ±2.2 showing that normality issues were not found for current dataset.

TABLE 5
NORMALITY RESULTS (N= 105)

Factor	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interaction with instructor	-.765	.244
Interaction with content	-.286	-.546
Interaction with peers	-.101	-.242
Interaction with technology	-1.147	1.520
Interaction	-.259	.115
Students' satisfaction	-.977	.438

Regarding multi-collinearity issue among interaction factors, findings of examined tests showed that interaction factors were free from multi-collinearity issues. Variance Inflation Factor [VIF] coefficients were below (10) cutoff and Tolerance values were above (0.10) cutoff. Further, interaction factors were found in positive significant correlations. The correlation was (*r*= 0.) below (*r*= 0.90) cutoff. Finally, findings support suggestions of Pallant (2020), hence multi-collinearity is not issued in the current dataset.

TABLE 6
MULTI-COLLINEARITY CHECK FOR (N= 105)

Factor	Tolerance	VIF	*Pearson correlation* 1	2	3	4
Interaction with instructor	0.641	1.559	1			
Interaction with content	0.571	1.751	0.533**	1		
Interaction with peers	0.564	1.773	0.541**	0.608**	1	
Interaction with technology	0.839	1.192	0.375**	0.319**	0.247*	1

**** Correlation is significant at (0.01) level**
*** Correlation is significant at (0.05) level**

C. Descriptive Analysis Results

Table 7 shows the descriptive analysis of the study. Mean values reported that the students' overall interaction level was moderate scoring a mean value (M= 3.64) where the highest interaction levels were with the technology (M= 4.03) and the instructor (M= 3.97). Meanwhile, the students' interaction with the content and their peers were moderate scoring mean values (M= 3.36) and (M= 3.22) respectively. On the other hand, EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction with online English courses was high scoring overall mean value (M= 4.17). Homogeneity in assessments was seen as neither of std. values exceeded (1), entailing that responses were spanning around its mean values. Finally, Pearson correlations provided insights for the association between interaction factors and students' satisfaction. The strongest correlation was seen between interaction with technology and Students' satisfaction (*r*= 0.766**). The least correlation was seen between interaction with peers and students' satisfaction (*r*= 0.358**).

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS RESULTS (N= 105)

Factor	Mean	Std.	Level	Min	Max	Pearson correlation 1	2	3	4	5	6
Interaction with instructor	3.97	0.75	High	1.80	5.00	1					
Interaction with content	3.36	0.74	Moderate	1.80	5.00	0.533**	1				
Interaction with peers	3.22	0.66	Moderate	1.60	5.00	0.541**	0.608**	1			
Interaction with technology	4.03	0.75	High	1.40	5.00	0.375**	0.319**	0.247*	1		
Interaction	3.64	0.55	Moderate	2.25	5.00	0.810**	0.809**	0.774**	0.648**	1	
Students' satisfaction	4.17	0.73	High	2.00	5.00	0.493**	0.456**	0.358**	0.766**	0.688**	1

**** Correlation is significant at (0.01) level**

D. Regression Models Results (Hypotheses Testing)

This section presents results of regression models to test the influence of interaction factors on EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction. Multiple regression model examined the influence of all factors together; meanwhile, simple linear regression model examined the influence of each factor of students' interaction on students' satisfaction. Finally hierarchal multiple linear regression model examined the influence of students' prior experience with online courses on the influence of interaction factors on students' satisfaction.

(a). Results of Multiple Linear Regression Model

TABLE 8
MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION FACTORS ON THEIR SATISFACTION (N = 105)

		Independent variable [Students' interaction]				**F Calculate**	**Sig. F**
(R)	**(R^2)**	**Factor**	**Beta**	**Value (T)**	**Sig. (T)**		
0.809	0.654	Interaction with instructor	0.156	2.065	0.042*	47.341	0.000*
		Interaction with content	0.152	1.937	0.056		
		Interaction with peers	0.019	0.238	0.812		
		Interaction with technology	0.654	10.194	0.000*		

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level (α ≤ 0.05)**

Referring to the results of multiple linear regression displayed in Table 8, students' interaction factors scored a significant influence on their satisfaction. Model F calculate scored [F= 47.341, *P* = 0.000] and correlation coefficient scored (*r* = 0.809), showing a positive strong correlation and entailing that whenever students' interaction increase, their satisfaction increases. Model fit was found satisfactory considering that R^2 scored (65.4%), showing that students' interaction explained (65.4%) of variation in their satisfaction. Further, *P* values for Beta coefficients were significant below (0.05) level for two factors: interaction with instructor and interaction with technology. Meanwhile, interaction with content and interaction with peers were non-significant predictors. Beta coefficients reported that interaction with technology was the strongest predictor (B= 0.654) showing that for each 1% increase in students' interaction with technology, students' satisfaction increases by 65.4%.

To test the influence of each interaction factor separately, we used simple linear regression models. The following are the decisions for each hypothesis based on these models:

(b). Results of Simple Linear Regression Models

Table 9 shows the results of simple linear regression. Students' interaction with the instructor scored a significant influence on their satisfaction. Model F calculate scored [F = 33.118, *P* = 0.000] and correlation coefficient was (*r* = 0.493), showing a positive moderate correlation. Further, R^2 scored (0.243), showing that the students' interaction with the instructor explained (24.3%) of variation in their satisfaction. Beta coefficient reported that the influence of the students' interaction with the instructor was (B = 0.493) showing for each 1% increase in the students' interaction with instructor, the students' satisfaction increases by 49.3%. Findings allow for the supporting of H1.

H1: Students' interaction with their instructor affects positively the students' satisfaction

TABLE 9
SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION WITH THE INSTRUCTOR ON THEIR SATISFACTION (N = 105)

(R)	**(R^2)**	**Beta**	**Value (T)**	**Sig. (T)**	**F Calculate**	**Sig. F**
0.493	0.243	0.493	5.755	0.000*	33.118	0.000*

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level (α ≤ 0.05)**

Results of simple linear regression in Table 10 reported that the students' interaction with the content also scored a significant influence on their satisfaction. Model F calculate scored [F = 26.998, *P* = 0.000] and correlation coefficient was (*r* = 0.456) showing a positive moderate correlation. Further, R^2 scored (0.208), showing that the students' interaction with the content explained (20.8%) of variation in their satisfaction. Beta coefficient reported that the influence of the students' interaction with the content was (B = 0.456) showing that for each 1% increase in the students' interaction with the content, the students' satisfaction increases by 45.6%. Findings allow for the supporting of H2.

H2: Students' interaction with content affects positively the students' satisfaction.

TABLE 10
SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION WITH THE CONTENT ON THEIR SATISFACTION (N = 105)

(R)	**(R^2)**	**Beta**	**Value (T)**	**Sig. (T)**	**F Calculate**	**Sig. F**
0.456	0.208	0.456	5.196	0.000*	26.998	0.000*

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level (α ≤ 0.05)**

The students' interaction with their peers had a significant influence on their satisfaction (see Table 11). Model F calculate scored [F = 15.094, *P* = 0.000] and correlation coefficient was (*r* = 0.358), showing a positive moderate correlation. Further, R^2 scored (0.128), showing that the students' interaction with their peers explained (12.8%) of variation in their satisfaction. Beta coefficient reported that the influence of the students' interaction with their peers was (B = 0.358) showing that for each 1% increase in the students' interaction with their peers, the students' satisfaction increases by 35.8%. Findings also allow for the supporting of H3.

H3: Students' interaction with their peers affects positively the students' satisfaction

TABLE 11
SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF THE EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION WITH THEIR PEERS ON THEIR SATISFACTION (N = 105)

(R)	(R^2)	Beta	Value (T)	Sig. (T)	F Calculate	Sig. F
0.358	0.128	0.358	3.885	0.000*	15.094	0.000*

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)**

Following the results of simple linear regression gathered in Table 12, students' interaction with the technology scored a significant influence on the students' satisfaction. Model F calculate scored [F= 146.382, *P* = 0.000] and correlation coefficient was (*r*= 0.766) showing a positive strong correlation. Further, R^2 scored (0.587), showing that the students' interaction with the technology explained (58.7%) of variation in their satisfaction. Beta coefficient reported that the influence of students' interaction with technology was (B= 0.766) showing that for each 1% increase in students' interaction with technology, the students' satisfaction increases by 76.6%. Findings allow supporting H4.

H4: Students' interaction with technology affects positively the students' satisfaction

TABLE 12
SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION WITH TECHNOLOGY ON THEIR SATISFACTION (N = 105)

(R)	(R^2)	Beta	Value (T)	Sig. (T)	F Calculate	Sig. F
0.766	0.587	0.766	12.099	0.000*	146.382	0.000*

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)**

(c). Results of hierarchal Multiple Linear Regression Model

To test H5 that concerns with moderating the role of students' prior experience with online courses on the influence of students' interaction on their satisfaction. Hierarchical regression model was tested and displayed at Table 13:

H05: There are no statistically significant differences for the effect of students' interaction on students' satisfaction due to the students' past online learning experience.

TABLE 13
RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' INTERACTION ON THEIR SATISFACTION MODERATED BY THEIR PRIOR EXPERIENCE WITH ONLINE COURSES (N = 105)

n = 105		***β Coefficient***		
Variable		**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**
Independent	Students' interaction	0.688 (0.000*)		
Moderator	Students' prior experience with online courses	0.512 (0.000*)	0.399 (0.000*)	
Interaction effect	Students' interaction x Students' prior experience with online courses	0.480 (0.000*)	0.389 (0.000*)	-0.188 (0.003*)
	R	**0.688**	**0.776**	**0.797**
	R^2	**0.474**	**0.602**	**0.636**
	F	**92.730 (0.000*)**	**77.213 (0.000*)**	**58.812 (0.000*)**

Dependent variable: EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction
***Significant at the level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)**

Findings of hierarchical regression model, presented at Table 13, reported three significant models. Model one examined the influence of the students' interaction on their satisfaction. The model was significant (F= 92.730, *P*= 0.000). Further, Beta coefficient was (B= 0.688) entailing that for each 1% increase in the students' interaction, their satisfaction increases by (68.8%). Model two connected the direct influence of the students' prior experience with online courses. The model was significant (F= 77.213, *P*= 0.000) and Beta coefficient was (B= 0.399) entailing that for each 1% increase in the students' prior experience with the online courses, their satisfaction increases by (39.9%).

Finally, model three examined the influence of the students' interaction × the students' prior experience with online courses on their satisfaction. The model was also significant (F= 58.812, *P*= 0.000) and Beta coefficient was (B= -0.188) entailing that the students' prior experience with the online courses was dampening the positive influence of their interaction on their satisfaction, showing a critical result that should be examined in future studies in depth. Findings allow for rejecting null H05 and supporting alternative H5. Figure 1 depicts the influence of the EFL undergraduate university students' interaction on their satisfaction moderated by the students' prior experience with online courses.

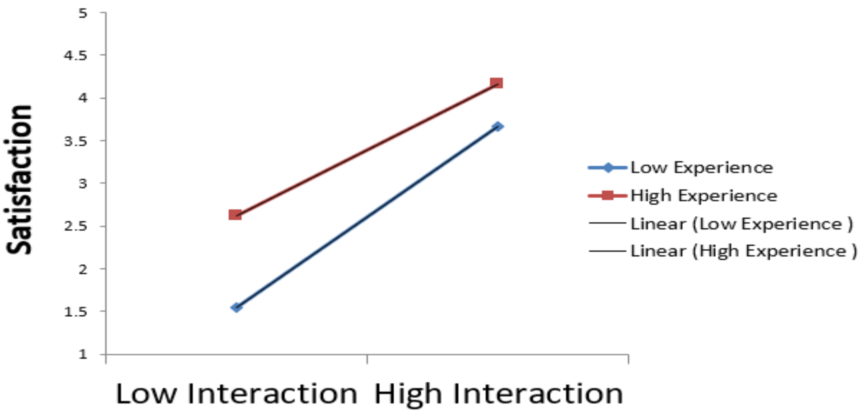


Figure 1: The Influence of the EFL Undergraduate University Students' Interaction on their Satisfaction Moderated by the Students' Prior Experience With Online Courses

V. Discussion and Conclusion

This study seeks to examine interaction as a predicator for EFL undergraduate university students' satisfaction with online English courses, using a sample of 105 students. The findings revealed that with a mean of 4.17, the undergraduate EFL students showed satisfying learning experience with online English language courses. All four types of interaction correlated with the students' satisfaction at a significant level indicating that the more the students are involved in interaction process with their instructor, peers, the content, and the technology the more likely they are satisfied with the online English language courses.

The students' interaction with technology was the highest interaction factor showing a good indicator of students' satisfaction with online English language courses. This result is supported by DeTure (2004), Cho (2011), Kuo et al. (2013), Shee and Wang (2008), and Womble (2007) who found positive relation between the students' interaction with technology and their online learning satisfaction. This is because technology and its tools, which become inseparable part of the students' daily lives, facilitate their individual access and sharing information, in addition to motivating and supporting their learning (Pinto & Leite, 2020).

Students' interaction with their instructor is also a high predicative factor revealing a good indicator of students' satisfaction with online English language courses. This result is consistent with previous studies (Moore, 1989; Deloach & GreenLaw, 2007; Vesely et al., 2007; Turkiewicz et al., 2022; Pham et al., 2021; Dharmadjaja & Tiatri, 2021; Lin et al., 2016). One possible explanation for this may be that the students and the instructor were ready for online classes. It is possible that the teachers succeeded in interacting socially with their students and using variety of effective and pedagogical methods and strategies that attract the students' attention and enhance their interaction in the online English language courses.

Findings also showed that the students' interaction with the content has moderate but positive influence on the students' satisfaction. This finding corresponds to some studies' results that were addressed previously (Fredericksen et al., 2000; Chen & Chen, 2007; Zhang, 2003; Moore, 2014; Muzammil et al., 2020; Ngo & Ngadiman, 2021; Pham et al., 2021; Dharmadjaja & Tiatri, 2021). One possible explanation for this modest positive influence may refer to the fact that the content was not designed well and enough to attract students' attention and motivate them to interact. Furthermore, this finding may be attributed to the fact that many online English language courses operate like traditional correspondence courses providing limited interactional opportunities between the students and the content. Accordingly, further investigation becomes a necessity to examine this construct.

Moving to the student- student interaction and its impact on the students' satisfaction with online English language courses, findings revealed positive but modest impact. This finding is in agreement with the previous studies that revealed positive impact for student - student interaction on the students' satisfaction (Muzammil et al., 2020; Ngo & Ngadiman, 2021; Pham et al., 2021; Dharmadjaja & Tiatri, 2021). One of the possible causes for this result could be that online students usually do not like to interact with their classmates with whom they are unfamiliar. Furthermore, as students do not have face-to-face interaction with their classmates in online courses, they are possibly unable to interact and communicate personally; even they do not have the real chance to evaluate each other as well. Therefore, we may suggest that the instructors should activate their roles as facilitators who motivate their students to interact with each other. They can design specific activities that provide the opportunities for their students to interact with each other. Using discussion boards is an example to encourage students to participate and share opinions. Lou et al. (1996) pointed that to enhance student-student interaction; the instructors should pay much attention to collaborative or cooperative activities.

Finally, we expected that there would be no significant differences to the effect of interaction on the students' satisfaction attributed to their prior experience in using online courses. However, our findings were in contrary to the expectations. Prior experience revealed positive influence, showing a critical issue that researchers should investigate in depth.

VI. Implications and Limitations

Instructors need to think of developing various ways of designing and displaying the content to motivate their students to interact with it. For instance, they could incorporate audio-visual media while they are explaining the content and in the tasks. They may also choose content that matches the students' interests particularly in language skills assignments. Instructors may also assign time to student-student interaction during / off classes by activating interacting tools of online learning system platforms such as Forums in Moodle and Chats in Microsoft Teams.

The results of this study have the following limitations: The sample of the study is taken from one university in Jordan. Accordingly, future studies sample may include public and private universities for generalization. Moreover, other factors that contribute to the students' satisfaction should be examined as motivation towards online learning and expectation. Finally, the study relied on online survey. Future research may consider other data collection methods like interviews, observations and focus group discussions.

References

[1] Alqurashi, E. (2019). Predicting student satisfaction and perceived learning within online learning environments. *Distance Education*, *40*(1), 133-148, DOI: 10.1080/01587919.2018.1553562.

[2] Artino, A. R. (2007). Online military training: Using a social cognitive view of motivation and self-regulation to understand students' satisfaction, perceived learning, and choice. *Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, *8*(3), 191-202.

[3] Ayanbode, O, F, Fagbe, A, Owolabi, R, Oladipo, S & Ewulo, O, R. (2022). Students' interactions, satisfaction and perceived progress in an online class: Empirical evidence from Babcock University Nigeria. *Cogent Education*, *9*:1, 2060783, DOI: 10.1080/2331186X.2022.2060783

[4] Bernard, R. M., Abrami, P. C., Borokhovski, E., Wade, C. A., Tamim, R. M., Surkes, M. A., et al. (2009). A meta-analysis of three types of interaction treatments in distance education. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(3), 1243–1289. https:// doi: 10. 2307/40469094.

[5] Bray, E., K. Aoki, and L. Dlugosh. (2008). Predictors of learning satisfaction in Japanese online distance students. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 9(3) 1–24.

[6] Cassidy, S., & Eachus, P. (2002). Developing the Computer User Self-Efficacy (Cuse) Scale: Investigating the Relationship between Computer Self-Efficacy, Gender and Experience with Computers. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 26,* 133 - 153.

[7] Chang, V., & Fisher, D. (2003). The validation and application of a new learning environment instrument for online learning in higher education. In *Technology-rich learning environments: A Future Perspective*, (pp. 1-20).

[8] Chen, Y.- J., & Chen, P.-C. (2007). Effects of online interaction on adult students' satisfaction and learning. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, 3*, 78–89. doi:10.1080/14703290252934603 .

[9] Cho, T.J. (2011). The Impact of Types of Interaction on Student Satisfaction in Online Courses. *International Journal on E-Learning, 10*(2), 109-125.

[10] Clark, R.E. (1994). Media will never influence learning. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *42*(2), 21-29

[11] DeLoach, S. B., & Greenlaw, S. A. (2007). Effectively moderating electronic discussions. *Journal of Economic Education, 38*(4), 419-434.

[12] DeTure, M. (2004). Cognitive style and self-efficacy: predicting student success in online distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, *18*(1), pp. 21-38.

[13] Dharmadjaja, P., & Tiatri, S. (2021). The Effect of Online Interaction Types and Acceptance of Technology Factors on Student Satisfaction with Online Learning During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, *Vol. 570.*

[14] Elliot, K. M., & Healy M. A. (2001). Key factors influencing student satisfaction related to recruitment and retention. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, *10,* 1-11.

[15] Elshami,W, Taha, M, Abuzaid, M, Saravanan, C, Al Kawas, S, & Abdalla, M,. (2021) Satisfaction with online learning in the new normal: perspective of students and faculty at medical and health sciences colleges. *Medical Education Online*, *26*(1), 1920090, DOI: 10.1080/10872981.2021.1920090.

[16] Fredricksen, E., Pickett, A., Pelz, W., Swan, K., & Shea, P. (2000). Student Satisfaction and Perceived Learning with On-Line Courses: Principles and Examples from the SUNY Learning Network. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *4,* 39A+. Retrieved June13, 2022, from https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A284451510/AONE?u=anon~6a55d677&sid=googleScholar&xid=6b6208fc

[17] Gray, J. A. and Diloreto, M. (2016) The Effects of Student Engagement, Student Satisfaction, and Perceived Learning in Online Learning Environments. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, *11*. Retrieved on 29 May, 2022, from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1103654

[18] Hawkins, A., Barbour, M. K., & Graham, C. R. (2011). Strictly business: teacher perceptions of interaction in virtual schooling. *International Journal of E-Learning & Distance Education*, *25*(2), 210

[19] Hillman, Daniel C., Deborah J. Willis, and Charlotte N. Gunawardena. (1994). "Learner- Interface Interaction in Distance Education: An Extension of Contemporary Models and Strategies for Practitioners." *American Journal of Distance Education, 8*(2) 30–42. https://doi.org/10.1080/08923649409526853

[20] Jitsupa, J., Takomsane, M., Bunyawanich, S. Songsom, N., and Nilsook, P. (2022). Combining Online Learning with Gamification: An Exploration into Achievement, Motivation, and Satisfaction of the Undergraduate. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 12*(7), 643-649

[21] Johnson, S.D., Aragon, S.R. & Shaik, N. (2000). Comparative Analysis of Learner Satisfaction and Learning Outcomes in Online and Face-to-Face Learning Environments. *Journal of Interactive Learning Research*, *11*(1), 29-49. Charlottesville, VA: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE).

[22] Jung, I., Choi, S., Lim, C., & Leem, J. (2002). Effects of different types of interaction on learning achievement, satisfaction and participation in web-based instruction. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *39*(2), 153–162. doi:10.1080/14703290252934603

[23] Kumar, P., Saxena, C., and Baber, H. (2021). Learner-content interaction in e-learning- the moderating role of perceived harm of COVID-19 in assessing the satisfaction of students. *Smart Learn. Environ. 8*,1–15. doi: 10.1186/s40561-021-00149-8

[24] Kuo, Yu-Chun, Andrew E. Walker, Brian R. Belland, and Kerstin E. E. Schroder. (2013). "A Predictive Study of Student Satisfaction in Online Education Programs." *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning, 14*(1) 16–39. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v14i1.1338.

[25] Kuo, Yu-Chun. (2014). Accelerated Online Learning: Perceptions of Interaction and Learning Outcomes Among African American Students. *American Journal of Distance Education*, *28*:4, 241-252, DOI: 10.1080/08923647.2014.959334

[26] Kurucay, M. & Inan, F. A. (2017). Examining the effects of learner-learner interactions on satisfaction and learning in an online undergraduate course, *Computers & Education*, *115*, 20–37, 2017. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2017.06.010

[27] Lin, C.-H., Zheng, B. and Zhang, Y. (2016), Interactions and learning outcomes in online language courses. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, doi: 10.1111/bjet.12457.

[28] Lou, Y., Abrami, P. C., Spence, J. C., Poulsen, C., Chambers, B., & d'Apollonia, S. (1996). Within-class grouping: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 66*(4), 423-458. Retrieved February 10, 2022 from http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543066004423

[29] Meyer, K. A. (2014). Student engagement in online learning: What works and why. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, *40*(6), 1-114. Retrieved June 22, 2022 from https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/aehe.20018

[30] Moore, M. G. (1989). Editorial: Three types of interaction. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, *3*(2), 1–7.

[31] Moore, M. G., & Kearsley, G. (2011). *Distance education: a systems view of online learning*. New York: Wadsworth.

[32] Moore, M. G., and G. Kearsley. (1996). *Distance education: A systems view*. New York: Wadsworth.

[33] Muzammil, M., Sutawıjaya, A. & Harsası, M. (2020). Investigating student satisfaction in online learning: the role of student interaction and engagement in distance learning university. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE. 21*(Special) 88-96. https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.770928

[34] Ngo, J., & Ngadiman, A. (2021). Investigating Student Satisfaction in Remote Online Learning Settings during Covid-19 in Indonesia. *Journal of International and Comparative Education (JICE)*, 73-95. https://doi.org/10.14425/jice.2021.10.2.0704

[35] Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step-by-Step Guide to Data Analysis Using IBM SPSS*. Routledge.

[36] Pelteir, J. W., Drago, W., & Schibrowsky, J. A. (2003). Virtual communities and the assessment of online marketing education. *Journal of Marketing Education*, *25*, 260-276.

[37] Pham, T., Lai, P., Nguyen, V., & Nguyen, H. (2021). Online learning amid Covid-19 pandemic: students' experience and satisfaction. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society*, *17*(1), 39-48. https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1135293.

[38] Pinto, M., & Leite, C. (2020). Digital technologies in support of students learning in Higher Education: Literature review. *Digital Education Review*, *37*,332-360.

[39] Puzziferro, M. & Shelton, K. (2008). A model for developing high-quality online courses: Integrating a systems approach with learning theory. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *12*(3). 119-136.

[40] Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2019). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. Wiley and Sons Ltd: United Kingdom.

[41] Shee, D & Wang, Y. (2008). Multi-criteria evaluation of the web-based e-learning system: A methodology based on learner satisfaction and its applications. *Computers & Education*, *50*(3), pp. 894-905

[42] Sher, A. (2009). Assessing the relationship of student-instructor and student-student interaction to student learning and satisfaction in web-based online learning environment. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, *8*(2), 102–120.

[43] Sposito, V. A., Hand, M. L., & Skarpness, B. (1983). On the efficiency of using the sample kurtosis in selecting optimal lpestimators. *Communications in Statistics-simulation and Computation*, *12*(3), 265-272.

[44] Strachota, E. (2003). *Student satisfaction in online courses: An analysis of the impact of learner-content, learner-instructor, learner-learner and learner-technology interaction.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. Ann Arbor, Michigan, UMI Publishing. https://www.learntechlib.org/p/119146/

[45] Sun, P.C., Tsai, R.J., Finger, G., Chen, Y.Y. and Yeh, D. (2008). "What drives a successful e-Learning? An empirical investigation of the critical factors influencing learner satisfaction. *Computers & education*, *50*(4), 1183-1202.

[46] Swan, K. (2001). Virtual interaction: Design factors affecting student satisfaction and perceived learning in asynchronous online courses. *Distance Education*, *22*:2, 306-331, DOI: 10.1080/0158791010220208

[47] Turkiewicz, J, Beczkowska, A, Skrobacki, R. (2022). Key Factors of Student Satisfaction with Distance Learning in the Situation of the COVID-19 Pandemic on the Example of a Polish University. *Journal of e-Learning and Higher Education, Vol. 2022.* DOI: 10.5171/2022.268774

[48] Vesely, P., Bloom, L. & Sherlock, J. (2007). Key Elements of Building Online Community: Comparing Faculty and Student Perceptions. *Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*. *3*(3), 234-246.

[49] Weerasinghe, S, Lalitha, R, & Fernando, S. (2017). "Students' Satisfaction in Higher Education Literature Review. *American Journal of Educational Research, vol. 5*, no. 5, P.P 533-539. https:// doi: 10.12691/education-5-5-9.

[50] Weinberg, S. L., & Abramowitz, S. K. (2008). *Statistics using SPSS: An Integrative Approach*. Cambridge University Press.
[51] Womble, J. C. (2007). *E-learning: The relationship among learner satisfaction, self-efficacy, and usefulness* (Doctoral dissertation). Alliant International University, San Diego, CA. Retrieved on 3 July 2022 from https://www.learntechlib.org/p/119496/.
[52] Wu, J.-H., Tennyson, R. D., & Hsia, T.-L. (2010). A study of student satisfaction in a blended e-learning system environment. *Computers & Education*, *55*(1), 155–164. doi:10.1016/j. compedu.2009.12.012

Kholoud Hussein Amoush received her PhD in TEFL from the World Islamic Sciences and Education University-Jordan in 2015, MA in TEFL from Yarmouk University in 2005, and BA in English Language and Literature from Yarmouk University in 1995. She currently works as assistant professor at the Department of English Language and Literature, Salt Faculty of Human Sciences, Al-Balqa Applied University – Jordan. Her current research interests include technology and language learning skills, hybrid learning and motivation in online learning setting. E-mail: khamoush@bau.edu.jo. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1865-8607

Rabab Ahmad Mizher received her PhD from Yarmouk University in TEFL and M.A from University of Jordan in Translation. Her area of research is Translation Studies, Contrastive Studies, Teaching Translation, and TEFL. She is an assistant professor of English at Al-Balqa Applied University – Jordan. P.O. Box 542092 Amman 11937- Jordan. E-mail: rabab_mizher@bau.edu.jo https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0351-0105

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 938-948, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.15

How Can Language Be Used to Reduce Zoom Fatigue? (A Neurolinguistic Study)

Jatmika Nurhadi*
Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia

Dadang Sudana
Department of English Language and Literature, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia

Wawan Gunawan
Department of English Language and Literature, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia

Sintia Hapsyah Rahman
Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia

Nurul Ashyfa Khotima
Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia

***Abstract*—Hypnotherapy can solve cognitive problems and is considered effective in reducing stress levels. One of the cognitive problems present is the symptom of zoom fatigue due to the transition of the online learning system. However, in its implementation, hypnotherapy requires a language model that can support individuals to gain concentration. Therefore, this study investigates the effects of hypnotherapy stimuli on individuals with symptoms of zoom fatigue compared to relaxation music. Data were processed and collected from the involvement of 10 respondents through observation of EEG recordings using Muse Headband hardware and Muse Monitor software. Through this device, brain signal recording will be obtained, consisting of 4 points, namely AF7, AF8, TP9, and TP10. The study's results detected that the provision of a hypnotherapy stimulus gave a greater relaxation effect than listening to relaxation music.**

***Index Terms*—EEG, hypnotherapy, neurolinguistics, zoom fatigue**

I. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted all fields and sectors, including education. The innovation considered a solution to this problem is using an online distance learning system (Mpungose, 2021). All universities require lecturers to switch their services online using video conferencing (VCT) technology to complement the online learning system (e-learning). However, the continuous use of video conferencing methods can cause fatigue symptoms known as zoom fatigue.

Zoom fatigue results from the sudden mass adoption of technology that has disrupted the normal, instinctive, and subtle ways of communicating that have evolved throughout history to help humans survive. Zoom fatigue causes individuals to experience energy depletion, manifested in the degradation of motivation when doing tasks and self-control (Bullock, 2022). Video conferencing allows us to communicate in different ways with prolonged eye contact, reduced body movement, and the need to increase expression by forcing ourselves to stay focused on the camera (Dodge, 2020), thus requiring more focus ability than face-to-face chat. As a result, individuals will experience headaches, eye irritation, blurred and double vision, and excessive tears and winks. Other recognizable symptoms are difficulty focusing during video calls and an inability to track what is being discussed (Bullock, 2022). If the individual cannot recover and energize, it will cause prolonged chronic fatigue (Maslach et al., 2018). Therefore, efforts are needed to recover energy from fatigue.

One method that provides solutions to cognitive problems is hypnotherapy. It happens because an individual's physical function can be controlled by nerves that are influenced by the mind (Sahour et al., 2019). Several studies reveal hypnotherapy effectively reduces stress levels (Alizamar et al., 2018). In this case, the hypnosis method can effectively control pain through three main mechanisms: muscle relaxation, perceptual changes, and cognitive impairment. Often the pain is accompanied by reactive muscle tension; thus, this method creates more relaxation, reducing body pain (Sadock et al., 2009). During the hypnosis process, individuals will receive a relaxation induction that asks them to focus on suggestions that can cause mental and physical relaxation and reduce muscle tension (Sahour et al., 2019). Hypnotherapy can be beneficial in increasing the patient's ability to engage in relaxation (Komesu et al.,

* Corresponding Author. E-mail: jatmikanurhadi@upi.edu

2011), reducing anxiety, and improving patients' perception of their ability to cope with their symptoms (Smith et al., 1999).

In its application, the hypnotherapy method requires a certain language model that can support the individual to focus his attention. The concentration of attention is useful for increasing suggestibility, which can encourage relaxation in the brain. It is evidenced by a meta-analysis of Flammer in 2003, which stated that from 57 studies analyzed, the success rate of hypnotherapy reached 64%. Hypnotherapy is successful in overcoming psychosomatic disorders that are macro or micro, such as; anxiety, stress, depression, and emotional instability, as well as helping clients quit smoking and controlling pain in some patients with chronic diseases. Therefore we need a language model containing suggestive power to relax individual conditions (Annisa et al., 2019).

Hypnotherapy methods have been widely used and provide benefits for the symptoms of certain diseases, including in the research: "The use of hypnotherapy as a treatment for functional stroke: A case series from a single center in the UK" (Sanyal et al., 2022); "The Effectiveness of Hypnotherapy in Reducing Stress Levels" (Alizamar et al., 2018); "The effects of hypnotherapy compared to cognitive behavioral therapy in depression: a NIRS study using an emotional gait paradigm" (Haipt et al., 2022); "Efficacy of hypnotherapy compared to cognitive behavioral therapy for mild to moderate depression - Results of a randomized controlled rater-blind clinical trial" (Fuhr et al., 2021); "Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Hypnotherapy and Skin Disorders" (Shenefelt, 2018). However, the use of hypnotherapy methods in overcoming the symptoms of zoom fatigue has never been studied.

Seeing the urgency above, the author considers a need for research related to hypnotherapy to overcome the symptoms of zoom. It is because the benefits of hypnotherapy are deemed relevant to be applied to the symptoms associated with cognitive fatigue, in line with an opinion (McMorris et al., 2018) which states that cognitive fatigue is generally viewed as a psychobiological state that occurs after a long period of activity that reduces brain performance. For this reason, this study will focus on developing a hypnotherapy language model that can be applied to individuals with symptoms of cognitive fatigue due to zoom fatigue.

II. Theoretical Framework

A. Zoom Fatigue

Professor Dr. Suzanne Degges-White of Northern Illinois University reports that zoom fatigue occurs when individuals spend too much time looking at screens which causes emotional, psychological, and physical exhaustion. It is because video conferencing requires increased cognition to focus on recognizing nonverbal cues, such as body language and facial expressions, which are evident in face-to-face conversations (Bullock et al., 2022). Zoom fatigue is a state of mental fatigue caused by staring at a screen for too long. It results in the complexity of interpersonal interactions due to the specific spatial dynamics of video conferencing (Nadler, 2020).

Recent evidence reports that video conferencing is more tiring than face-to-face meetings because of the continuous increase in attention (Bennett et al., 2021). Nadler (2020) theorizes that this fatigue arises from the concept of a third skin in which the individual is not involved as a human but is averaged into a third skin totality consisting of people, backgrounds, and technology. Another aspect that causes fatigue, according to Duval and Wicklund (1972), is a video feed that works like a mirror. It may help the individual to self-evaluate, but excessive self-evaluation will lead to feelings of stress and social anxiety for some women (Ingram et al., 1988). Zoom fatigue causes individuals to experience headaches, eye irritation, blurred and double vision, and excessive tears and blinking. Other recognizable symptoms are difficulty focusing during video calls and an inability to track what is being discussed (Bullock et al., 2022).

B. Hypnotherapy

Hypnotherapy is an individualized and multifaceted approach that generally involves relaxation, focused attention, visualization, and a suggestive component (Hadley, 2000; Osborne & Reed, 2019). This component has been used to treat psychological problems related to anxiety, depression, reduced motivation, and sleep disorders (Carrico et al., 2008; Hadley, 2000; Parekh et al., 2003; Turnbull & Ritvo, 1992). Hypnotherapy helps to identify, control, and accept reactions/emotions, especially by building self-esteem, self-confidence, and empowerment (Hogan & Nahum, 2001). Hammond's (2010) meta-analysis revealed that Hypnosis effectively reduced anxiety in his country during stressful situations (Hammond, 2010).

Hypnotherapy is considered effective because the individual's physique can be controlled by the autonomic nervous system, which their thoughts can influence. During Hypnosis, individuals receive a relaxation induction and are asked to focus on images for relaxation, which can lead to mental relaxation, followed by physical relaxation and reduced muscle tension. The relaxation that hypnotherapy provides is because hypnotic induction facilitates a sense of focus and openness to suggestions with relaxed images that provide a safe and peaceful mental environment in which to experience mindfulness. In addition, Hypnosis also facilitates the individual's ability to focus and relax more easily without criticism (Olendzki et al., 2020). Hypnosis can be effective in this case through three main mechanisms for controlling pain: muscle relaxation, perceptual changes, and cognitive impairment (Sadock et al., 2009).

C. Neurolinguistics

Neurolinguistics is a branch of linguistics whose study focuses on analyzing language disorders and brain damage affecting language structure (Scott, 2018). This theory is used to study language disorders based on neurological disorders. Mithun and Malmkjaer (1995) state three major parts of language skills: linguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics. Currently, neurolinguistics has had great discoveries in making computational modeling. Most traditional models have used static and symbolic data structures through recording tools that produce linguistic product outputs (Piñango et al., 2017).

Electroencephalography (EEG) is a mapping method used to measure electrical activity in the brain, which is widely used in the medical field (Roy et al., 2019). This method performs a non-invasive measurement of the brain's electric field by placing electrodes on the scalp. It is intended to record the voltage potential resulting from the current flow in and around the neuron area (Biasiucci et al., 2019). Diagnostic EEG generally focuses on measuring waves; this method records various stimuli and responses that arise in the brain and describes cognitive structures and memory. EEG produces a picture of electrical activity in the brain, represented as waves with varying frequency, amplitude, and shape digitally or recorded on paper called an electroencephalogram. Therefore, as measured by EEG, the potential describes neuronal activity and can be used to study various processes and responses in the brain.

III. METHOD

In this study, a mixed methods case study design was used. Creswell and Creswell (2017) mention that this design aims to develop or generalize a case based on quantitative and qualitative results and their integration. The two basic variants of this design are the deductive and inductive approaches. The deductive approach is where the researcher establishes cases at the beginning of the study and documents the differences in cases through qualitative and quantitative data. The second is an inductive approach, in which the researcher collects and analyzes quantitative and qualitative data, forms cases — often multiple cases — and then make comparisons between the cases. In this research, an inductive approach will be used to make generalizations. The experimental method with a single-group design uses a one-shot case study. In a one-off case study, the researcher administers the treatment (stimulus) and then performs a final test to determine the effect of the treatment (stimulation). A descriptive technique was also used in this study because it would utilize further analysis to generate conclusions.

A. Participants

This research will involve 10 respondents consisting of 5 men and 5 women. All participants are right-handed native Indonesian speakers. The respondents had no history of hearing or neurological disorders. All respondents gave written consent (consent form) after being given a complete explanation regarding the experimental activities to be carried out.

B. Stimuli

We gave the respondents 60 minutes of audio hypnotherapy stimulus.

C. Data Collection

The data were collected by observing, recording, and measuring EEG using Muse Headband hardware and Muse Monitor software. The hardware is an EEG device with four recording channels, one reference channel, and a 200Hz recording sample. It is connected via Bluetooth to a device that has Muse Monitor installed. These devices will record electrical signals in the brain through electrodes installed based on the International System 10-20 points: AF7, AF8, TP9, TP10, and FpZ as reference points.

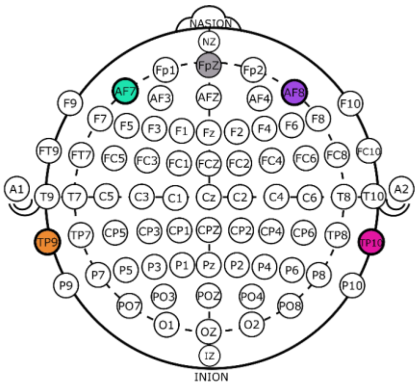


Figure 1. The International System 10-20 Electrode Placement

EEG data collection procedure describes the perlocutionary effect of hypnotherapy directive speech on brain activity. EEG data recording at the time the hypnotherapy speech was given. Recheck the results of the raw data (RAW) EEG recording.

D. Data Analysis

Before the data was analyzed, the RAW EEG data was cleaned of artifacts using Independent Component Analysis (ICA) (Makeig et al, 2004). Then the data were analyzed using Power Spectral Density (PSD) analysis. All data were analyzed using EEGLab 20.0 (Delorme & Makeig, 2004). The results are displayed in graphical form.

IV. Results and Discussion

The interpretation of brain wave conditions will be made after and before being given a hypnotherapy stimulus through the interpretation of power spectral density (PSD) data obtained from the EEGLab analysis results.

A. EEG Power Spectra Before and After Hypnotherapy

(a). Subject 01

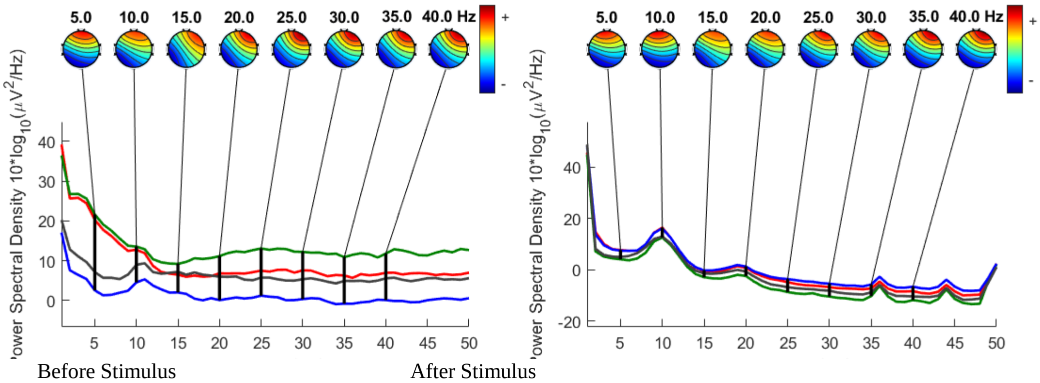


Figure 2. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 01

Based on the data above, it can be interpreted that after being given a hypnotherapy stimulus, the respondent's neural condition experienced a spike in alpha waves with a frequency of 10 Hz, which suppressed the rate of beta waves. Alpha waves occur in the frequency range of 8-12 Hz, which describes conditions when the brain is resting and meditating to produce a relaxed state in individuals. Alpha waves obtained after giving the stimulus had a larger spectrum than before therapy. Compared to r, there was a stagnant spike in beta waves with a frequency of 13-40 Hz. However, the stimulus succeeded in helping the respondent to obtain an increase in alpha waves which provided a relaxation condition through the acceptance of suggestions.

(b). Subject 02

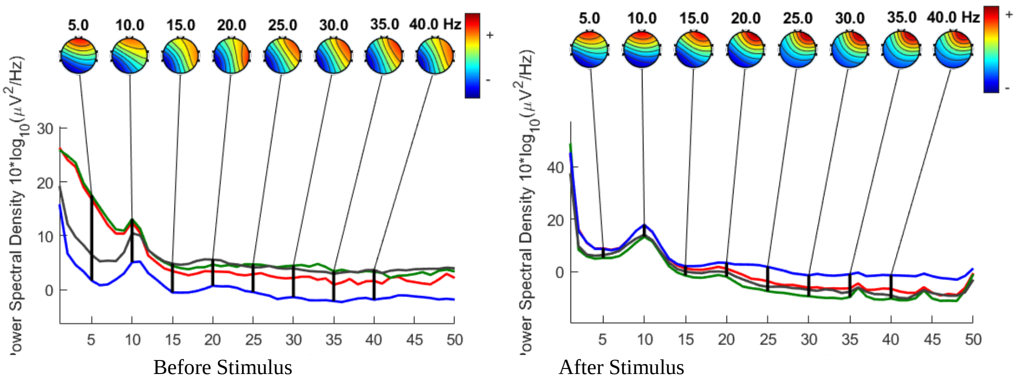


Figure 3. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 02

In Figure 3 above, the brain conditions both show significant alpha waves. The alpha wave increased with a frequency range of 10 Hz and successfully suppressed the beta wave after the stimulus therapy was given. The alpha wave spectrum unit in data that has been given a hypnotherapy stimulus shows greater strength, reaching 20 compared to before being given a stimulus that only gets a spectrum strength of below 20. Respondents with symptoms of zoom fatigue often feel fatigued related to the cognitive activity; when the respondent's neural condition is in alpha waves, it allows the brain to respond to relaxing activities that can reduce stress levels and help the condition to be more relaxed.

(c). Subject 03

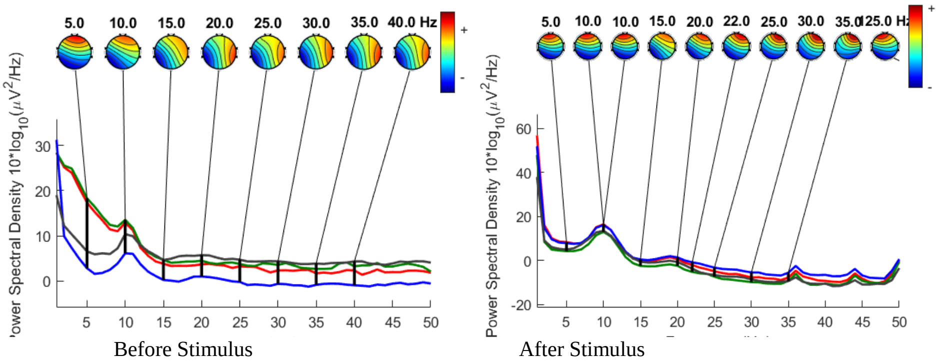


Figure 4. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 03

Based on the following data, an interpretation is obtained that the condition of the brain in this state describes a spike in alpha waves with a frequency of 10 Hz, which has succeeded in reaching spectrum units of 20. Alpha waves in this condition have succeeded in suppressing the rate of beta waves after being given a hypnotherapy stimulus. Although there is a small spike in the frequency range of 35 and 45 Hz, this is far from the significant gain of alpha waves. This small spike occurs because of a disturbance in the form of distraction that can affect the process of recording currents and signals in the brain.

(d). Subject 04

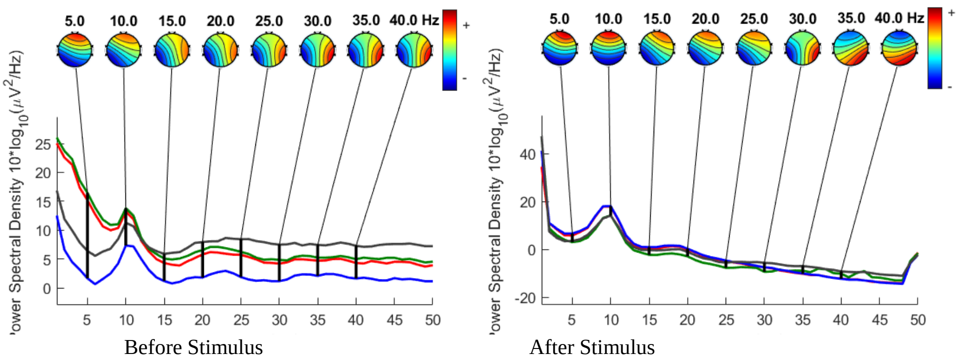


Figure 5. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 04

The condition of the brain wave picture in Figure 5 above experienced a significant spike in alpha waves in the 10 Hz frequency range. It succeeded in suppressing the frequency of beta waves. Before giving the stimulus, the alpha wave was only in the spectrum below 15, but after the hypnotherapy stimulus, the wave jumped almost to spectrum 20. The same thing happened with the beta wave, which experienced a decrease in spectrum strength after being given a therapeutic stimulus from a number below 10 to below a number 0.

(e). Subject 05

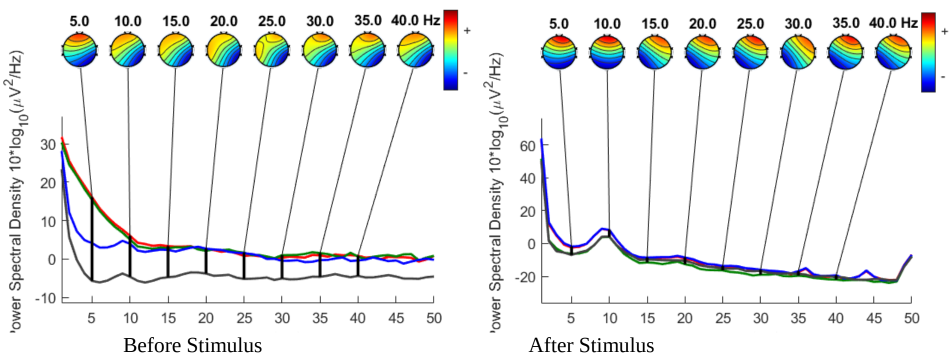
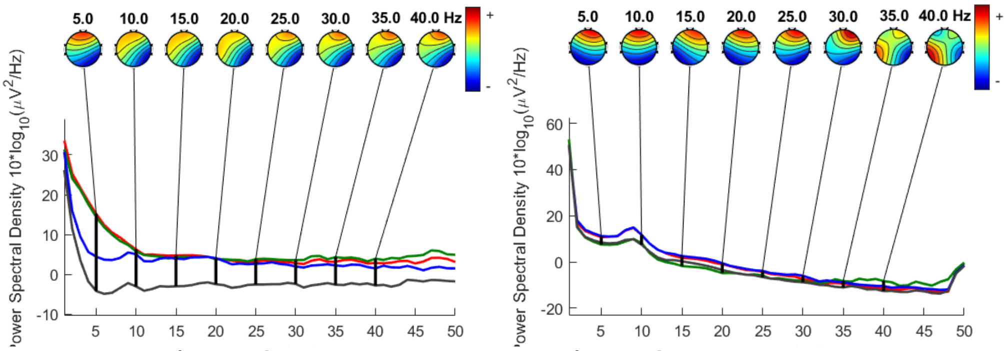


Figure 6. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 05

Based on the data above, it can be explained that there has been an increase in alpha waves with a frequency range of 10 Hz. The data shows a decrease in the beta wave spectrum from a number below 10 to below 0 before the hypnotherapy stimulus is given with the already given stimulus. When listening to the hypnotherapy stimulus, the individual is in a relaxed and relaxed state. Therefore the alpha wave spike is considered influential in suppressing the beta wave rate.

(f). Subject 06

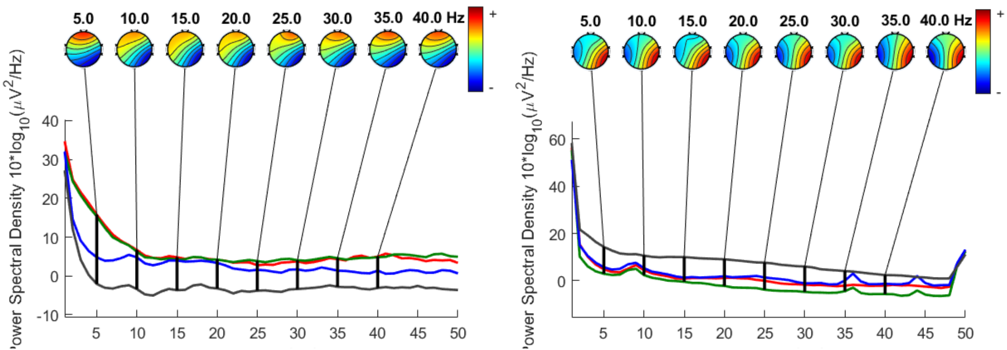


Before Stimulus After Stimulus

Figure 7. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 06

The description of the condition of the brain in the data above notes an increase in alpha waves with a frequency of 9 Hz, which has succeeded in reducing the rate of beta waves. Before the stimulus was given, there was a beta wave spike in the frequency range of 30-35 Hz with a spectrum value below the number 10. In contrast, after the beta wave stimulus was successfully lowered with a spectrum below 0. When the respondent was involved in the process of giving the hypnotherapy stimulus, the alpha experienced a spike that almost reached spectrum 20.

(g). Subject 07



Before Stimulus After Stimulus

Figure 8. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 07

In Figure 8 above, it can be seen that there is no spike in alpha waves; this happens because the respondents do not have too much of a dominant impact on certain frequencies. Meanwhile, where respondents have been given a hypnotherapy stimulus, it is noted that there is an increase in beta waves in the 35 and 45 Hz frequency ranges, followed by an increase in beta waves in the 35 and 45 Hz frequency ranges.

(h). Subject 08

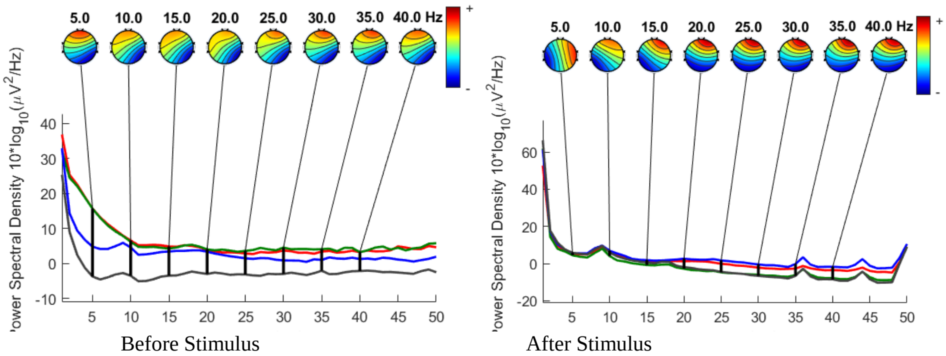


Figure 9. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 08

Based on Figure 9 above, it can be interpreted that there is a spike in alpha waves at a frequency of 9 Hz, which suppresses the increase in beta waves. In the condition of brain waves after being given a hypnotherapy stimulus, all of the frequencies converge and experience a significant alpha spike. It is inversely proportional to the before stimulus data, which looks not too dominant in certain frequencies.

(i). Subject 09

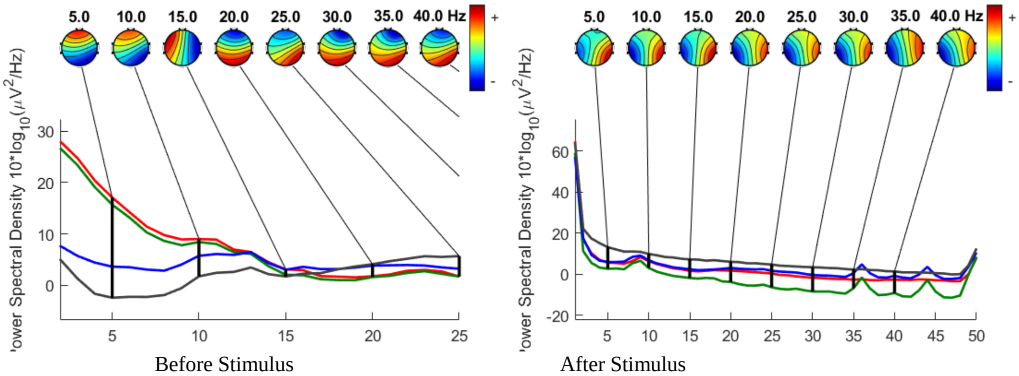


Figure 10. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 09

Based on Figure 10, an interpretation of the alpha wave spike with a frequency range of 9 Hz is obtained. Before being given a stimulus, there was an increase in beta waves in the 13 Hz frequency range, and the data showed that some brain areas had different frequency currents. However, after being given a stimulus, these areas began to coalesce, causing an increase in alpha waves with a spectrum below the number 20.

(j). Subject 10

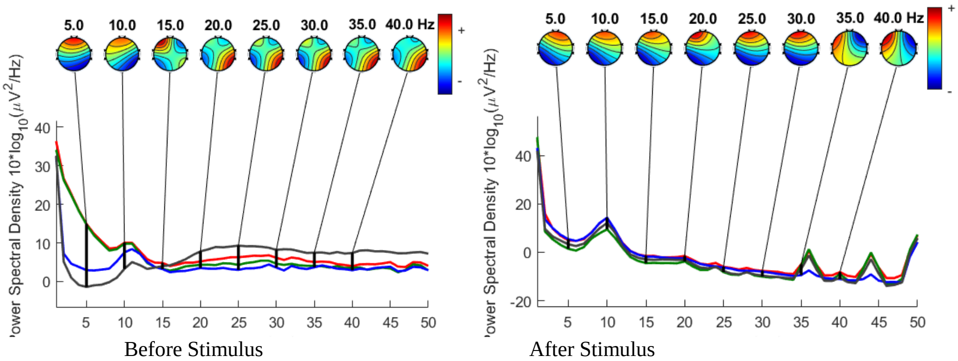


Figure 11. Comparison of Power Spectral Density of Subject 10

Based on Figure 11, a description of the existence of a spike in alpha waves with a frequency range of 10 Hz can be obtained, suppressing the rate of beta waves. Alpha waves occur during the transition between conscious and unconscious. When hypnotherapy begins, a person will be asked to accept all induction suggestions that will bring brain activity to relax and rest. The data shows a beta wave spike at a frequency of 35 Hz. Beta wave has a frequency of 12 to

38 Hz. This wave is considered a conscious state, indicating that the individual's brain will respond to everything around him. Beta wave spikes are caused by disturbances in the form of distractions that affect the process of recording signals in the brain. However, a significant increase in alpha waves successfully restrained the wave currents.

B. Grand Average of EEG Spectra

The following is an interpretation of the data generated from recording and measuring EEG via the Brain Computer Interface (BCI) with the Muse, the Brain Sensing Headband device. The Muse sensor is used as an EEG sensing device with five hardware sensors, one point is used as a reference point (NZ), and the other four points are used to record brain wave activity. These points consist of AF7, AF8, TP9, and TP10. The AF wave points focus on recording the anteriofrontal region, while the TP wave points focus on recording the temporoparietal region.

Data 2 Description of Channel Sensors With Muse the Brain Sensing Headband Device on Brain Waves After and Before Stimulus Therapy is Given

The wave points consist of AF7, AF8, TP9, and TP10. The AF wave points focus on recording the anteriofrontal area, while the TP waves focus on recording the temporoparietal area.

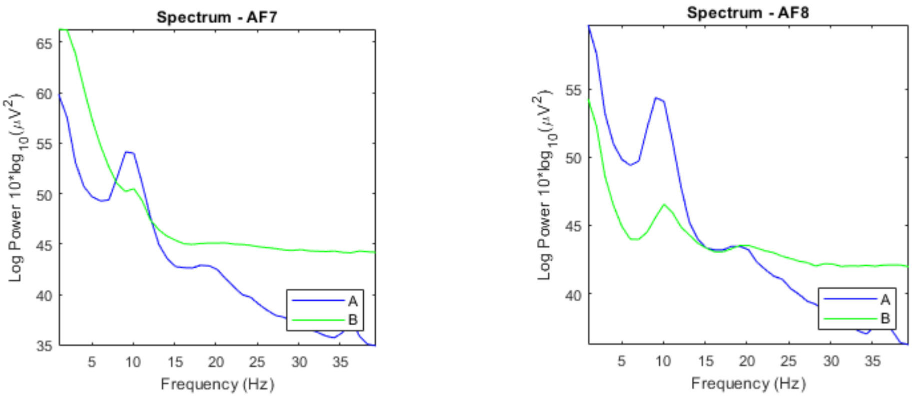
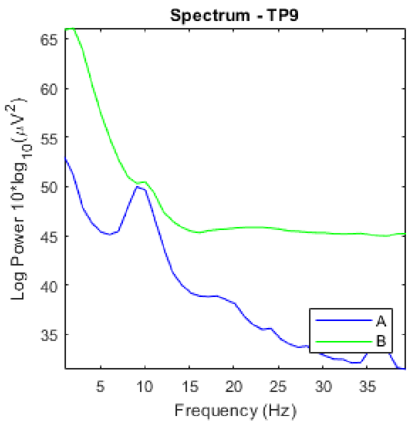


Figure 12. Grand Average of EEG Spectra Channel AF7 and AF8 (A: after being given a stimulus, B: before being given a stimulus)

The AF7 canal is located in the left frontal area. The frontal area serves as regulation and control in speech, movement planning, and recognition. In the AF7 data, it was noted that there was a spike in alpha waves with a frequency range of 10 Hz. The alpha waves rise in the condition of the brain that has been given a hypnotherapy stimulus. Meanwhile, before being given a stimulus, the respondents experienced a decrease in alpha waves and were in the stagnant line of beta waves in the frequency range of 15-35 Hz. Through this channel, it can be seen that hypnotherapy has a good effect because increasing the alpha brain waves will process the relaxation conditions needed by the respondent.

Furthermore, on the AF8 channel, there is a significant increase in alpha waves with a frequency of 10 Hz. Alpha waves are present in brain conditions that have been given a hypnotherapy stimulus. Although before the stimulus was passed, there was also a spike in alpha waves, the strength of the spectrum was 45, while in the condition of the brain that had been given the stimulus, the power of the spectrum was almost 55. The AF8 channel is located in the right frontal area. This canal is associated with the parietal area, which regulates information, stimuli, temperature, and body position. Looking at the AF8 data, it can be concluded that this area provides strong alpha waves and encourages relaxation.



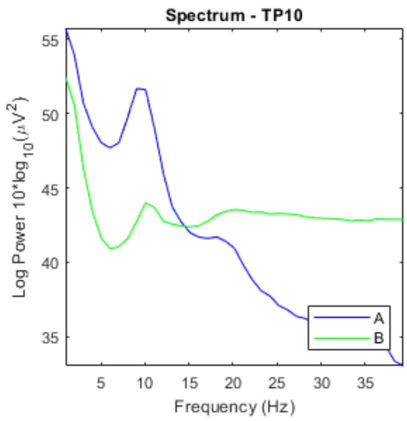


Figure 13**.** Grand Average of EEG Spectra Channel AF7 and AF8 (A: after being given a stimulus, B: before being given a stimulus)

On the TP9 channel, the alpha wave succeeded in suppressing the beta wave in the 10 Hz frequency range. Before being given hypnotherapy induction, beta waves were on spectrum 45 with a frequency of 15-35 Hz. However, after being given a hypnotherapy stimulus, the beta waves decreased in the spectrum below 40. It happens because the TP9 area is in the left temporal area and is associated with the occipital lobe, which helps individuals to recognize objects through the senses of sight and the written word. Through this area, the brain will get an interpretation of the objects seen and give the impact of obtaining a state of relaxation.

Furthermore, in the TP10 channel, there was a significant spike in alpha waves in the 10 Hz frequency range after being given a hypnotherapy stimulus. Before being given a stimulus, the brain responds to beta waves that experience spikes in the 20-35 Hz range. The alpha waves obtained succeeded in suppressing the rate of beta waves. The increase in alpha waves in this channel has a major impact on relaxation processing because the TP10 channel is located in the right temporal area. This area is important in forming memories and receiving information from ear stimuli. Therefore, the hypnotherapy stimulus given to the respondent succeeded in stimulating brain waves so that they were in a relaxed and relaxed condition.

V. Conclusions

Based on the research results and interpretation of the data above, the provision of a hypnotherapy stimulus induces a spike in alpha waves in the 10 Hz frequency range. Before giving the stimulus, the brain conditions responded to various frequencies that gave the rate for the increase in beta waves. However, the beta wave frequency was successfully lowered after listening to the hypnotherapy stimulus. It is a good impact because it means that the brain responds to a subconscious activation process that encourages a relaxed and relaxed state. In addition, the increase in alpha waves is also influenced by areas of the brain that have a function to control sound, visual stimuli, regulation, and information processing. Through this area, the hypnotherapy stimulus can be processed by neurons to create a state of concentration.

Acknowledgments

This research has been funded by LPPM, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.

References

[1] Alizamar, A., Ifdil, I., Fadli, RP, Erwinda, L., Zola, N., Churnia, E., Bariyyah, K., Refnadi, R., & Rangka, IB. (2018). The Effectiveness of Hypnotherapy in Reducing Stress Levels. *Addictive Disorders and Their Treatment, 17*(4). https://doi.org/10.1097/ADT.0000000000000140

[2] Annisa, DF, Afdal, A., Daharnis, D., & Adlya, SI. (2019). Hypnotherapy is an alternative approach to reducing anxiety in the elderly. *Counselor, 8*(1). https://doi.org/10.24036/0201874102696-0-00

[3] Bennett, AA, Campion, ED, Keeler, KR, & Keener, SK. (2021). Videoconferencing Fatigue? Exploring Changes in Fatigue After Videoconference Meetings During COVID-19. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 106*(3). https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000906

[4] Biasiucci, A., Franceschiello, B., & Murray, MM. (2019). Electroencephalography. In *Current Biology* (*Vol. 29*, Issue 3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2018.11.052

[5] Bullock, AN, Colvin, AD, & Jackson, MS. (2022). "All Zoomed Out": Strategies for Addressing Zoom Fatigue in the Age of COVID-19. *Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems, 349 LNNS*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-90677-1_6

[6] Carrico, DJ, Peters, KM, & Diokno, AC. (2008). Guided imagery for women with interstitial cystitis: Results of a prospective, randomized controlled pilot study. *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine, 14*(1). https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2007.7070
[7] Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.
[8] Delorme A & Makeig S. (2004). EEGLAB: an open-source toolbox for analysis of single-trial EEG dynamics, *Journal of Neuroscience Methods 134*:9-21.
[9] Dodge, M. (2020). *4 signs you have "zoom fatigue" (and what you can do about it)*. https://www.jobillico.com/blog/en/4-signs-you-have-zoom-fatigue-and-what-you-can-do-about-it/ 1 August 2022
[10] Duval, S., & Wicklund, R. A. (1972). *A theory of objective self awareness.* Academic Press.
[11] Fuhr, K., Meisner, C., Broch, A., Cyrny, B., Hinkel, J., Jaberg, J., Petrasch, M., Schweizer, C., Stiegler, A., Zeep, C., & Batra, A. (2021). Efficacy of hypnotherapy compared to cognitive behavioral therapy for mild to moderate depression - Results of a randomized controlled rater-blind clinical trial. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 286*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2021.02.069
[12] Hadley, S. (2000). *Hypnosis for change.* New York, NY: MJF Books.
[13] Haipt, A., Rosenbaum, D., Fuhr, K., Giese, M., Batra, A., & Ehlis, AC. (2022). The effects of hypnotherapy compared to cognitive behavioral therapy in depression: a NIRS-study using an emotional gait paradigm. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience, 272*(4). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00406-021-01348-7
[14] Hammond, DC. (2010). Hypnosis in the treatment of anxiety- and stress-related disorders. In *Expert Review of Neurotherapeutics* (*Vol. 10*, Issue 2). https://doi.org/10.1586/ern.09.140
[15] Hogan, K., & Nahum, EJ. (2001). *The New Hypnotherapy Handbook: Hypnosis and Mind-Body Healing*. Eden Prairie, Minnesota, USA: Network 3000 Publishing.
[16] Ingram, RE, Cruet, D., Johnson, BR, & Wisnicki, KS. (1988). Self-Focused Attention, Gender, Gender Role, and Vulnerability to Negative effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55*(6). https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.55.6.967
[17] Komesu, YM, Sapien, RE, Rogers, RG, & Ketai, LH. (2011). Hypnotherapy for treatment of overactive bladder: A randomized controlled trial pilot study. *Female Pelvic Medicine and Reconstructive Surgery, 17*(6). https://doi.org/10.1097/SPV.0b013e31823a08d9
[18] Makeig S, Debener S, Onton J, Delorme A. (2004). Mining event-related brain dynamics. *Trends in Cognitive Science 8*:204-210.
[19] Maslach, C., Jackson, SE, & Leiter, MP. (2018). *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual*. In Mind Garden, Inc.
[20] McMorris, T., Barwood, M., Hale, BJ, Dicks, M., & Corbett, J. (2018). Cognitive fatigue effects on physical performance: A systematic review and meta-analysis. In *Physiology and Behavior* (*Vol. 188*). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2018.01.029
[21] Mithun, M., & Malmkjaer, K. (1995). *The Linguistics Encyclopedia. Languages, 71*(3). https://doi.org/10.2307/416259
[22] Mpungose, CB. (2021). *Lecturers' reflections on use of Zoom video conferencing technology for e-learning at a South African university in the context of coronavirus*. African Identity. https://doi.org/10.1080/14725843.2021.1902268
[23] Nadler, R. (2020). Understanding "Zoom fatigue": Theorizing spatial dynamics as third skins in computer-mediated communication. *Computers and Composition, 58*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2020.102613
[24] Olendzki, N., Elkins, GR, Slonena, E., Hung, J., & Rhodes, JR. (2020). Mindful Hypnotherapy to Reduce Stress and Increase Mindfulness: A Randomized Controlled Pilot Study. *International Journal of Clinical and Experimental Hypnosis, 68*(2). https://doi.org/10.1080/00207144.2020.1722028
[25] Osborne, LA, & Reed, P. (2019). A Review of Hypnotherapy for Overactive Bladder. *International Journal of Clinical and Experimental Hypnosis, 67*(3). https://doi.org/10.1080/00207144.2019.1612671
[26] Parekh, AR, Feng, MI, Kirages, D., Bremner, H., Kaswick, J., & Aboseif, S. (2003). The role of pelvic floor exercises on post-prostatectomy incontinence. *Journal of Urology, 170*(1). https://doi.org/10.1097/01.ju.00000072900.82131.6f
[27] Piñango, MM, Zhang, M., Foster-Hanson, E., Negishi, M., Lacadie, C., & Constable, RT. (2017). Metonymy as Referential Dependency: Psycholinguistic and Neurolinguistic Arguments for a Unified Linguistic Treatment. *Cognitive Science, 41*. https://doi.org/10.1111/cogs.12341
[28] Roy, Y., Banville, H., Albuquerque, I., Gramfort, A., Falk, TH, & Faubert, J. (2019). Deep learning-based electroencephalography analysis: A systematic review. In *Journal of Neural Engineering* (*Vol. 16*, Issue 5). https://doi.org/10.1088/1741-2552/ab260c
[29] Sadock, BJ, Sadock, VA, & Ruiz, P. (2009). *Kaplan & Sadock's Comprehensive Textbook of Psychiatry Volume I/II Tenth Edition*. In Wolters Kluwer (Vol. 1).
[30] Sahour, A., Fakhri, M. K., & Pourasghar, M. (2019). Investigating the Effect of Hypnotherapy on Reducing Anxiety and Pain during Labor. BRAIN. Broad Research in *Artificial Intelligence and Neuroscience, 10*(3), 25-33. Retrieved from https://lumenpublishing.com/journals/index.php/brain/article/view/2179 (5 July 2022)
[31] Sanyal, R., Raseta, M., Natarajan, I., & Roffe, C. (2022). The use of hypnotherapy as a treatment for functional stroke: A case series from a single center in the UK. *International Journal of Stroke, 17*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/1747493021995590
[32] Scott, B. (2018). Language and Complexity: Neurolinguistic Perspectives. In *Translation, Brains and the Computer* (pp. 65-98). Springer, Cham.
[33] Shenefelt, PD (2018). Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Hypnotherapy and Skin Disorders. *American Journal of Clinical Hypnosis, 61*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/00029157.2017.1419457
[34] Smith, N., D'Hooghe, V., Duffin, S., Fitzsimmons, D., Rippin, C., & Wilde, G. (1999). Hypnotherapy for the unstable bladder: Four case reports. *Contemporary Hypnosis, 16*(2). https://doi.org/10.1002/ch.156
[35] Turnbull, GK, & Ritvo, PG (1992). Anal sphincter biofeedback relaxation treatment for women with intractable constipation symptoms. *Diseases of the Colon & Rectum, 35*(6). https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02050531

Jatmika Nurhadi is a lecturer at the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia. His research is related to neurolinguistics and neuropragmatics, especially those related to language and electroencephalography. Publication: “Subliminal and Supraliminal Effects of Metaphors on Brain Activity”; “Spectral topographic brain mapping in EEG recording for detecting reading attention in various science books”.

Researchgate: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Jatmika-Nurhadi

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6229-8186

Dadang Sudana is a lecturer at the English Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education, and a lecturer at the Linguistics Study Program, Graduate School, Indonesian Education University, Bandung, Indonesia. His research is related to pragmatics and clinical linguistics. Last publication: “The Adjacency Pair Responses of Conversation Analysis Mentally Retarded Person”. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5370-1685

Wawan Gunawan is a lecturer at the English Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education, and a lecturer at the Linguistics Study Program, Graduate School, Indonesian Education University, Bandung, Indonesia. His research is related to systemic functional linguistics, pragmatics, and educational linguistics. Recent publication: “Image-Text Relation Interpretation: Teachers' Visual-Verbal Competence In Teaching Text”. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1792-8350

Sintia H. Rahman is a research student from the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. Last publication: Mechanism of Inner Speech in Silent Reading Activity: Neurolinguistic Studies. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2360-0207

Nurul A. Khotima is a research student from the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. Last publication: Mechanism of Inner Speech in Silent Reading Activity: Neurolinguistic Studies. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4020-1881

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 949-956, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.16

The Status and the Future of the English Language in Jordan

Wael M. S. Zuraiq[*]
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Jordan

Abdullah A. Jaradat
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Jordan

Maisoun Abu-Joudeh
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Jordan

Sabri Al-Shboul
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Jordan

***Abstract*—This paper explores the English language status in Jordan in the past, present, and future. The predictions for the future depend on the historical performance of both Jordanian learners of English and developments in Jordanian institutions providing English teaching as a foreign language for the previous century. The study discusses the policies which may improve English education at public and private schools and universities. Besides, the research is going to try to provide sophisticated anticipation for the status of the English language in Jordan for the next 30 years or more. The primary finding is that the growth of Departments of English and the number of university students using English for their majors are following the Fibonacci Sequence. The study may benefit teachers, students, researchers, linguists, language planners, and policymakers. The findings are also discussed within Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles, 1980, 2001; Giles & Johnson, 1987; Giles & Harwood, 1997) and social identity theory (Tajfel &Turner, 1986; Turner & Reynolds 2001).**

***Index Terms*—English, Jordan, learning, language planning, and policy**

I. Introduction

Expecting the status of the English language in the future is an established activity from de Sélincourt (1928) until Kortmann (2001) and Jansen (2017) albeit it is risky. The current paper is going to reflect on multiple issues linked to the status of English in Jordan such as expected learning impediments, overt and covert teaching problems, and the prospective situation of English in Jordan. The study will also deal with the sociolinguistic dimension of the English language by relying on the context in which it is used. The model used here is Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles, 1980, 2001; Giles & Johnson, 1987; Giles & Harwood, 1997). CAT is furthermore related to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner & Reynolds, 2001) where speakers reveal associations about the linguistic codes they use.

Jordan was under Ottoman rule between the 16th century and the First World War. After the British invasion, Jordan had become the Emirate of Transjordan. In 1946, the independent Hashemite Kingdom of Transjordan was founded and admitted to the United Nations and the Arab League. English thus was taught in all Jordanian schools for several decades at the age of ten. Since the 1990s, English has been taught in conjunction with Arabic in all Jordanian schools starting at the age of six. Accordingly, the growth of English in secondary schools led to an even greater spread at universities. Jordan had only one English department in the 1960s (at the University of Jordan). Jordan had three English departments between 1976 and 1985. Then, from 1986 to 2021, there are almost 32 English departments teaching English at university levels. Between 1962 and 2021, the number of English teachers expanded considerably. To put it another way, tens of thousands of English teachers are currently employed in Jordanian classrooms. English is beginning to compete with Arabic in many areas inside Jordan including trade, tourism, international affairs, higher education, and business. This has given the English language a unique status in Jordan.

The objectives of the study are first to examine expected learning and teaching impediments, and then to rethink the appropriate methods needed to reform the teaching of the English language in Jordan. A better understanding of the whole picture of teaching and learning English in Jordan is expected to help to develop future policies and implementation plans on a national scale.

[*] Corresponding author. Email: zuraiq@hu.edu.jo

The current study hypothesizes that the English language is more likely to change in the coming years because of the better accessibility to students and teachers which enhanced better learning and teaching approaches.

English is an international language spoken across the globe as a first/second language and as a foreign language as well for decades, especially after the advent of broad communication facilitated by enormous advancements in recent technologies. This also applies to Jordan since English is considered the second language for education by interviewed students and instructors. English is required for global communication, good schooling, and industry. Besides, the English language is a key language in several countries as the language of diplomacy around the globe. It is the main language used by financial funds and exchanges. Over half of magazines in the world are written in a variety of English, and English is the language of medicine, space technology, and the high-tech industry. Furthermore, industries like Philips for instance offer English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses to their employees in the workplace. ESP classes are being imposed on employees in the oil industry to advance their English language. The picture is almost alike in Jordan. The English language is going to be the most widely used in business. As a result, knowledge of foreign languages, particularly English, is a vital component of success in practically any field of endeavor in modern times, as it is used by the majority of people from different nations to communicate. In a globalized economy, the ability to communicate in English is a must. Knowledge of English will be an unquestionable advantage in the workplace and will provide excellent opportunities for individual and national progress. Such needs triggered different attitudes toward the English language in Jordan. Some attitudes are positive and other thoughts are negative.

Communication in English requires that we start planning for teaching ESP; including aviation English in the airline industry, hospitality English in the hotel and restaurant industry, medical English in the drug industry and healthcare industry, and English for business. Maouche (2021) suggested that ESP is even inadequate in Algeria where now they should move to teach globalized communication where nations are required to work collectively to enhance business and collaboration overseas. Various studies have been conducted on diverse institutions in the Arab world to evaluate learners' attitudes toward foreign languages and the culture of native speakers of these languages; for example, Malallah (2010) evaluated students' attitudes toward the English language in three colleges in Kuwait University, namely the College of Science, College of Arts, and College of humanities. Malallah found that students in the College of Science showed the most positive attitudes regarding English and its native speakers. And students in the College of Arts had some positive and some negative attitudes. However, students at the College of humanities exhibited negative attitudes for the most part toward English. Ranjha et al. (2021) investigated students' attitudes toward English. Participants showed that some factors may demotivate their language learning attitudes. Al-Khasawneh et al. (2015) also investigated the level of motivation of gifted students at Jordanian schools towards learning English. They found out that gifted students are instrumentally motivated towards learning English. Al-Saidat (2009) also examined the attitudes and prestige of using English in Jordan. Respondents have chosen the English language as a tool for achieving success in the future over all other languages. Students consider it to be more impressive, developed, and technical than other languages. Abu-Melhim (2009) conducted a study in Jordan on 45 female college students to determine the good and negative views Jordanian college students may have about studying English as a foreign language and how these attitudes may affect the learning process outcomes. The study revealed that half of the students have negative attitudes toward studying English and becoming a teacher, while the other half have more favorable attitudes. Even though the vast majority of individuals, 87 percent, believe that English has a colonial meaning for them, they nevertheless prefer it. 81 percent of the same participants claim that English is a highly beneficial language for Jordanians. In reality, English is seen favorably by both people and decision-makers. All of this is positive in the sense that achievement has always met or exceeded expectations. For some years, this trend has been on the rise. In a study, Alkhatib (2008) identified weak national education policies, limited financial resources, and challenges attracting and retaining competent teachers as some of the issues that foreign and L2 students experience in the MENA region.

II. Methodology

A. Research Design

Since the study focuses on multiple dimensions such as learning impediments, teaching problems, the prospective situation of English in Jordan, and language bias and attitude, a qualitative approach was applied (Salkind, 2006).

(a). Sampling Method

The study deals with students and professors who would present detailed information about the learning process. The interview questions aimed at eliciting a detailed evaluation of the teaching process at different levels. Stratified sampling was chosen.

(b). Research Instrument

Researchers addressed a set of basic questions before introducing central questions. Interviews lasted for approximately 40 minutes. Researchers documented immediate comments and observations throughout and after every meeting. The questions were mainly tackling the learning problems that students faced in the past and the suggestions they have for future learning settings. The professors were asked questions about the teaching problems and their future expectations about the status of English in the future and questions about the policies that should be adopted in the future to guarantee better English to be taught at Jordanian schools and universities.

The questions were:

For students:

A. Why do you think you have to learn English in Jordan?
B. What are the challenges (or difficulties) you have faced during the process of learning English?
C. When do you think you will be able to master the English Language fluently and accurately?
D. Where do you use English other than in the classroom?
E. What is the impact of non-native instructors on your English?
F. What do you suggest that schools or universities do to improve English teaching?

For Teachers and Professors

A. What are the problems that are considered barriers to teaching English in Jordan?
B. How do you see the future of English in Jordan for the next 30 years?
C. What policies should be implemented to guarantee a betterment in teaching the English Language in Jordan for future students?
D. What are the domains where students will need English the most in the future; inside or outside Jordan?

(c). Subjects

The subjects in this study were 80 students from different levels from different public and private universities in Jordan and 20 instructors and professors who are also from different public and private universities in Jordan. All these participants were interviewed by the researcher.

B. Data

(a). Data collection Technique

The leading technique was collecting data via interviewing the focus groups. Semi-structured interviews were used since they are flexible in generating detailed answers. First, participants were encouraged to contribute to the study willingly. Then participants were informed about the task (purpose, timing, and risks). All participants were guaranteed privacy of their answers to construct confidence in the interviewer.

(b). Data Analysis

By analyzing data; all the facts, hypotheses, and notions were also documented.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Most of the interviewed students were introduced to English by the age of six years in the first grade. They studied it for 12 years at schools. After that, most of them chose to study at a university where they are taught using English in almost all majors (medical majors, engineering majors, natural sciences majors, and economics majors). The rationale behind using English, as instructors from different schools stated, is to enable students to read excellent textbooks and references relevant to their majors and to enable students to use the English language when they pursue their postgraduate studies, to conduct good research based on recent international references which are usually published in English, and when they choose to work abroad in different countries and international organizations inside and outside Arabian territories. There has been an escalating awareness, as instructors confirmed, in learning English during the last several decades. And there is a need to understand the progression of English language teaching/learning in Jordan, which is dependent on several aspects in the next 30 years. The value of being fluent in the English language is required for success in Jordan, principally in both business and intellectual venues. English is widely used in a variety of fields, including economics, tourism, arts, sciences, media, and politics. Figures 1 and 2 show an increase in the number of universities and teachers of English in Jordan from 1920 until 2020 according to statistics published on the websites of universities; the anticipated escalation until 2050 is also included:

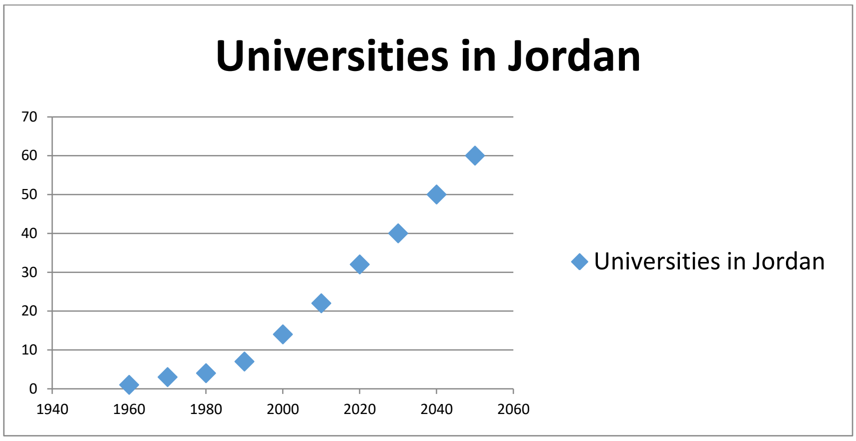


Figure 1: Increase in Number of Universities According to Founding Years in Jordan and Anticipation of Future Increase

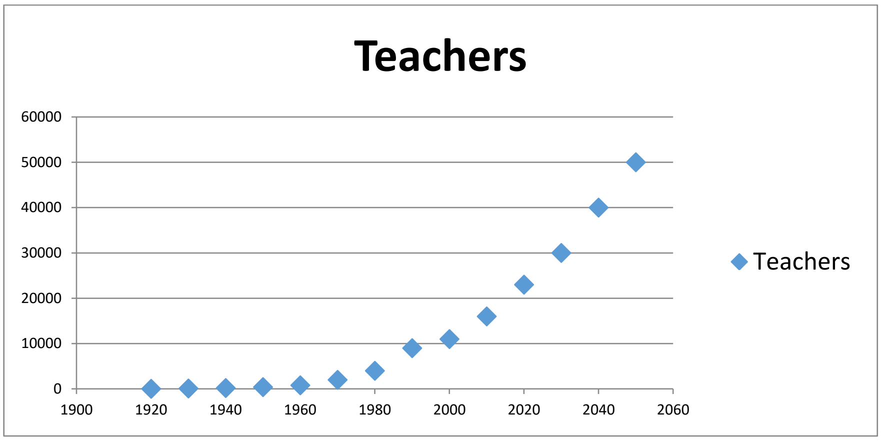


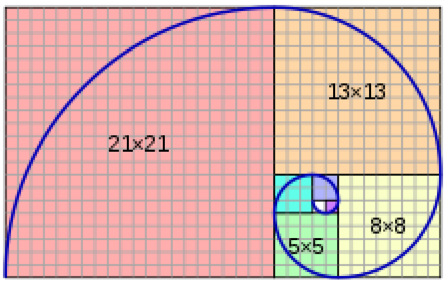
Figure 2: Increase in Numbers of Teachers According to Ministry of Education and Predicted Increase in Future

Both the rise in the past and the predictions for the future seem to approximate the Fibonacci Sequence. The equation for the Fibonacci Sequence is

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

for $n > 1$

Fibonacci numbers are also strongly related to the golden ratio.



For more explanation of both Fibonacci numbers and the golden ratio see the following link (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fibonacci_number) and Encyclopedia of Mathematics, EMS Press, 2001 [1994].

Even though there is an obvious and natural increase in the numbers of universities and teachers of English for the last 50 years as indicated by Figures 1 and 2 above, a central issue confronting English education in Jordan is that students encounter several challenges; the first basic issue which students argued about was the fact that learning English in Jordan has been focusing on grammar-based approaches for the most time. The communicative approach was introduced only 20 years ago and both students and teachers stated that they were not comfortable with such a method of teaching and resisted it most of the time because it was new and time-consuming in classes with a large number of students. Thus, Arab learners of English encountered several problems in speaking and writing. This fact has been clearly stated by many researchers (Harrison et al., 1975; Assasfeh et al., 2011; Assasfeh, 2015). Noticeable weaknesses of English language learners are explained by several factors: curricula, teaching methodology, lack of natural input and motivation, and humble incentives.

The substantial issue, then, is not about the number of Departments of English or the number of teachers who graduate every year and join the board of teaching team, but it is about how to consider the quality of teaching the

English language as a foreign language with a focus on language skills parallel to native output. At present, we do not teach the English language by using precise rubrics for each skill needed by a certain audience. Teaching English in Jordan is still a broad practice that is teacher-dependent. There is no nationwide assessment of English language teaching/learning achievement. There are no substantial incentives that may enhance the process of learning English productively. Moreover, the students' motivations to master the English language are oriented to focus only on obtaining some jobs such as teaching, translation, and internal tourism. Most Jordanian students reported that they were and are taught by non-native English teachers who themselves exhibit several problems in mastering the English language. In the past, the only way to learn English was through formal instruction at governmental schools and universities, i.e., in a classroom where the language teachers are native Arabic speakers. In the last 20 years, however, there have been few opportunities to learn and use English through natural interaction with people who can speak the English language fluently either at private schools recruiting native speakers of English or with the help of the abundance of online material and online communication with native speakers of English. To cope with these needs, Jordanian educational authorities must modify classical methods of teaching English and quickly adjust the curricula in response to the needs of learners and society. Moreover, more trained English language teachers especially in modest public and private schools outside Amman are urgently needed to fill the gap in such schools which are usually provided with less competent English teachers. If Jordan scholars, schools, and universities attempt to resolve such educational concerns and work towards improving the methodological and curricular barriers, the future of the English language in Jordan may look very promising. Now the English Language has evolved into the language of international business and trade even between nations that do not speak English as a first or even a second Language.

Another barrier was that many students reported that they were taught by translating words. Teachers also reported that they asked to put more emphasis on grammar as guided by teachers' books and supervisors, and they disregarded other skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, the value of Arabic is intact and the incentive for learning English appears to be instrumental rather than integrative. Students and instructors stated that English will not affect the Arabic language or the Islamic faith in Jordan. Furthermore, studying English will have no negative impact on people's culture because they will not develop negative behaviors. English, on the other hand, holds high esteem and is regarded as the language of science and technology. Both instructors and teachers argued that speaking English demonstrates that the speaker is better educated and superior to others who do not. It expands their horizons and provides them with the opportunity to obtain a respectable job. Jordanians’ attitude toward the English language is very important because it reflects the Jordanian's viewpoint of the language. We can see that Jordanian people have a good attitude toward the English language, which will aid the spread of the English language in Jordan in the future especially since the role of mass media is exceptionally intervening in the favor of the English language.

Mass media is another arena where English is rapidly developing in Jordan today since there is a new trend in education around the globe to use media education. English, like any other language, has several features, including grammar, vocabulary, and so on. Listening, on the other hand, is one of the hardest skills to master. As a result, students and instructors confirmed that they can overcome this impediment with the help of some additional resources. The case for media education is based on the student's personal experiences. Students can learn about the English language as well as the cultures of English-speaking nations via various mass media. It also fosters critical thinking in students, encouraging them to become active observers and listeners, and hence producers of their messages. Learners at different levels indicated that watching movies is the most interesting way to learn. The internet is in the second position, while songs are in third place. Everyone enjoys going to the movies. Everyone enjoys it regardless of where they are: at home or at the movies with friends. Foreign language films are the finest way to improve your vocabulary, enhance indirect grammar learning, and smooth the capacity for successful communication. Furthermore, films assist them in comprehending a large number of unfamiliar phrases simply by displaying the representation on the screen. Students realized that watching movies without subtitles and then going over them with the translation help them comprehend difficult terms. Learning English through films is input-based learning. Students begin by memorizing a large number of correct English sentences. Then they try to mimic them and construct new words. Movies also allow students to learn new vocabulary that isn't yet in dictionaries since these words are part of certain dialects of particular regions like informal English. Students also learn how native speakers pronounce words with correct lexical stress, with the proper social tone, and with accurate intonation. Furthermore, students can choose to learn to speak English like Americans or British if they are interested in a certain accent or dialect.

Students and instructors reported that language material related to English language learning on social media enables current students to compare and classify material according to their needs, and it helps learners to work in study groups, among many other rewarding things since the material is enormous and renewable. The dynamicity and free accessibility nature of English language material on the Internet provides learners with unlimited options concerning diverse vocabulary drills, grammar awareness, and miscellaneous communication opportunities from different countries speaking the English language. Students as learners of the English language benefit from material on the Internet to focus on these educationally expanding sources. The Internet is making education today more accessible to a huge number of learners around the globe. It also has the potential to advance new types of successful prompt learning. Learners of the English language at a higher level (postgraduate degrees) can also benefit from professional education through scholarly articles offered via open access journals, and international conferences accessible to a large audience using different smart applications for live and face-to-face contact. The internet can be used for a variety of objectives and in a variety of methods in language school. The more students use it, the more sophisticated their learning abilities become. The majority of internet websites are current and give useful linguistic information. They may provide a wide range of authentic materials that are critical to the student's advancement. As a result, they can be used as supplemental online educational courses that allow students to work and interact with native speakers and experienced tutors.

Moreover, the language used in video and online computer games may have a significant impact on players' language ability, and so the act of playing video and online computer games could be considered a learning circumstance. Because English is a lingua franca among gamers, it may be useful to consider video and online computer games as a source for English language acquisition. As a result, while interacting with other non-native speakers, the players may be able to expand their English vocabulary. As previously stated, games contain a variety of vocabulary, which the players may not have been exposed to in school. Playing video games can be viewed as a learning setting in which players can improve their literacy skills.

IV. Conclusion

The majority of Jordanian students are willing to learn and master the English language to succeed in studying their majors either in Jordan or abroad especially for their postgraduate studies, and this is not possible without mastering verbal English with a certain level of adequacy. Other students plan to work and live by securing a sound career to gain either in Jordan or outside Jordan. Jordanians also would love to widen a healthier perception of the values and traditions of other people from various parts of the world.

There are some procedures that the Ministry of Education, school principals, and English language supervisors must follow. The Ministry of Education should pay teachers a fair wage based on their years of experience, specializations, and the age of the students they teach, provide schools with appropriate facilities and aids for teaching English, and conduct ongoing surveys to stay informed about teachers' problems and make it clear that the English language is an important part of the curriculum.

This study was a thoughtful endeavor to conclude what the future of the English language in Jordan will be based on a variety of features. The study predicts an escalation in the number of English teachers and learners, and it predicts advancement in the quality of the teaching/learning process. Such escalation and advancement are not only governed by public teaching. Different factors can help in enhancing the teaching and learning of English such as new technologies provided by mass media communication and by private schools and universities recruiting more native and native-like speakers as English teachers even if this strategy will add more expenses to the learners and teaching institutions with modest budgets. The issue of funding teaching good English in Jordan is a very challenging factor that may hinder some of the processes of successful learning.

Another challenging issue in the future is to convince professors teaching English majors at the university level to shrink the load of teaching courses of Linguistics Theory and Literature courses with the current weight, which is about 70% of courses; and this hinders the possibility of adding more courses focusing on both language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) and English for Specific Purposes. What learners need is to practice more language skills and to focus on curricula that are specific such as curricula related to Business and Commercial English, Legal English, Journalistic English, English for Tourism, and other English programs focusing on specific purposes for diverse audiences of students who plan to succeed in future careers that do not require a solid theoretical background in linguistic philosophical theories or even acquaintance with current literary theories and ancient literary works such as plays, poetry, and novels extending to medieval ages. Students need not learn Old and Middle English since they are after learning Modern English with its contemporary vocabulary, grammar, and usage. Moreover, a future rethinking of the function of the English language in Jordan should focus on teaching globalized communication to strengthen the alliance between international powers' indefinite cultural perspectives.

Communication Accommodation Theory suggests that there are some behavioral changes that Jordanian speakers of good English would make to obtain approval from other efficient and native speakers of English, and this maximizes the effectiveness of communication with a constructive shared identity even if interlocutors belong to different inherited identities. Jordanians speaking good English feel more powerful in contexts requiring efficient English either for carrying or traveling abroad. And according to Social Identity Theory, Jordanians with adequate English would not feel an inferior status when they move from one group to another all over the world. The possession of good English is believed to minimize social status differences and to maintain the stability of such status by exhibiting positive self-categorization.

References

[1] Abu-Melhim, A. R. (2009). Attitudes of Jordanian college students towards learning English as a foreign language. *College Student Journal*, *43*(2), 682-694.

[2] Al-Khasawneh, F., & Al-Omari, M. (2015). Motivations towards learning English: The case of Jordanian gifted students. *International Journal of Education*, *7*(2), 306-321.

[3] Al-Khatib, M. A. (2008). Innovative second and foreign language education in the Middle East and North Africa. In N. V. Deusen Scholl & N.H. Hornberger (EDS.), *Encyclopedia Of Language And Education* (2nd ed., vol. 4, pp. 227–237). New York: Springer Science.

[4] Al-Saidat, E. (2009). English in Jordan: Attitudes and prestige. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *35*(2), 155-167.

[5] Asassfeh, S., Shaboul, Y., Zuraiq, W. & Shboul, S. (2011). Lending ears to EFL learners: Language difficulties. *Australian Educational And Developmental Psychologist*, *28*(1), 33-46.

[6] Asassfeh, S. M. (2015). Prospective EFL teachers: What language learning beliefs do they hold? *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 24*, 13–26. https://doi.org/10.1007/S40299-013-0154-1

[7] De Sélincourt, B. (1928). *Pomona or the future of English*. New York: Dutton, E. P. Retrieved November 3, 2021, from https://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015008020367?urlappend=%3Bseq=1%3Bownerid=1827369-5 Fibonacci Numbers. Https://En.Wikipedia.Org/Wiki/Fibonacci_Number. Retrieved September 20, 2021.

[8] Fibonacci Numbers" (2001). *Encyclopedia of Mathematics*, Ems Press, 2001 [1994]

[9] Giles, H. (1980). Accommodation Theory: Some new directions. In S. De Silva (Ed.), *Aspects of Linguistic Behavior* (pp.105-136). York, UK: York University Press.

[10] Giles, H. (2001). Speech accommodation. In R. Mistry (Ed.), *Concise Encyclopedia of Sociolinguistics* (pp.193-196). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

[11] Giles, H., & Harwood, J. (1997). Managing intergroup communication: Lifespan issues and consequences. In S. Eliasson & E. Jahr (Eds.), *Language and Its Ecology: Essays in Memory of Einar Haugen* (pp.105-130). Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.

[12] Giles, H., & Johnson, P. (1987). Ethnolinguistic identity theory: A social psychological approach to language maintenance. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 68,* 69-99

[13] Harrison, W., Prator, C., & Tucker, G. R. (1975). English-language policy survey of Jordan. *A case study in language planning.* Retrieved October 5, 2021, from Http://Files.Eric.Ed.Gov/Fulltext/Ed104171.Pdf

[14] Kortmann, B. (2001). ‘In The Year 2525 … Reflections on the future shape of English. *Anglistik*, *12*, 97–114.

[15] Malallh, S. (2010). English in an Arabic environment: Current attitudes to English among Kuwait University students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 1*(1), 19-43. https://doi.org/Doi:10.1080/13670050008667698

[16] Maouche, S. (2021). ESP for economy and business: A critical needs analysis of English language teaching in today's market economy in Algeria. *International Journal of Education and Learning*, *3*(2), 65-75.

[17] Ranjha, M., Asghar, S., & Yasmin, S. (2021). Demotivating factors in the foreign language learning: An analysis of the past studies. *Pakistan Social Sciences Review*. *5*(3), 325-338.

[18] Salkind, Neil, J. (2006). *Exploring Research* (Global Edition, 9th.ed.). Pearson.

[19] Jansen, S. (2018). Predicting the future of English: Considerations when engaging with the public. *English Today, 34*(1), 52-55. https://doi.org/Doi:10.1017/S026607841700027X

[20] Tajfel, H. And Turner, J.C. (1986). The Social Identity Theory of Intergroup Behavior. In: Worchel, S. and Austin, W.G. (Eds.) *Psychology of Intergroup Relation* (pp.7-24). Hall Publishers

[21] Turner, J. C., & Reynolds, K. J. (2001). The Social Identity Perspective in Intergroup Relations: Theories, themes, and controversies. In R. Brown & S. L. Gaertner (Eds.), *Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp.133-152). Blackwell: Intergroup Processes.

Wael M. Zuraiq is an associate professor of English at The Hashemite University, Jordan- from 2005 till now. Dr. Zuraiq graduated from the University of Kansas, Lawrence, USA, in 2005 with a PHD in Linguistics.

He has been teaching English Linguistics, translation, and language skills in both BA and MA programs. His current job is at The Hashemite University. And he chaired the Dept. of English Language and Literature, and also directed The Language Center at HU. He has published 25 works on varied Linguistics topics such as learning lexical stress by second language learners of English, phonological assimilation issues, and dialectology. His current and previous research interests are English phonetics, English phonology, and second language acquisition.

Prof. Zuraiq is a member in Jordanian Professors of English. He was a member of national committee of English exam for admission postgraduate students, Ministry of Higher education, Jordan.

Abdallah Jaradat graduated from linguistics department at the University of Kansas in 2007 and he is now an associate professor of English at The Hashemite University, Jordan.

He has been teaching English semantics and pragmatics. His current job is at The Hashemite University. And he chaired the Dept. of English Language and Literature, and also directed The Language Center at HU. He has published 8 works on diverse Linguistics issues such as discourse analysis, proverbs, and sociolinguistic topics. His current and previous research interests are English writing, English proverbs, and second language learning.

Maisoun Abu-Joudeh holds a Ph. D in linguistics from the University of Kansas, USA. She is currently an associate professor in the department of English Language and literature at the Hashemite University, Jordan. Her current research interests lie in foreign language learning and teaching.

Sabri Al-Shboul is a professor of linguistics in the department of English language, literature, and cultural studies and ex. director of the language center-the Hashemite University, Zarqa (2013-1014 & 2015-2018).

He obtained my PhD in Linguistics from the University of Kansas, USA in 2007 and both BA and MA in English and linguistics from Yarmouk University, Irbid. He joined the Hashemite University in 2007 as an assistant professor and got my tenure as an associate professor in 2013 and then professorship in 2021.

His research line deals with the cognitive accounts of the emergence of the default patterns in the language and how it is possible to provide a proper description for the lexicon via the mechanisms determining the behavior of certain inflectional systems in the language. He has published more than thirty research papers in peer reviewed international journals and one translated book from English into Arabic in the domain of engineering. He is a co-founder of the Jordanian Alumni of North America (JANA), Kansas, USA, 2014.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 957-964, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.17

"*Economy Struggle to Escape Coronacoma*": Compound Word Formation Processes of COVID-19 Related Terms in Online English News Articles

Heri Kuswoyo*
Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Padjadjaran, West Java, Indonesia;
Department of English, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia, Bandarlampung, Indonesia

Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna
Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Padjadjaran, West Java, Indonesia

***Abstract*—This study aimed to uncover the types of compound word formation and how the compound word formation processes of related new terms in the COVID-19 pandemic's online English news articles were formed. This study used Lieber (2009) and Plag's (2002) compound word formation frameworks. The data were obtained from ten news articles related to the COVID-19 pandemic using a qualitative descriptive method. The results showed that there were so varied types of the derivation of compound word processes, namely *coordinative*, *subordinative*, and *attributive*. Meanwhile, based on the stress of compound, the study found that there were *noun compound*, *endocentric compounds*, *exocentric compounds*, and *copulative compounds*. The results of this study indicated that *attributive compounds* and *subordinate compounds* are equally dominant in the analysis. Besides, the findings revealed that *noun* is the most dominant words than *verb* or *adverb*. To conclude, the present study provides both theoretical and practical implications.**

***Index Terms*—compound words, COVID-19 pandemic, online English news article, English morphology**

I. Introduction

Language development all around the world is growing rapidly along with the development of technology and life (Bruce & Levin, 2001; Vulchanova et al., 2017). As one of the functions of language in the development of technology and life, new lexical and terms are currently developing very rapidly during the COVID-19 pandemic delivered by electronic media, such as English online news articles (Gustilo et al., 2021; Saed et al., 2022; Qamar et al., 2022). Further, these new lexical terms are trending among language users (Khotimah et al., 2021; Nabila & Abdulrahman, 2021; Pura et al., 2022).

The rules in making a new terminology from a piece of news or information in society are called as word formation process. The process of forming words is called the morphological process. According to Yule (2017), the morphological process is a way in which the formation of a word by combining one morpheme with another morpheme or in other words. The fundamental purpose of this morphological research is how to identify morphemes and their distribution and combinations in constructing words by producing new lexemes from old lexemes, either by adding affixes to pre-existing forms, altering word classes, or combining them to generate a word combination.

Morphology is a sub-discipline of linguistics that discusses the patterns of words formed (Booij, 2007) or more precisely is the study of the internal structure of words, where words are formed from smaller pieces that have their meaning, but the word is grammatically language which can be simple and complex. Complex words are words that have an internal structure that can be divided into smaller parts, while simple words are the smallest words that consist of a single morpheme that has a meaning. A new word also can be formed naturally due to habits, environment, and time change, where these words are created through a process of word formation, especially compounding. Compounding is the process of combining two or more words into one unit with a single meaning (Delahunty & Garvey, 2010). According to Plag (2002) in Denise, compounding is the most productive sort of word production process in the English language, but it is also the most contentious in terms of linguistic analysis, as seen by the words of 'Spork'. The word is formed from 'Spoon' and 'Fork'. These two words are combined into one to form a new word and have a new meaning. The combination of word 'Spork' is combined from the beginning and end of the original word, which contains the meaning of the two original words, and is commonly called the blending word.

* Corresponding Author, Email: hery@teknokrat.ac.id

Several studies, for example, Noumianty (2016); Sujatna et al., (2019); Simatupang and Supri (2020); Fitria (2021); Hovhannisyan and Murazyan (2021); and Haider and Salman (2021) have conducted research on compounding word formation in different contexts. The initial study comes from Nouminaty (2016). This study examined compound word process, types and meaning of the culinary terms discovered in Master Chef U.S. Season 7. The study applied a morphological approach and used a qualitative case study. The study shows that one coordinative compound, two subordinative compounds, and twelve attributive compounds were found. Besides, the author categorized the meanings of compound words into opaque and transparent meanings. There were two compounds with opaque meanings and thirteen compounds with transparent meanings.

The second is a study by Sujatna et al. (2019). This study investigated a linguistic perspective on the naming of nature tourism destinations in Pangandaran, West Java, Indonesia. The findings showed that compounding, coinage, derivation, and the proper name have a tight correlation with the local language as the root of the names, and it contains metaphorical expressions. Therefore, this can also show that the branding function of destination names has much correlation with the metaphorical meaning, because the names of natural tourist destinations, morphologically, come from blending composition, and proper names, whereas metaphorically the name means the physical characteristics of natural tourist destinations, location of the destination, and also the activities at the destination.

The third study is from Simatupang and Supri (2021). This study examined attentively the category of compound words that occurred during the worldwide COVID-19 epidemic and assessed each form of word meaning. As a consequence of the investigation, the author discovered two sorts of compound words, namely compound nouns and compound verbs. Meanwhile, the three categories of semantic meaning discovered are classified as idiomatic meaning, semi-idiomatic meaning, and literal meaning. The next study is from an Indonesian context, Fitria (2021) discussed type and examples of the word formation process in terms of pandemic COVID- 19. The findings showed that some types of word formation processes including borrowing, compounding, blending, acronym, clipping, and multiple processes were found. The fifth study is proposed by Hovhannisyan and Murazyan (2021). The study discovered a hundred of new terms, idioms, and meanings that have evolved in English as a result of worldwide developments. The authors concluded that language is a symbol of life and that word-stock changes instantly represent changes in social life. New terms, phrases, and interpretations for existing ones spread as a reaction to the coronavirus. The process of creating new words was only served by all productive word formation processes.

The last was conducted by Al-Salman and Haider (2021). The study analyzed the nature of the new English terms and phrases that developed in the aftermath of the COVID-19 crisis, as well as to determine the types of word-formation processes that led to the establishment of these neologisms in the English language. Using Bauer's (1983) theory, the authors developed the most trending English neologisms arising during the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as the most dominant word-formation processes that characterized the COVID-19 stimulated neologisms. The findings indicated that there were two sorts of word-formation mechanisms. The first is single word-formation procedures, which include coinage, affixation, compounding, blending, clipping, backformation, borrowing, abbreviation, acronyms, and folk etymology.

The previous works focus on analyzing type and word formation process of the new term during the COVID-19 pandemic. To fill the gaps, this present study analyses and examines compound word process of each sample of the new term that was created, which previously has not been discussed. The present writers hope the findings from dozens of new words or new terminology that appeared and spread in society during the Covid-19 pandemic to contribute and become important things for the next researchers to analyze the morphological process in other fields. Based on the background of the study illustrated above, the present writers investigate the types of compound word formation and how the compound word formation process of the new terminology formed in the COVID-19 pandemic related terms in online English news articles. To this end, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the types of compound word formation found in the COVID-19 related terms in online English news articles?
2. How are the compound word formation processes formed in the COVID-19 related terms in online English news articles?

II. Research Design and Methodology

This study applied qualitative research. The data of this study are the compound words found in online English news articles related to the Covid-19 pandemic. This study is based on the theory of Lieber (2009) and Plag (2002) that explained clearly and in detail the word-formation process certainly of compounding. This study used online English news websites as the data source. The data source in details can be illustrated in the following table:

TABLE 1
DATA SOURCE

No.	Online English News Articles Websites	Data Source
1.	www.thejakartapost.com	https://www.thejakartapost.com/opinion/2022/02/04/curbing-omicrons-rise.html https://www.thejakartapost.com/academia/2020/05/03/pandemic-national-disaster-and-domestic-violence.html https://www.thejakartapost.com/paper/2021/05/28/pandemic-fatigue-fuels-defiance-of-covid-19-rules.html.
2.	www.cbc.ca/news.com	https://www.cbc.ca/news/entertainment/suga-positive-covid-after-us-trip-1.6297501
3.	www.thetimes.co.uk	https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/postcard-from-the-falkland-islands-the-40th-anniversary-of-the-war-will-be-a-time-for-reflection-d3ppfgdt2 https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/stand-by-for-a-stuttering-economic-recovery-2fxt2kbv8 https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/two-in-three-of-us-have-put-on-weight-in-lockdown-5snj7pspf
4.	https://www.aljazeera.com/	https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2020/9/20/coronavirus-all-you-need-to-know-about-symptoms-and-risks
5.	https://indianexpress.com/	https://indianexpress.com/article/technology/tech-news-technology/judge-narrows-zoom-lawsuit-over-user-privacy-zoombombing-7227711/
6.	https://www.nytimes.com/	https://www.nytimes.com/2020/04/13/technology/coronavirus-virtual-haircut.html

In collecting data, this study used a library research technique to get the data that contains the new terms of COVID-19 from ten online English news articles. Meanwhile, the present writers adopted Fitria's (2021) data-analyzing technique which was applied in several steps. The first step is searching for some online English news articles on the internet that contains new terms during the COVID-19 pandemic. The second step is classifying the terms in each type of compound word formation. The third step is describing each type and form of the compound words of the new terms. The last step is summarizing the result of the whole investigation of the data.

For example:

Self-isolation

"......New Zealand's Prime Minister Jacinda Ardern has gone into *self-isolation* until Tuesday ......".

(https://english.alarabiya.net)

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study investigates the types of compound word formation and how the compound word formation processes of the new terminology created in the COVID-19 pandemic in online news articles are formed. The results show that four data classified as attributive compounds, namely subordinative compound, and coordinative compound. Each finding is explained as follows:

A. Attributive Compound

Attributive compounds are compound word that includes two parts, a head, and a non-head, both of which include lexical roots, and in which the non-head is interpreted as a modifier of the head also the constituents are in opposition to each other. The following is data classification from online news articles and their processes.

Data 1

Lockdown

".......and it would be difficult for the economy to cope with another hard *lockdown* or if the current wave of cases spirals into a full-blown health crisis".

(www.thejakartapost.com)

The word *lockdown* in data 1 consists of two morphemes including *lock* and *down*. These are the smallest units of each word and they can stand alone. The word *lock* means a device that prevents something such as a door from being opened and it can only be opened with a key. Meanwhile the word *down* has meaning in or towards a low or lower position, from a higher one.

Based on the type of compound word formation, *lockdown* is an attributive compound because the word *down* shows the relationship with the first word, *lock.* Based on a syntactic point of view, there is no head from the combination of *lock* + *down*. Thus, the word *lockdown* is categorized to be an exocentric compound and a noun compound, because no head inside these two words, and the word class is determined lexically. In the word *lockdown*, after combining the word *lock* and *down*, it has a new meaning. In a pandemic context, it deals with an emergency measure or condition in which people are temporarily prevented from entering or leaving a restricted area or building such as a school, college, office, etc. during a threat of danger (Merriam Webster Online Dictionary).

Data 2

Community Transmission

"No lives have been lost to the virus and there has been one incident of *community transmission*, …..."

(www.thetimes.co.uk*)*

From data 2, the process of compound word *community transmission* consists of two morphemes. The first word is *community* and the second word is the *transmission*. Both are considered free morphemes and these two have the same categories in the word class that is *nouns* and altogether are the smallest units of each word. They also can stand alone and are already listed in the English dictionary.

By the type of compound word formation, *community transmission* is an attributive compound, because the word *community* modifies the word *transmission*. It is a noun compound. It is also an endocentric compound. The word *community* means the people living in one particular area or people who are considered as a unit because of their common interests, social group, or nationality. Secondly, the word *transmission* is defined as an act, process, or instance of transmitting or the process of conveying something from one person or area to another (Cambridge Online Dictionary). A situation when a country, region, or area is witnessing bigger outbreaks of local transmission is the new definition that results from the merging of COVID and community transmission. Since the meaning is derived from the literal meaning of each word, the sort of meaning that community transmission reflects is the literal meaning.

Data 3

Coronababies

"In Indonesia, a viral meme is circulating on social media to expect *"coronababies"."*

(www.thejakartapost.com)

The word *coronababies* is formed from three morphemes which are categorized into a compound noun. Two of the morphemes are free morphemes (*corona* and *baby*), because they can stand themselves, and one is an inflectional bound morpheme (suffix–es) which indicates a plural noun. It is called as an inflectional bound morpheme because it connects to the word *baby*. The term *corona* refers to a circle of light that may occasionally be seen around the moon at night or around the sun during an eclipse. According to the Cambridge online dictionary, it means a time when the moon is positioned exactly between the sun and the earth.

Those combinations of corona + *baby +-es* build a new word that becomes *coronababies* and it is an attributive compound, it can be seen from the first element. It shows the relationship with the head. The head here is *babies* and the *corona* is the modifier. Thus, this compound is categorized as an endocentric compound because the referent compound is the same as the referent of the head. While the meaning of *coronababies* based on dictionary.com is the babies that were born or conceived during the pandemic situation.

Data 4

Coronacut

"Tales of *coronacut* gone wrong have bubbled up on social media,...............".

(www.nytimes.com)

Coronacut in data 4 is a compound word that comes from the combination of two free morphemes that is *corona* and *cut.* In this case, the word *corona* is categorized as a noun and the word *cut* is categorized as a verb. After they are combined, new words become a *noun.* It is because the word is categorized as a noun compound. Both morphemes are listed in the dictionary and have each meaning. According to the oxford online dictionary, the *corona* has two meanings, firstly a ring of light seen around the sun or moon, especially during an eclipse, and secondly infection with or disease caused by a coronavirus. However, the present writers take the second meaning, because the theme of the discussion is about coronavirus pandemic. In another hand, *cut* is an activity to break the surface of something or to divide or make something smaller, using a sharp tool, especially a knife. The compound word *coronacut* has the word *cut* as the head and the word *corona* as the modifier. From this explanation, the present writers conclude that *coronacut* is *endocentric compound* because *coronacut* has semantic relationship which predictable and the right-side word is the head of word then it is also considered as attributive compound with the new meaning of the whole word as *the hilariously bad haircut we give ourselves under lockdown*.

B. Subordinative Compound

The subordinative compound is the compound words that follow a structure where the first constituent is a modifier and the second constituent is the head. Such compound can be seen in the following data.

Data 5

Coronavirus

"Countries around the world step up efforts to tackle the new *coronavirus* that has killed hundreds of thousands."

(www.aljazeera.com)

Data 5 shows that the compound word *coronavirus* consists of two morphemes, and two of these elements have the same category as a noun. The first word or morpheme is *corona*, and the second-word *virus*. Both words are free morphemes because they can stand alone. Based on Merriam Webster online dictionary, the word *corona* means a bright circle seen around the sun or the moon. Meanwhile, *virus* is an extremely small piece of organic material that causes disease in humans, animals, and plants (Cambridge online dictionary).

Based on the type of compound word formation, *coronavirus* is categorized as a subordinative compound, because the word *corona* and *virus* have the same word class and both do not have a head that considers dominating all the entire word. In addition, this compound is classified as endocentric compound due to the semantic relationship between these three are predictable. Therefore, from the compound stress, *coronavirus* is classified as a compound noun, because *coronavirus* is not a bright circle seen around the sun or the moon but it is a kind of name for the disease that is caused by the virus. The new definition of coronavirus, which is formed by combining the words corona and virus, is an infectious condition produced by a coronavirus that produces fever, weariness, coughing, and alterations in the perceptions of smell and taste, and can lead to respiratory problems and serious sickness in some people.

Data 6

Coronacoma

“Economy will struggle to escape *coronacoma*”

(https://www.thetimes.co.uk)

The next new term that was formed by situation and condition during the pandemic time is *coronacoma*. This unique word is formed by two free morphemes. The first free morpheme is *corona*, which the word class is *noun*, and means as a general period in which people are not allowed to leave their homes or travel freely so that they do not catch or spread a disease (Cambridge online dictionary). The second morpheme is *coma*. The word class of *coma* is a *noun*. Based on Cambridge online dictionary, it is a state in which a person is unconscious and cannot be woken, caused by damage to the brain after an accident or illness. From the previous explanation; the present writers categorize *coronacoma* as a noun compound. Meanwhile, the type of compound from this compound word is a subordinative compound, because the word *coma* follows and modifies the word *corona*, and it can be seen as an exocentric compound. Thus, Krugman (2020) in Fitria, *coronacoma* is the new compound word which is has meaning as “means the economic equivalent of a medically induced coma that deliberately shut down certain brain functions to give the patient time to recover”.

Data 7

Hand sanitizer

“He never missed a chance ....carrying a bottle of *hand sanitizer* with him whenever he went outside”

(www.thejakartapost.com)

Based on data 7, two elements make up the compound word *hand sanitizer*. Those elements are from the same categories, both *hand* and sanitizer are as noun. The word *sanitizer* has the bound morpheme /-r/. According to Oxford online dictionary, *hand* has meaning as the part of the body at the end of the arm, including the fingers and thumb. Meanwhile *sanitize* is to make something completely clean and free from bacteria (Cambridge online dictionary). The word *hand-sanitizer* is a noun compound, because of the form of the combining where *noun + verb* becomes noun. Thus, *hand-sanitizer* is categorized as a subordinative compound, with the first constituents modifying the second constituents. This compound is kind of left-headed because it defines the second steam stage and also has each meaning as listed in the English dictionary, so the present writers put this to be an exocentric compound. The meaning of *hand-sanitizer* that can be found in the dictionary is a liquid-like substance used for cleaning your hands and killing bacteria (Cambridge online dictionary).

Data 8

Coronaspeck

“Weight gain during lockdown is so well documented that Germans have developed a word for it, *“coronaspeck”* (corona bacon)”.

(www.thetimes.co.uk)

From data 8, the word *coronaspeck* comes from more two morphemes which are blended altogether. The first blending word *corona* and the second word is *speck*. This word is actually derived from Germany, but it is confirmed and has already been verified as a common word in English. The word *speck* in English means bacon, bacon fat or flab (Collins dictionary). These elements can stand alone and cannot be divided into small parts anymore. And the word *speck* shows as the head for the whole word, so that the transformation of the word *coronaspeck* is categorized as a compound noun. According to Merriam webster online dictionary, the word *corona* means a bright circle seen around the sun or the moon.

According to the types of compounds, *coronaspeck* is classified into a subordinative compound, because the structure where the second constituents modify the first constituents and headless. So, from the semantic point of view, the *coronaspeck* word is classified as the exocentric compound. *Coronaspeck* is not a kind of disease caused by a virus, but it is the term which has related to someone's body's weight gained fast during lockdown as a result of eating more than usual because of working from home (Collins online dictionary).

C. Coordinative Compound

A coordinative compound is a compound that contains one or more coordinate bonds. In other words, it is a compound that contains a coordination complex. It also can say that both elements of this are semantic heads. In the first element of the coordinative compound, the first element of the compound does not modify the second, but both of the two have equal meaning. In this study, the present writers only find one data that fulfill the category of the coordinative compound. The data sample is illustrated as follow.

Data 9

Self-quarantine

“Suga, 28, whose real name is Min Yoon-gi, ...virus on Friday during his *self-quarantine* upon his return ....”.

(https://www.cbc.ca)

Based on data 9, two morphemes with different elements and different categories are presented. In a word class, *Self* and *quarantine* are classified as a noun. Both have the same categories as free morphemes. A noun is combined with a noun. Thus, it is categorized as a noun compound. *Self* means of or by yourself or itself. Meanwhile, *quarantine* based on Merriam's online dictionary is a *situation* of being kept away from others to prevent a disease from spreading.

Therefore, *self-quarantine* is a coordinative compound because these compounds have two semantic heads (self and quarantine), none of them being subordinate to the other also this word is formed by a hyphen and it is a special characteristic of a coordinative compound. By the sign of a hyphen, it is categorized as a copulative compound. According to Collins's online dictionary, the meaning of *self-quarantine* is as a period of self-imposed isolation to prevent the spread of disease.

Data 10

Zoom-bombing

"...........with Facebook, Google and LinkedIn, and letting malevolent intruders join Zoom meetings in a practice called *Zoom-bombing*".

(https://indianexpress.com)

Zoom-bombing, in data 10 shows multiple morphemes through multiple word formation processes of *zoom* + *bomb* + *-ing.* It is formed by combining two free morphemes and one derivational suffix. Zoom is a brand name for computer software that allows a group of two or more people to see and chat with each other over the internet using their computers, tablets, or cellphones (Cambridge online dictionary). While the other free morpheme is *bomb.* Based on Cambridge online dictionary, it is a weapon that explodes and is used to kill or hurt people or to damage buildings. *Zoom* and *bomb* are the smallest units of the words. For derivational suffix *–ing*, it is a bound morpheme that generally should combine with the base and it will change the part of the speech.

From the word process, the type of compound word from *zoom-bombing* is classified into the coordinative compound. It can be seen from the two semantic heads and the hyphen. It is noun-noun compound, or noun compound. It is also a copulative compound because each of the words is separated by a hyphen. *Zoom-bombing* creates new meanings after these words are combined. According to the Cambridge online dictionary, it is the act of someone participating in a video conference or a meeting in which two or more people in different locations can talk to and see each other using electronic technology to which they have not been invited, often with the intent of interrupting and annoying the people in the meeting.

IV. Conclusion

The existence of the COVID-19 pandemic which has disrupted the health, economy, and life and happiness of all mankind in the world has brought many things, especially in the field of language. Many new terms have been formed since the pandemic broke out, some of which can be categorized as compound words. In this study, the present writers investigate the types of compound word formation and how the compound word formation process of the new terminology created in the COVID-19 pandemic in online English news articles on the website are formed. The findings reveal ten new lexemes or terms in an online English news article, such as *lockdown, community transmission, coronababies, coronacut, coronavirus, coronacoma, handsanitizer, coronaspeck, self-quarantine,* and *zoom-boombing*. The results also show that four words classify as an attributive compound, four subordinative compounds, and two coordinative compounds. The results of this study indicate that attributive compounds and subordinate compounds are equally dominant in this analysis. While based on the stress in the compound, the findings show ten words as noun compounds, four words as an endocentric compound, four data as an exocentric compound, and two words as a copulative compound. To sum up, the noun compound was the most dominant. This study has a significant contribution to the corpus of knowledge that enhances and supports intercultural communication. During critical moments, it is necessary to exchange key information. Knowing each pandemic language is crucial for establishing intercultural interaction and formulating effective worldwide responses to pandemic information. This study's findings also contribute significantly to the growth of the discipline of applied linguistics or language instruction. Lexical creativity displayed in many ways to produce new words has been a fruitful area of study that can throw light on the expansion of the lexicon of English variations while also providing a foundation for learning.

Acknowledgments

We are deeply grateful to the anonymous reviewers for their encouraging and constructive comments that helped improve our manuscript. We also would like to thank the Universitas Padjadjaran research grant for the post-doctoral program 2021 [Grant number 2474/UN6.3.1/TU.00/2021] and Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia for support.

References

[1] Al-Salman, S. A. & Haider, A. S. (2021). COVID-19 trending neologisms and word formation processes in English. *Russian Journal of Linguistics, 25*(1), 24-42. http://doi.org/10.22363/2687-0088-2021-25-1-24-42.

[2] Bauer, L. (1983). *English word formation.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[3] Booij, G. (2007). *The grammar of words: An Introduction to linguistic morphology, 2nd Edition.* New York: Oxford University Press Inc.
[4] Bruce, B., & Levin, J. (2001 in press). Roles for new technologies in language arts: Inquiry, communication, construction, and expression. In J. Jenson, J. Flood, D. Lapp, & J. Squire (Eds.), *The handbook for research on teaching the language arts.* NY: Macmillan.
[5] Delahunty, G. P., & Garvey, J.J. (2010). *The English language from sound to sense*. Indiana: Parlor Press
[6] Downing, A. L. (2006). *English grammar* (2nd ed.). Abingdon: Routledge.
[7] Fitria, T. N. (2021). Word formation process of terms in COVID- 19 pandemic. *Journal Bahasa, Sastra dan Pengajarannya (JBSP) Leksika, 15*(1), 18-26.
[8] Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2014). *An Introduction to language, tenth edition.* Wadsworth: Cengage Learning.
[9] Gustilo, L., Pura, C.M., & Biermeier, T. (2021). Coronalexicon: Meanings and word-formation processes of pandemic-related lexemes across English varieties. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature® The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 27* (4), 1-15. http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2021-2704-01.
[10] Haspelmath, M & Sim, A.D. (2010). *Understanding morphology, 2nd Edition.* London: Hodder Education.
[11] Katamba, F. (1993). *Morphology.* London: Macmillan Press.
[12] Khotimah, K., Laksono, K., Suhartono, S., Pairin, U & Dami, D. (2021). Lingual expressions in the covid-19-related Eco lexicons in Indonesian online-media coverage. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 17*(1), 309-326. http://doi.org/10.52462/jlls.19.
[13] Kushch, E., Bialyk, V., Zhykharieva, O., Stavtseva, V., & Taran, S. (2022). Lexical quantors: From term to discursive practice. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 12*(1), 75-85. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1201.09.
[14] Lieber, R. (2009). *Introducing morphology.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press Print.
[15] Murazyan, V., & Hovhannisyan, A. (2021). The Impact of coronavirus on English word-stock. *Education, Society and Human Studies, 2*(1), 34-45. https://doi.org/10.22158/eshs.v2n1p34.
[16] Nabila, E., & Abdulrahman, T. R. (2021). An analysis of new English words created during COVID-19. *Englisia: Journal of Language, Education, and Humanities, 9*(1), 19-32. https://doi.org/10.22373/ej.v9i1.9035
[17] Noumianty, D. S. (2016). *An Analysis of compound words on culinary terms in MasterChef U.S. Season 7 (2016)*. Retrieved December 17 2023 from https://repository.uinjkt.ac.id/dspace/bitstream/123456789/32861/1/DENISE SHEILLA NOUMIANTY-FAH.
[18] O' Grady, W., & Guzman, V.P. (1996). *Contemporary linguistics: An introduction.* London and New York: Longman.
[19] Plag, I. (2002). *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge textbook in linguistics. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[20] Pura, C.M., Gustilo, L., Biermeier, T. (2022). How the pandemic fuels linguistic change: Lexical innovations in L1 and L2 English Varieties. *GEMA Online, 22*(1), 80-109. http://doi.org/10.17576/gema-2022-2201-05.
[21] Qamar, M.T., Zeeshan, M.A., Yasmeen, J., & Pathak, S. (2022). Coroneologisms and word formation processes in Hindi-English codemixed words. *Acta Linguistica Asiatica, 12*(1), 59-89. http://doi.org/ 10.4312/ala.12.1.59−89
[22] Sujatna, E.T.S., Pamungkas, K., & Heriyanto. (2019). Names as branding on nature tourism destinations in Pangandaran, Jawa Barat - Indonesia: A linguistic perspective. *Pertanika Journal of Social Science and Humaniora., 27*(2), 803-814.
[23] Saed, H., Hussein, R.F., Haider, A.S., Al-Salman, S., Odeh, I.M. (2022). Establishing a COVID-19 lemmatized word list for journalists and ESP learners. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 11*(3), 577-588. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v11i3.37103
[24] Simatupang, E., & Supri, I.Z. (2020). Compound words that occur during the global pandemic Covid-19: A morphosemantic study. *English Review: Journal of English Education, 8*(2), 291-298.
[25] Vulchanova, M., Baggio, G., Cangelosi, A., Smith, L. (2017). Editorial: Language development in the digital age. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, 11*, 1-7, http://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2017.00447
[26] Wisniewski, K. (2007). *Word formation*. Retrieved December 12, 2022, from http://www.tlumaczenia-angielski.info/linguistics/word-formation.htm.
[27] Yule, G. (2017). *The study of language*, sixth edition. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
[28] Zvereva, E.V. (2022). Neology process in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic: Spanish and French media and social networks discourse. *RUDN Journal of Language Studies, Semiotics, and Semantics, 13*(2), 364-381. https://doi.org/10.22363/2313-2299-2022-13-2-364-381.

Heri Kuswoyo was born on March 2, 1985 in Indonesia. He is an assistant professor of functional linguistics at the English department, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia. He was a visiting researcher at the department of English, college of liberal arts and sciences, Northern Illinois University in 2019. His research interests include discourse analysis, classroom discourse, and systemic functional linguistics. He can be contacted at hery@teknokrat.ac.id

Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna is a professor of linguistics in the English department, faculty of cultural sciences at Universitas Padjadjaran, Bandung, Indonesia. Her papers have been published in international reputable journals namely 3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature, SAGE Open, Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities, Kasetsart Journal, and many more. Her research interests are in systemic functional linguistics, Syntax, and Morphology. She can be contacted at eva.tuckyta@unpad.ac.id

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 965-974, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.18

Factors Influencing L2 Maintenance in the L1 Environment: A Case Study of an Arab Returnee Child

Dukhayel M. Aldukhayel
Department of English Language and Translation, College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, Qassim University, Buraidah, Saudi Arabia

***Abstract*—The purpose of this cross-sectional observational study is to show how the perception of returnees' L2 can be changed in the digital era and how the massive spread of technology, among other factors, has eased an Arab (Saudi) returnee child's maintenance of English as an L2. The study discusses how technology allowed the returnee to continue to receive abundant L2 input, use the L2 daily, and interact with native speakers. The child was 9 months old when his family moved to the United States and was 6.2 years old when returned to Saudi Arabia. The study took place 5.4 years after their return when his age was 11.6 years old. A free conversation with the child, observation of online gaming, and an interview with parents were conducted to observe the child's L2 maintenance. The child demonstrated an intermediate level of fluency and produced non-verbal communication in free conversation and online gaming. The parents held positive attitudes toward bilingualism and English which was believed to have a great influence on the child's L2 maintenance. The study concludes that technology, parental attitudes, and personality and motivation have all contributed to the child's successful L2 maintenance.**

***Index Terms*—bilingualism, bilingual children, L2 maintenance, L2 attrition**

I. Introduction

It is usually taken for granted that young returnees will eventually forget the L2 after returning to the L1 environment. Previous research that studied the issue of L2 attrition (e.g., Tomiyama, 1999, 2000; Flores, 2010; Fujita, 2000, 2002; Reetz-Kurashige, 1999; Treffers-Daller et al., 2016) has reported that the attrition of the L2 is normal for returnees before the age of 9 years old. L2 attrition research suggests that returnees' L2 attrition is mainly caused by the L2 disuse in their home country due to the lack of or reduced natural L2 input and L2 contact (Bardovi-Harlig & Stringer, 2010), regardless of the returnee's age on arrival in the L2 environment, length of residence in the L2 environment, and attained L2 proficiency level. Thus, returnees' L2 attrition has been defined as a "process in which returnees' L2 knowledge (competence in the majority language of the host country) becomes less accessible or is modified to some extent as a result of re-immersion in their native language environment and reduced contact to the L2" (Kubota et al., 2021, p. 2). For example, studies that reported cases of child Japanese returnees (e.g., Reetz-Kurashige, 1999; Yoshitomi, 1999) suggest that the lack of opportunities for communication produced L2 attrition and the traditional receptive-skills focused special classes for returnee children were not valuable. Nevertheless, within the literature on returnee children, studies focused mainly on the maintenance of the L2.

Researchers have recognized the continued L2 input post-return (Slavkov, 2015) and active bilingualism (Kubota et al., 2020) in the L2 environment as major factors in L2 maintenance and improvement. For instance, Kubota et al. (2021) found that returnees who continued to receive L2 input better maintained their English microstructure after being re-immersed in the L1 environment. Slavkov (2015) declares that "continued input in a language that has become passive can be beneficial" (p. 715). Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer (2010) also argue that "technological resources that facilitate continued contact with the target language […] would thwart attrition and aid retention" (p. 31). Overall, as emphasized by Tomoyama (2009), findings from the L2 attrition research "support the relative ease of L2 maintenance" and underscore "the quantity and quality of L2 input and output for maintenance" (p. 272). Tomoyama suggests that "turning our attention from negative aspects, 'attrition', to positive aspects, 'maintenance', would be valuable for L2 attrition research" and "providing maintenance strategies and curriculum designs will directly benefit returnees in this increasingly globalized world" (p. 272). Following the above-mentioned arguments with regards to the potential of continued input on L2 maintenance, the current study aims to investigate how the massive spread of technology, smartphones, social media, online gaming, etc. has eased an Arab (Saudi) returnee child's L2 maintenance and how that contributed to his successful L2 maintenance. As emphasized by Reinders (2017), multiplayer online role-playing games "create many opportunities for collaboration and competition and rich opportunities for exposure to L2 input as well as opportunities for L2 output and interaction" (p. 332). The study contributes to the field and discusses how the available technology allowed the returnee to continue to receive abundant L2 input, use the L2 daily, and interact with native speakers after returning home and how that aligns with recent findings on the significance of continued L2 input post-return (e.g., Huensch et al., 2019; Kubota et al., 2020, 2021).

As such, here comes the importance of this study. In addition to the fact that research on returnee children is scarce (Kubota et al., 2021), most studies on children returnees' L2 attrition have been conducted years before the era of social media and web 2.0 (e.g., Flores, 2010; Fujita, 2000, 2002; Reetz-Kurashige, 1999; Tomiyama, 2000, 2009; Yoshitomi, 1999). Given the influence of technology on language learning, the importance of this research is that it attempts to enrich our knowledge of the role of technology in L2 learning and shows how its influence can be extended to L2 maintenance. Secondly, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that reports on a child returnee whose L1 is Arabic; as very few L1 languages have been reported in the current research; Hebrew L1 (e.g., Berman & Olshtain, 1983; Olshtain, 1986, 1989); Japanese L1 (Reetz-Kurashige, 1999, Tomiyama, 2000, 2009; Yoshitomi, 1999); Turkish L1 (Kuhberg, 1992). Thus, this study relates to more than 400 million Arabic-speaking people (Boshers, 2020). Thirdly, most studies that report successful L2 maintenance post-return involved adult participants (e.g., Pizziconi, 2017; Howard, 2009; Regan, 2005; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009; Sasaki, 2011; Huensch et al., 2019; Hessel, 2020). This should be among the very first studies that report successful L2 maintenance post return by a returnee child after Kubota et al. (2021). Lastly, as "timing is crucial" (Bardovi-Harlig & Stringer, 2010, p. 18) for attrition studies, what makes the findings of this study worthy is the timing of investigation of the returnee's L2 which was years after arriving in the home country; thus, any notable high L2 performance or successful L2 maintenance should be linked to other factors rather than recent exposure to the L2 in its context.

II. Literature Review

A. L2 Attrition

Language attrition has attracted people from a variety of perspectives (e.g. psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, sociolinguistics) due to its multidimensional nature. Language attrition has been broadly defined as the loss of any language or part of a language by individuals or entire linguistic communities for causes such as the overwhelming exposure to the language of the majority (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Stringer, 2010; Freed, 1982). Attrition studies in the current research have examined both L1 and L2 attrition, including pathological and nonpathological settings. Attrition is further defined by Van Els (1986) who considered both the language being attrited as well as the environment in which attrition occurs. There are four situations of language attrition predicted by Van Els (see Table 1) based on 1) the language being attrited (the L1 or the L2) and 2) where the loss occurs (the L1 or L2 environment). In the present study, we focus on L2 attrition (or maintenance) in the L1 environment. L2 loss in this category is observed in returnees who returned to their home country and disused the L2 language due to the usually drastically reduced L2 input in the surroundings (Paradis, 2007; Tomiyama, 2009). Based on this framework, we can classify the present study as Type 3: a male child returnee losing (or maintaining) his L2 in an environment that is his L1, Saudi Arabia, as a result of living in an L1 environment.

Table 1
Language Attrition Typology

		Language	
		L1	L2
Environment	L1	Type 1	Type 3
	L2	Type 2	Type 4

based on Van Els (1986)

According to Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer (2010), the first studies in L2 attrition research can be dated back to the early decades of the 20th century. Early studies focused on patterns of L2 loss of lexical items by young adult learners of French, Latin, and German (Cole, 1929; Kennedy, 1932; Scherer, 1957; respectively) over the summer holiday breaks. However, these studies did not evoke any wide-ranging research interest (McCormack, 2001). L2 attrition research saw its first significant publication after the May 1980 conference on foreign language loss at the University of Pennsylvania. Since then, a major body of research was carried out that resulted in journal articles, theses and dissertations, and several books. In 1982, a book edited by Lambert and Freed was published with selected papers from the conference. In the book, Lambert (1982) made a notable distinction between criterion variables and predictor variables influencing L1 attrition, named linguistic variables and extralinguistic variables by Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer (2010) who observed that L2 attrition shares many features of L1 attrition. Therefore, linguistic variables influencing L2 attrition include L1 transfer in certain aspects of lexicon, morphology, and syntax, the amount of and exposure to the L2 input, lack of morphological complexity, and loss of significant language registers. On the other hand, extralinguistic factors subsume the learners' age, the duration of lack of input, and motivation to maintain the language.

Within the area of L2 attrition, a major part of research efforts has been devoted to L2 attrition in children which can be dated back to Cohen (1974). Cohen studied the effect of summer vacation on Anglo children's Spanish-speaking ability. He examined patterns of L2 retention experienced by 14 students between the first and second grades. The study found that a summer recess of three months affected the children's oral performance in Spanish. For example, the subjects produced shorter utterances and fewer prepositions than before and made more errors than before summer recess. Oxford (1982) has argued that “the study has all the methodological problems of a pre-experimental pre-post design with no control group, although the findings are interesting” (p. 162). Indeed, Cohen’s study has produced wide-ranging research interest in children’s L2 attrition and contributed to another line of research that informed this study; namely, L2 attrition of returnee children.

B. Returnee Children’s L2 Attrition

The term *returnees* refers to children of immigrants who were raised in the immigration environment where their L2 was the language of the majority in that society and returned to the environment of their native language after they acquired the L2 in its naturalistic settings (Kubota et al., 2020). A specific definition of L2 attrition of returnees has been also proposed by Kubota et al. (2021), “process in which returnees’ L2 knowledge (competence in the majority language of the host country) becomes less accessible or is modified to some extent as a result of re-immersion in their native language environment and reduced contact to the L2” (p. 2). The first research effort that observed children returnees’ L2 attrition can be traced back to Berman and Olshtain (1983) who studied patterns of L1 usage in the process of L2 attrition. The authors compared the L2 English interlanguage grammar of L1 Hebrew child returnees to interlanguage forms produced by their counterparts who had never been abroad. Since then, children returnees’ L2 attrition studies started to appear in publications (e.g., Cohen, 1989; Flores, 2010; Kuhberg, 1992; Olshtain, 1986; Reetz-Kurashige, 1999; Tomiyama, 1999, 2000, 2009; Yoshitomi, 1999). These studies have reported on children returnees mainly of four different L1s (namely, English L1; Hebrew L1, Japanese L1, and Turkish L1). We will focus our review on the findings of the most significant studies.

- The longer lapse of time since children returned to their home country the most significant decline is in L2 production (e.g., shorter and fewer utterances, less complex structures). Older children’s performance (i.e., number of utterances, length, and complexity) was better than that of younger children regardless of the length of the interval (e.g., Yoshida et al., 1989).
- The duration of lack of contact or exposure to the L2 heavily influences the amount of loss of L2 structures (e.g., Yoshitomi, 1999).
- The amount of L2 language use influences the maintenance of speaking fluency and the occurrence of pauses (e.g., Tomiyama, 1999, 2000, 2009).
- Age, attained L2 proficiency, and literacy have frequently been reported to be significant variables in attrition processes; however, these variables are still confounding because they are interrelated and cannot be separated from each other. For instance, older children naturally acquire more L2 because they have longer L2 exposure and experience more social/educational opportunities. Older children retain more than younger children because they have L2 literacy skills and continue reading in the L2 which provides them with continued input after arriving in their home country (Olshtain, 1986; Tomiyama, 1999, 2000, 2009).
- Different aspects of L2 can be affected in various degrees including the lexicon (lexical complexity and productivity), morphology, syntax (grammatical complexity and accuracy), and fluency (Tomoyama, 2000, 2009).
- Production skills (speaking and writing), especially vocabulary retrieval, are more difficult compared to receptive skills (listening and reading; e.g., Cohen, 1989; Tomiyama, 1999).
- Lexical diversity and syntactic complexity are found to gradually decrease over time (Tomiyama, 1999, 2000, 2009; Yoshitomi, 1999).
- Fluency is the most likely aspect of language to be lost after returning home (Hansen et al., 1998; Tomiyama, 1999).
- During the period of reduced input and use, motivation and attitude have been identified as important factors in L2 maintenance (Edwards, 1976; Gardner et al., 1985; Nagasawa, 1999; Snow et al., 1988).

C. Successful L2 Maintenance Post-Return

The attrition studies reviewed so far have focused mainly on the process of attrition although they also have reported that most L2 knowledge could be maintained. In this section; however, we will focus our review on studies that have focused mainly on factors influencing the maintenance of the L2. In recent years, the amount of exposure began to receive attention from researchers as an important factor in affecting the rate of English attrition in returnees (e.g., Huensch et al., 2019; Kubota et al., 2020, 2021). The findings suggest that regardless of an abrupt, total withdrawal from the L2 environment, the extended time since the home return, and being re-immersed in the L1 environment, L2 can be maintained if L2 contact and usage (L2 exposure) were not discontinued. One of these studies is Huensch et al. (2019) who studied a group of 17 L2 French and 14 L2 Spanish adult learners four years post return. Participants who obtained a bachelor’s degree in these languages spent their third year of a four-year degree abroad in a French- or Spanish-speaking country as part of their degree requirements. They found that continued L2 contact and usage (for example, additional living abroad experienced or used their L2 often for work) during the four years post return influenced the maintenance of speed fluency, breakdown fluency, and overall oral proficiency. Kubota et al. (2021) studied the bilingualism of 32 Japanese-English bilingual returnee children. Subjects (Mage = 4.1, SD = 2.0) attended schools with English as a medium of instruction and lived in either a country where English is the majority language (e.g. USA, UK, Australia) or in a country where English is not the official language (e.g. Malaysia, France, Netherlands). The study found that continued input and L2 exposure in the L1 environment influenced children's maintenance of their L2 microstructure despite living in the L1 surroundings. Types of L2 exposure they had included reading in English with an adult, watching English programs on TV, and playing with friends/cousins who speak English. Those who experienced more than around 45% of reduction in L2 exposure produced fewer verbs per utterance. They concluded that a 40% or more reduction in (L2) exposure is a detrimental effect on L2 maintenance.

As children returnees' L2 attrition studies differed in observation timing and length, we have developed a typology for child L2 attrition studies to provide a clear perspective of where the present study stands within the framework of observation timing and length (see Table 2). It offers four types of studies: (1) immediate, short observation, (2) immediate, extended observation, (3) delayed, short observation, and (4) delayed, extended observation. According to this framework, the present study falls within Type 3: namely, the observation length is brief and takes place a long time after the participant returns from the L2 environment.

TABLE 2
CHILDREN RETURNEES' L2 ATTRITION STUDIES TYPOLOGY

		Observation timing	
Observation length		immediate	delayed
	short	Type 1	Type 3
	extended	Type 2	Type 4

Overall, several gaps can be identified in children returnees' L2 attrition research, particularly in the studies mentioned above. First, current research has only shown the effect of continued input obtained from reading and watching TV and continued exposure such as going to schools where English classes are offered. The effect of technology in facilitating L2 maintenance has been overlooked. To date, no study before the present one has examined how smartphones, social media, online gaming, etc. can provide a resource for L2 continued input for returnees. For example, video-sharing social media sites such as YouTube and TikTok offer the young generation unprecedented access to videos rich in language and culture-based content and instruction from around the world. They provide learners with an opportunity to engage meaningfully in the target language. YouTube especially provides language learners around the world with an unlimited source of L2 listening authentic materials in almost all the desired genres (Blake, 2016; Hubbard, 2017; Romeo & Hubbard, 2010). With regards to online multiplayer video games, Horowitz (2019) emphasizes that L2 learners have the opportunity to be engaged in different virtual worlds that are populated by English native speakers. Reinders (2017) suggests that multiplayer online role-playing games "create many opportunities for collaboration and competition and rich opportunities for exposure to L2 input as well as opportunities for L2 output and interaction" (p. 332).

Second, there is a lack of research on L2 attrition of returnee children whose L1 is Arabic. Although the L1 will not be considered as a factor per se, enriching the L2 attrition research literature with speakers of different L1s makes the current research more relatable to an additional audience of readers and should inspire further researchers. Third, while most studies examined L2 attrition immediately after returnee children return home, this study took place after a long time post-return because the "effects of L2 attrition and heritage language reversal appear to take some time to manifest in the returnee's grammar" and in other aspects of language. To this end, the following research questions were posed:

1- To what extent do linguistic changes occur in a returnee child's L2 after a long time of re-immersion in their home country?

2- What factors may explain potential L2 maintenance and development that take place after re-integrating into their L1 environment?

III. METHODOLOGY

Participant

The participant was an 11.6-year-old Saudi male returnee child, who will be called by his pseudonym, Ahmed. He and his family were known to the author prior to the study. He voluntarily participated in the research after the consent of his parents was obtained. A returnee is defined by Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary as "a person who returns to the country where they were born, usually after they have been away for a long time". In that sense, returnees usually belong to families from the upper-middle class and so was this study's participant. His parents are both Saudi nationals. His father holds Ph.D. and M.A. degrees in English and is particularly proficient in English. His mother had a college education and her English is intermediate. Ahmed was 9 months old when they moved to the United States due to his father's studying for his Ph.D. and M.A. degrees. During their 5.5 years of residence in the US, he went through a daycare (age 2), early childhood program (age 3), preschool (age 4), and kindergarten (age 5). Thus, he acquired English as his L2 in a natural environment (Tomiyama, 2000).

Information about his L2 acquisition process, L2 attainment, and general language environment in the US and Saudi Arabia was obtained from an interview with his parents. According to the family, as a language policy, the parents spoke only Arabic between them and used Arabic and English almost 50/50 with Ahmed during the full period of their stay in the US. Exceptions to this policy were the situations where the child is in the company of monolingual English friends. During their years of residence in the US, the family visited Saudi Arabia four times and spent around two months each visit in which Ahmed had no exposure to the English language. By the second year, Ahmed turned two and because his mother was attending English courses in an IEP, he was dropped into daycare for four hours a day for six months. There, he began picking up English in its natural environment. By the third year, he was enrolled in an 'early childhood program' when he began speaking English naturally, i.e., answered simple questions and spoke in sentences of five to six words. By the fourth year, he was performing well in English as he was attending preschool; he could use longer sentences, say what he was thinking, and describe feelings. By the fifth year, English became his dominant language and he was also functioning well in kindergarten and the daily life exchanges.

Given the restraints of Ahmed's age of arrival (9 months old) and the age of removal from the L2 environment (6.2 years old), the L2 input he received from his daily life throughout the years is considered limited. However, he was active in extracurricular activities and grasped some aspects of American culture. Ahmed was six years old when the family returned to Saudi Arabia. He was immediately placed in a local public school in the first grade and "naturally, English input [gets] drastically reduced in [the] surroundings" (Tomiyama, 2009, p. 258). However, by the time in which Ahmed's family returned (2015), technology was vastly spread across the globe and in Saudi Arabia which helped Ahmed continue his exposure to abundant English input. At home, Ahmed had an iPad, a PlayStation, and access to high-speed internet which he used to continue his access to L2 input. From their arrival until the age of 9, Ahmed was granted by his parents two hours on weekdays, three hours on weekends, and four hours on holidays watching YouTube and other video-sharing social media sites via his iPad which he watched mostly English videos. From the age of 9 until the time of this study, Ahmed had a PlayStation and he was granted three hours on weekdays, four hours on weekends, and five hours on holidays for watching English videos and online gaming in which he talked and chatted in English with native and non-native English speakers. Ahmed does not watch TV a lot which is a typical situation for kids of his age as it is found by Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) that playing digital games was more popular than watching TV or listening to music by Swedish youths (aged 11–12).

Ahmed's first language proficiency was developed during his residence in the US. As mentioned earlier, Arabic was used at home. Moreover, he was exposed to Arabic in Saudi gatherings, religious ceremonies, and cultural events. In addition, he had occasional phone and skype calls with family members in Saudi Arabia. As a result, upon returning home, his Arabic was considered by family members and by school teachers to be on par with relatives of his age and with classmates.

Ahmed has a positive attitude and is a motivated student at school. He is an active, outgoing, and extrovert boy, and also he is very prudent and mature for his age. He likes the social stimulation and opportunities in which he can engage with others. He is full of life, energy, and positivity. Verbally, he is uninhibited, impulsive, and willing to take risks. He would adopt codeswitching and ask-for-help strategies. He did not hesitate to switch to Arabic or ask for assistance whenever a problem arose. He tended to utter whatever came to his mind first and made frequent repetitions and self-corrections.

IV. Data Collection

A. Free Conversation

The researcher (L1 Arabic and L2 English) held a free conversation in English with Ahmed to collect spontaneous speech data. The conversation centered around his daily life activities in school and home including his watching favorite YouTuber channels and playing online games. Also, the topics covered included his outdoor activities and family gatherings. As such, the free conversation allowed us to collect data on his morphological, syntactic, and conversational discourse skills. In addition, the conversation provided data on his mannerisms, i.e., his habitual gestures and ways of speaking.

B. Parents' Interview

An interview was conducted with the child's parents to determine their attitudes towards bilingualism, English as a global language, and Arabic as the family heritage language. Also, the interview was intended to understand the parent's influence on the child's use or attrition of English.

C. Online Gaming Observation

Griffiths et al. (2003) found that the favorite aspect of playing online fantasy role-playing games was grouping, interacting with other people, and chatting with friends and guildmates (members of a strategic playing team). Such free conversations between gamers constitute spontaneous speech data. The observation was conducted to examine how online games provide opportunities for someone's free expression. As such, the observation allowed us to collect data on Ahmed's pronunciation and fluency as well as his ways of speaking online. In the observation, the child played a very popular multiplayer online role-playing game, *Fortnite*, with people from the globe who spoke English either as an L1 or as an L2. The observation lasted for about two hours and was both audio- and video-taped and some observational notes were also taken.

V. Results

A. *Free Conversation*

During the conversation lasted for approximately 25 minutes, Ahmed freely expressed himself, and considering his young age, he was able to sustain the relatively long conversation with the researcher. He did not only answer the researcher's questions but also volunteered topics and commented on topics whenever applicable to him. He was comfortable speaking English with the researcher and responded in English right from the beginning and continued to do so throughout the conversation. He demonstrated an intermediate level of fluency and produced non-verbal communication. Concerning pronunciation, the researcher could understand the child easily. Being aware of the researcher's bilingual capacity, he codeswitched in two instances to Arabic when he experienced lexical retrieval difficulty. He also opted for paraphrasing, avoidance, and approximation in a few other instances. He was very proud of his English proficiency level.

B. *Parents' Interview*

The interview with his parents revealed that they held positive attitudes toward bilingualism and English which had a great influence on his L2 maintenance. We also believe that the parents' levels of education (father held Ph.D. and M.A. degrees in English; mother had a college degree and had an intermediate proficiency level in English) likely influenced their attitudes. The attitudes and intentions held by Ahmed's parents towards his bilingualism were that the Arab/Saudi identity and Arabic language should be firmly established in Ahmed during their residence in the US since he just started picking up his L1 when they moved to the US. The family believed that the L2 acquisition should not be exercised at the expense of risking the L1 acquisition and that Arabic was important for "easier reintegration" (Bahhari, 2020) into Saudi society and schools when they return home. After he returned home, the parents thought that English was an asset, that they should help Ahmed maintain his L2, and that L2 maintenance should not be neglected. While the parents considered it very important for Ahmed to have a normal life as a Saudi child, they believed that he could live a normal life as a bilingual child in Saudi Arabia.

C. *Online Gaming Observation*

Similar to his performance in the free conversation, Ahmed showed considerable ease in expressing himself in the games. He showed more comfortability speaking English due to the relevant same age as the other players and showed no signs of hesitation in speaking English as if it was his L1. As an indication of high proficiency and confidence, he even was giving directions and orders in English to his guildmates. He even sometimes got involved in an argument while speaking English when losing games. He spoke fluently at an intermediate level and his pronunciation was clear. He did need to repeat or explain himself and his accurate use of English words was obvious. He needed codeswitching in some cases because he could not easily find the right words in English; however, he kept thinking of the right words and spoke only English due to the monolingualism of the other players.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. *The Role of Technology on L2 Maintenance*

Ahmed was removed from the target language environment at a very young age (6.2 years old) when his English was still developing and the L2 input he was receiving from his daily life in the L2 environment was limited. His age of departure from the L2 environment belongs to a group reported as being more vulnerable to attrition. Upon return, his English input got drastically reduced in his surroundings. The L2 of returnee children, like Ahmed, who return home around and before the age of nine is more vulnerable to attrition than those returning at older ages. Upon returning home, returnee children experience language pressure from people around them in the new environment forcing them to mainly use the L1 at a native-like level of L1 proficiency. At the same time, loss of L2 contact and discontinued input in schools and society leads to overall attrition of the L2 (Fujita, 2002). However, Ahmed survived attrition of most aspects of the L2 thanks to the technology that was available to him. The availability of technology was coupled with parents' attitudes towards bilingualism and Ahmed's personality and motivation in maintaining his English.

Like most Saudi gamers, Ahmed plays L2 digital games and browses videos on social media in his leisure time. The time spent by Ahmed on social media and online gaming undoubtedly allowed for a large amount of input and practice which explains Ahmed's relatively successful L2 maintenance and the relatively high scores on the two measures, i.e., the PPVT and the BMS. As confirmed by Tomiyama (2009), "a small amount of practice is enough to maintain the returnees' grammatical complexity, lexical complexity, and lexical productivity […] For the older participant, we may also add grammatical accuracy" (p.271). Oxford (1982) confirms that "practice of the L2 in a supportive environment is essential if the L2 is not to be lost" (p. 168).

However, he could not reach the ultimate maintenance of the L2 due to the limited exposure he had. The only exposure Ahmed had was an online L2 input and contact via technology; however, we believe that if he had naturalistic L2 exposure (Kubota et al., 2020) such as immersion in school where English is the medium of instruction, he should have higher L2 proficiency because some recent studies (e.g., Bialystok & Barac, 2012; Nicolay & Poncelet, 2013; Purić et al., 2017) suggest that high exposure in L2 immersion programs (5 or more hours a day) for more than six months affects bilingual children. Although Ahmed opted sometimes for paraphrasing, avoidance, and approximation which might be seen as signs of deficiency in the L2 (e.g., Tomiyama, 2000), these strategies are also used in the L2 acquisition process (e.g., Olshtain, 1986; Turian & Altenberg, 1991). In sum, the analysis of Ahmed's social environment reveals that three factors have contributed to his maintenance of the English language: technology, parental attitudes, and personality and instinct motivation.

The use of social media and online video games has become standard means of communication in many individuals' daily life and their accessibility allows people to be engaged in online conversations with people from other cultures who have never met in person using new languages. As many people around the world wish to speak English as the most widely used language around the globe, social media and video games, including online multiplayer games offer opportunities and activities that require knowledge and the use of English. These informal settings, which are free from the evaluation and scrutiny of the classroom, help increase motivation and reduce the fear and anxiety that many ESL speakers feel when using their L2 (Horowitz, 2019).

Technology, namely video-sharing social media sites and online multiplayer video games played a significant role in Ahmed's L2 maintenance. Video-sharing social media sites such as YouTube and TikTok are state-of-art opportunities for the young generation to watch videos and engage with different languages and cultures from around the globe. Social media sites are useful sources to learn the target language and interact with its people. YouTube can be imagined as an unlimited source of L2 listening authentic materials in almost all the desired genres (Blake, 2016; Hubbard, 2017; Romeo & Hubbard, 2010).

Concerning online multiplayer video games, Horowitz (2019) emphasizes that L2 learners have the opportunity to be engaged in different virtual worlds that are populated by English native speakers. Reinders (2017) suggests that multiplayer online role-playing games "create many opportunities for collaboration and competition and rich opportunities for exposure to L2 input as well as opportunities for L2 output and interaction" (p. 332). Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) state that L2 gaming can contribute to incidental and informal L2 learning, and reading in-game texts can increase L2 learning. Peterson (2012) concludes that L2 learners who actively participate in online multiplayer video games utilize different types of strategies to manage their interaction and undertake collaborative dialogues exclusively in the L2 which improves their fluency and discourse management practice.

B. Parental Attitudes

In addition to their positive attitudes toward bilingualism and English, Ahmed's parents were fully aware of the role of technology in L2 learning and maintenance. The time spent by Ahmed on social media and online gaming was authorized and supervised by his parents and their rationale was that technology would compensate for the L2 input decrease in the home country. The father who has a well-established background in L2 acquisition is aware of the effect of watching videos on Ahmed's L2. He declared that his son can increase, consolidate, and maintain many aspects of the L2 including vocabulary and pronunciation by watching L2 videos on social media sites such as YouTube and TikTok. With regards to online multiplayer video games, the father believed that such games would ensure Ahmed continue listening to English, using and speaking English, and interacting with native speakers. That perspective is supported by research. For example, Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found that Swedish youths (aged 11–12) frequent gamers achieved higher scores on a vocabulary test, compared to moderate and non-gamers. In sum, the parents' supportive attitudes towards bilingualism may lie in the fact that they also had fearless attitudes towards the heritage language.

C. Personality and Instinct Motivation

Ahmed's personality traits undoubtedly helped him maintain the L2. As mentioned earlier, he has traits of an extraversion personality; he is an active, outgoing, and sociable boy. That kind of personality allowed him to engage, with full pride in his English, in conversations, chatting, and playing games with people from around the globe. The effect of personality has been witnessed in free conversation and in online gaming in which he did not feel embarrassed to use several strategies including code-switching, paraphrasing, avoidance, and approximation. With regards to his attitudes and motivations toward L2 learning, these two concepts are very important in the maintenance or loss of the language (Oxford, 1982). Paradis (2007) also emphasized that motivation and affection among different factors offer children the ability to activate a neglected language. Similar to the Japanese child, Eugene, one of the participants in Tomiyama (2009), Ahmed has a positive attitude towards his L2 and is a motivated student at school. Ahmed's motivation has probably been enhanced by online video games. As concluded by Peterson (2012), massively multiplayer online role-playing games are engaging, motivating, and enjoyable and improve fluency and discourse management practice.

VII. Implications

While the results of our study are obtained from only one individual, we believe that it is worthwhile to consider the implications since many returnee children have profiles similar to that of Ahmed. The results suggest that language-supportive environments enrich the use of the L2 which is a key factor in the maintenance of the L2. The study shows the significance of daily exposure to the L2 (receiving and producing L2 input through watching videos on social media sites and through online gaming). Watching videos and playing online games provide opportunities for listening to the L2, speaking the L2, consolidating known vocabulary and phrases, and learning new L2 structures. Multiplayer games are viewed as a productive way to enhance language learning because of their high level of interaction. Education practitioners should be aware that the fun times spent online, be it on social media or online multiplayer video games, might be golden opportunities that offer learners rich and authentic environments for L2 learning that other educational methods and settings cannot, and their online engagement increases young learners' motivation to learn. Technology has reduced the need to take study tours or to travel to places to practice the L2. Therefore, practitioners involved in education planning and even the learners themselves are recommended to exploit authentic online experiences to practice English in.

Another implication from the results is that parents need to provide their children with the necessary support to use social environments and allow them as much active use of the L2 as possible. Parents should be involved in planning activities such as personal contact with native speakers to improve attitudes, increase motivation, and foster practice. They should monitor their children's attitudes and motivations toward L2 learning, loss, and maintenance. Children of one family might have different learning styles, personality traits, and L2 proficiency levels. Therefore, children might retain or lose different elements of the L2 over time. To facilitate L2 maintenance, parents should be concerned for each child as an individual.

VIII. Conclusion

The present study was conducted to investigate the L2 maintenance of a Saudi returnee child after 5.4 years of his return to Saudi Arabia and to explore the factors that influenced that maintenance. Data was collected through a free conversation with the child, an online gaming observation, and an interview with parents to triangulate the data. The child demonstrated an intermediate level of fluency and produced non-verbal communication in free conversation and online gaming. The parents held positive attitudes toward bilingualism and toward English which was believed to have a great influence on the child's L2 maintenance. Three factors have contributed to the child's successful L2 maintenance: technology, parental attitudes, and personality and instinct motivation.

References

[1] Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Stringer, D. (2010). Variables in second language attrition: Advancing the state of the art. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*(1), 1–45. https://doi:10.1017/S0272263109990246

[2] Berman, R., & Olshtain, E. (1983). Features of first language transfer in second language attrition. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(3): 222–234. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.3.222

[3] Bialystok, E., & Barac, R. (2012). Emerging bilingualism: Dissociating advantages for metalinguistic awareness and executive control. *Cognition*, *122*(1), 67–73. mailto:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2011.08.003

[4] Blake, R. (2016). Technology and the four skills. *Language Learning and Technology*, *20*(2), 129–142. mailto:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02328-1_13-1

[5] Boshers, J. (2020, June 18). Complete list of Arabic speaking countries**.** *IstiZada*. Retrieved May 23, 2021, from https://istizada.com/complete-list-of-arabic-speaking-countries-2014/

[6] Cohen, A. (1974). The Culver City Spanish immersion program: How does summer recess affect Spanish speaking ability? *Language Learning*, *24*, 55–68. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1974.tb00235.x

[7] Cohen, A. (1989). Attrition in the productive lexicon of two Portuguese third language speakers. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *11*, 135–149. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100000577

[8] Cole, R. (1929). The effect of a summer vacation on students' knowledge of French. *Modern Language Journal*, *14*, 117–121. https://doi.org/10.2307/315253

[9] Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary. (n.d.). Retrieved June 4, 2021, from http://collinsdictionary.com/

[10] Edwards, G. (1976). Second-language retention in the Canadian public services. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *32*, 305–308. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.32.3.305

[11] Flores, C. (2010). The effect of age on language attrition: Evidence from bilingual returnees. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *13*(4), 533–546. https://doi.org/10.1017/S136672890999054X

[12] Fujita, M. (2000). Kikokushijo to eigosoushitsu: saigakushu no kanousei o shinjiyou.[Japanese returnee children and their L2 English attrition: Significance of relearning.]. *Kaigaishijo Kyouiku Summer*, 52–3.

[13] Fujita, M. (2002). *Second language English attrition of Japanese bilingual children*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Temple University.

[14] Gardner, R., Lalonde , R., & MacPherson, J. (1985). Social factors in second language attrition. *Language Learning*, *35*, 519–540. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1985.tb00359.x

[15] Griffiths, M., Davies, M., & Chappell, D. (2003). Breaking the stereotype: The case of online gaming. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, *6*(1), 81–91. https://doi.org/10.1089/109493103321167992

[16] Hansen, L., Gardner, J., & Pollard, J. (1998). The measurement of fluency in a second language: Evidence from the acquisition and attrition of Japanese. In B. Visgatis (Ed.), On *JALT '97: Trends and transitions – Proceedings of the JALT 1997 Conference on Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 37–45). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

[17] Hessel, G. (2020). Overall L2 proficiency maintenance and development among returning ERASMUS study abroad participants. *Study Abroad Research in Second Language Acquisition and International Education*, *5*(1), 119–152. https://doi.org/10.1075/sar.19011.hes

[18] Horowitz, K. (2019). Video games and English as a second language: The Effect of massive multiplayer online video games on the willingness to communicate and communicative anxiety of college students in Puerto Rico. *American Journal of Play*,

11(3), 379–410. Retrieved June 11, 2021, from https://www.journalofplay.org/sites/www.journalofplay.org/files/pdf-articles/11-3-Article 4.pdf
[19] Howard, M. (2009). Short- versus long-term effects of naturalistic exposure on the advanced learner’s L2 development: A case-study. In E. Labeau & F. Myles (Eds.), *The advanced learner variety: The case of French* (pp. 93–123). Peter Lang.
[20] Hubbard, P. (2017). Technologies for teaching and learning L2 listening. In C. A. Chapelle, & S. Sauro (Eds.), *The handbook of technology and second language teaching and learning* (pp. 93–106). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118914069.ch7
[21] Huensch, A., Tracy-Ventura, N., Bridges, J., & Medina, J. A. C. (2019). Variables affecting the maintenance of L2 proficiency and fluency four years post-study abroad. *Study Abroad Research in Second Language Acquisition and International Education*, *4*(1), 96–125. https://doi.org/10.1075/sar.17015.hue
[22] Kennedy, L. (1932). The retention of certain Latin syntactical principles by first and second year Latin students after various time intervals. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *23*(2), 132–146. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/h0073426
[23] Kubota, M., Chevalier, N., & Sorace, A. (2020). Losing access to the second language and its effect on executive function development in childhood: The case of 'returnees'. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, *55*, 100906. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroling.2020.100906
[24] Kubota, M., Chondrogianni, V., Clark, A., & Rothman, J. (2021). Linguistic consequences of toing and froing: factors that modulate narrative development in bilingual returnee children. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2021.1910621
[25] Kuhberg, H. (1992). Longitudinal L2-attrition versus L2-acquisition in three Turkish children- empirical findings. *Second Language Research*, *8*, 138–154. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F026765839200800203
[26] Lambert, R. (1982). Setting the agenda. In R. D. Lambert & B. Freed (Eds.), *The loss of language skills* (pp. 6–10). Newbury House.
[27] Lambert, R., & Freed, B. (Eds.). (1982). *The loss of language skills*. Newbury House.
[28] McCormack, B. (2001). *The maintenance and loss of reflexive anaphors in L2 English*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Durham University.
[29] Nagasawa, S. (1999). Learning and losing Japanese as a second language: A multiple case study of American university students. In L. Hansen (Ed.), *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts* (pp. 169–200). Oxford University Press.
[30] Nicolay, A., & Poncelet, M. (2013). Cognitive advantage in children enrolled in a second-language immersion elementary school program for three years. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *16*(3), 597–607. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728912000375.
[31] Olshtain, E. (1986). The attrition of English as a second language with speakers of Hebrew. In B. Weltens, K. de Bot, & T. van Els (Eds.), *Language attrition in progress* (pp. 187–204). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110857863.187
[32] Olshtain, E. (1989). Is second language attrition the reversal of second language acquisition? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *11*, 151–165. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100000589
[33] Oxford, R. (1982). Research on language loss: A review with implications for foreign language teaching. *The Modern Language Journal*, *66*(2), 160–169. https://doi.org/10.2307/326385
[34] Paradis, M. (2007). L1 attrition features predicted by a neurolinguistic theory of bilingualism. In B. Köpke , M. S. Schmid , M. Keijzer , & S. Dostert (Eds.), *Language attrition: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 121–133). Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/sibil.33.09par
[35] Pérez-Vidal, C., & Juan-Garau, M. (2009). The effect of Study Abroad (SA) on written performance. *Eurosla Yearbook*, *9*, 269–295. https://doi.org/10.1075/eurosla.9.13per
[36] Peterson, M. (2012). Language learner interaction in a massively multiplayer online role-playing game. In H. Reinders (Ed.), *Digital games in language learning and teaching* (pp. 70–92). Palgrave MacMillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137005267_5
[37] Pizziconi, B. (2017). Japanese vocabulary development in and beyond study abroad: The timing of the year abroad in a language degree curriculum. *The Language Learning Journal*, *45*, 133–152. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.786119
[38] Purić, D., Vuksanović, J., & Chondrogianni, V. (2017). Cognitive advantages of immersion education after 1 year: Effects of amount of exposure. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *159*, 296–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2017.02.011
[39] Reetz-Kurashige, A. (1999). Japanese returnees' retention of English-speaking skills: Changes in verb usage over time. In L. Hansen (Ed.). *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts* (pp. 21–58). Oxford University Press.
[40] Regan, V. (2005). From speech community back to classroom: What variation analysis can tell us about the role of context in the acquisition of French as a foreign language. In J.-M. Dewaele, (Ed.), *Focus on French as a foreign language: Multidisciplinary approaches* (pp. 191–209). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853597688-010
[41] Reinders, H. (2017). Digital games and second language learning. In S. L. Thorne & S. May (Eds.), *Language, education and technology. Encyclopedia of language and education* (3rd ed.) (pp. 329–344). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02237-6_26
[42] Romeo, K., & Hubbard, P. (2010). Pervasive CALL learner training for improving listening proficiency. In M. Levy, F. Blin, C. Siskin & O. Takeuchi (Eds.), *WorldCALL: International perspectives on computer-assisted language learning*. Routledge.
[43] Sasaki, M. (2011). Effects of varying lengths of study-abroad experiences on Japanese EFL students’ L2 writing ability and motivation: A longitudinal study. *TESOL Quarterly*, *45*, 81–105. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2011.240861
[44] Scherer, G. (1957). The forgetting rate of learning German. *German Quarterly*, *30*, 275–277. https://doi.org/10.2307/401773
[45] Slavkov, N. (2015). Language attrition and reactivation in the context of bilingual first language acquisition. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *18*(6), 715–734. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.941785
[46] Snow, M., Padilla, A., & Campbell, R. (1988). Patterns of second language retention of graduates of a Spanish immersion program. *Applied Linguistics*, *9*, 182–197. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/9.2.182
[47] Sylvén, L., & Sundqvist, P. (2012). Gaming as extramural English L2 learning and L2 proficiency among young learners. *ReCALL*, *24*(03), 302–321. https://doi.org/10.1017/S095834401200016X

[48] Tomiyama, M. (1999). The first stage of second language attrition: A case study of a Japanese returnee. In L. Hansen (Ed.), *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts* (pp. 59–79). Oxford University Press.
[49] Tomiyama, M. (2000). Child second language attrition: A longitudinal case study. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(3), 304–332. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.3.304
[50] Tomiyama, M. (2009). Age and proficiency in L2 attrition: Data from two siblings. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(2), 253–275. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amn038
[51] Treffers-Daller, J., Daller, M., Furman, R., & Rothman, J. (2016). Ultimate attainment in the use of collocations among heritage speakers of Turkish in Germany and Turkish–German returnees. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *19*(3), 504–519. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728915000139
[52] Turian, D. & Altenberg, E. (1991). Compensatory strategies of child first language attrition. In H. W. Seliger & R. M. Vago (Eds.), *First language attrition* (pp. 207–226). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511620720.014
[53] van Els, T. (1986). An overview of European research on language acquisition. In B. Weltens, K. de Bot, & T. van Els (Eds.), *Language attrition in progress* (pp. 3–18). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110857863.3
[54] Yoshida, K., Arai, K., Fujita, T., Hattori, M., Nagano, K, Okamura, A., Tanaka, M., Yanaura, K., & Yoshhitomi, A. (1989). Kikoku shijo no gaikokugo hoji ni kansuru ichi chosa (A consideration on the retention of a foreign language by returnees). In *Kikoku shijo no gaikokugo hoji ni kansuru chosa kenkyu hokokusho* (*A survey on the foreign language retention of returnees*). *Vol 1*, 12–28. Tokyo: Kaigai shijokyoiku shinko zaiden (Japan Overseas Educational Services).
[55] Yoshitomi, A. (1999). On the loss of English as a second language by Japanese returnee children. In L. Hansen (Ed.), *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts* (pp. 80–111). Oxford University Press.

Dukhayel Aldukhayel is an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language and Translation, College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, at Qassim University in Saudi Arabia. He holds an MA degree in TESL/TEFL from Colorado State University and a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Memphis. His research interests include L2 vocabulary, L2 listening, and CALL. Email: dmdkhiel@qu.edu.sa

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 975-983, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.19

Teachers' Beliefs on Autonomous English Learning in Chinese Universities

Zhonger Wang
School of Education and Modern Languages, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Malaysia

Nurliyana Bukhari
School of Education and Modern Languages, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Malaysia

Yang Han
School of Languages, Civilisation and Philosophy, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok 06010, Malaysia

***Abstract*—Autonomous English learning has gained increasing attention from English teachers in Chinese universities. However, few empirical studies were conducted to explore this notion from teachers' perspective. In this study, by means of a mixed approach, the belief of English teachers in Chinese universities was explored, mainly based on the data from 481 quantitative questionnaires and supplemented by the online in-depth interviews. The study explored the teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy including their belief about its definition, the methods of developing learner autonomy and teachers' roles in its cultivation. Beside, their beliefs about the impact of age, culture and motivation on learner autonomy were investigated. The study revealed that consistency existed among teachers in the belief about the definition of learner autonomy while inconsistencies existed in how to improve students' learner autonomy. Also this research revealed that culture, motivation and traditional teaching mode affected the effective implementation of this concept. In the future, we might deepen the understanding of this educational concept and provide favorable conditions for the teachers to effectively put this approach into practice in the classroom settings.**

***Index Terms*—autonomous English learning, University English teachers, teachers' beliefs**

I. Introduction

Autonomous learning, also known as self-directed learning, is a modern learning concept based on humanistic psychology and cognitive psychology (Alharbi, 2022). Holec (1981) introduced this concept into foreign language teaching and it has been widely and maturely applied in Europe and America since then. In the 1990s, autonomous learning came to the fore in foreign language education in China. In 2007 the Chinese Ministry of Education issued the College English curriculum teaching requirements, which pinpointed fostering English learner autonomy of university students as one of the goals in developing comprehensive competence in English (Shen et al., 2020). The guidance document has aroused a growing concern on developing students' self directed learning competence in colleges and universities across China. But the key to educational reform is teachers in that the implement of the former hinges on classroom teaching (Gamble et al., 2018). So it is necessary to gain insight into teachers' belief for clear understanding of their classroom instruction. Teachers' belief refers to their views on education which covers their notions on teaching, learning, learners, their disciplines and roles (Borg, 2011). The core of teaching is teachers' belief as what they think underpins their instructional behaviors. That is, their beliefs are embodied by a series of teaching activities and decisions in the classroom setting (Little, 2022). The purpose of this study is to understand the beliefs of English teachers in colleges and universities about learner autonomy, investigate the implementation of this notion in EFL classroom in China, and hopefully promote the effective fulfillment of this concept. The research questions are as follows: 1, what are the teachers; beliefs about the definition of learner autonomy; 2, what are their views about how to improve the students' autonomy in the classroom settings?; 3, what are their beliefs about their own roles in the students' autonomous learning?; 4, what are the teachers' beliefs about the relations between learner's age, psychological and cultural factors and autonomous learning?

II. Relevant Literature

In foreign language teaching, concerns over autonomous language learning began in the 1980s, and then there were examinations about its definition and connotations (McCombs & Whisler, 1989) and the role of different social-cultural contexts on the implementation of this concept (Crome et al., 2009). In their findings, it was confirmed that theoretically research on teacher's belief on autonomous language learning exerted a guidance role in course design, material selection, classroom teaching and teacher training. Also some empirical studies based on diverse social-cultural contexts have emerged in the past few years. Asmari (2013) and Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) conducted a series of studies on the beliefs of English teachers on autonomous learning in one language center in Oman by means of questionnaires and interviews. Balcikanli (2010) adopted a similar mixed method to explore 112 English teachers' beliefs of autonomous learning in Türkiye. Yunus and Arshad (2015) investigated the beliefs and teaching practices of English teachers in public middle schools in Malaysia through questionnaires. In spite of diverse socio-cultural background, the results were similar—teachers took high degree of recognition on autonomous learning from the perspective of concept but were less contented with the implementation in classroom, which was affected by the factors such as students, teachers, schools, society and culture. Yunus and Arshad (2015) suggested studies on foreign language teachers' belief on autonomous learning conducted across the world. Since China is one of the countries which have the most English learners, it is of significance to do the corresponding research.

By taking "foreign language" and "autonomous learning" as the key words, we conducted a key word search of Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) and found that there was a sharp increase of articles from less than 100 in the 1980s to over ten thousand in total in 2022. According to the literature review by Chuying (2017), 77% of the articles were non-empirical with the emphasis on theoretical speculative research. The main research contents covered how to cultivate autonomous language learning, the role of teachers in it, teacher autonomy, internal and external factors affecting learner autonomy and research review about it. Chuying (2017) held that autonomous learning in teaching practice left much to be desired. In particular, teachers should change from teachers merely responsible for English teaching to teaching researchers. Lin and Reinders (2019), Wang (2019) and Gong et al. (2020) attributed the problem of autonomous learning in College English teaching to teachers' inaccurate knowledge of its required conditions, which negatively affected the design and implementation of its training programs.

Liu et al. (2021) pointed out that in China many English teachers simply equated autonomous learning to the rigid application of online multimedia coursewares. Yang (2019) also raised the concern that the consensus had not been achieved on the definition of autonomous language learning. More specifically, teachers' understandings of this concept were various. These researches concurred that many problems in autonomous learning in English teaching arose from teachers' related beliefs. Regrettably, most of the existing literatures were just theoretical discussions about teachers' roles (Cheng & Ding 2021) and there was a lack of empirical studies of their real inner beliefs. However, since teachers are direct participants and implementers, their beliefs are the key to the success of autonomous learning in English teaching.

III. Research Methodology

Methodologically, a mixed methods approach was adopted. That is, quantitative data were first collected and analyzed before the qualitative ones. Priority was given to the former. In the quantitative period, by means of snowball sampling on a professional platform named "Wen Juanxing" for the collection of questionnaires, a total of 481 English teachers in Chinese universities from 29 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions were surveyed. With response rate to the questionnaire at 100%, it took approximately one and a half months to collect, sort out and perform entry process. The basic information table about the subjects (Table 1) showed that they had certain representativeness for the gender, age, educational background were in line with the overall characteristics of English teachers in Chinese universities as a whole.

Table 1
Basic Information About the Participants

	Gender		Date of birth					Highest level of education			Courses taught	
	Male	Female	1990s	1980s	1970s	1960s	1950s	Bachelor	Postgraduate	Doctor	Non English majors	English majors
Number of people	100	381	14	194	206	61	6	50	340	91	332	149
Percentage	21	79	3	40	43	13	1	10	71	19	69	31

The questionnaire in this study was based on the one designed by Borg and Busaidi (2012) aiming at the exploration of the teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy in a language center in Oman, which mainly described their views on the definition of learner autonomy and the relevant factors that affected teaching and learning. Our changes were mainly translating their questionnaire into Chinese, addition and deletion of some items in accordance with specific conditions in China. The revised questionnaire fell into two parts. The first was teachers' basic information and the second consisted of 41 items including four dimensions: definition of learner autonomy, methods of cultivating autonomous English learning in universities, age psychological and cultural factors and role of teachers. The questionnaire was in the form or Richter scale divided into 5 levels from 1=completely disagree to 5= completely agree. In the pre-test with 60 teachers, the whole reliability (Cronbach α) arrived at 0.71.As for the subsequent formal test, the figure reached 0.871.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to gain the knowledge of the internal structure of dataset. The threshold value of the factor loading was set at 0.50 and KMO was 0.905 (approximate chi square=3672.562, df=190, $p<0.05$), which meant that the data was very suitable for factor analysis. Through the analysis, we obtained three factors: 1) teachers' beliefs about the definition of learner autonomy; 2) their beliefs about how to enhance learner autonomy in the classroom settings; 3) beliefs of their roles in the cultivation of learner autonomy. The cumulative variance was 56.05%

and the commonality of each item was over 0.322. Also, the reliabilities of all the three factors were over 0.65 with factor one and two at 0.842 and 0.855 respectively.

The qualitative analysis was based on the results of the four dimensions of the quantitative one. It was in the form of semi-structured interview aiming at both the highest and the lowest scoring items. Among the interviewed teachers, we selected ten participants (Table 2) according to their professional titles, age, gender, and the grade of university where they worked. Each of the ten teachers was interviewed online for about 1-1.5 hours. As the supplementary data of the quantitative research, the transcripts were labeled and classified with identifiable codes for easy reference.

TABLE 2
BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE ONLINE INTERVIEWEES

Name	ZK	SY	GZY	WXL	WRS	BYG	LH	LYM	SGY	LX
Professional title	associate professor	lecturer	associate professor	associate professor	assistant	lecturer	associate professor	lecturer	professor	associate professor
Age	50s	30s	40s	40s	20s	30s	40s	30s	50s	50s
Gender	female	female	female	female	female	male	female	female	male	female
Grade of university	first batch	second batch	first batch	first batch	second batch	first batch	second batch	second batch	second batch	first batch

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we will discuss the research issues related to the three factors and the age psychological and cultural aspects that are not included in factor analysis but still exert some roles on autonomous English learning.

A. *Teachers' Beliefs About the Definition of Learner Autonomy*

Concerning the data in factor analysis (Table 3), the mean value of teachers’ belief about the definition of learner autonomy was the highest, at 4.07, which was significantly higher than the figures for the other factors—belief about how to improve students’ learner autonomy in the classroom settings and their roles in fostering learner autonomy (F [2960]=28.819, $p<0.05$). As for the latter two factors, there was no significant difference in terms of mean value. The results showed that teachers’ views about the definition of learner autonomy were clearer than those of the two factors.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE FACTORS (N=481)

Factor	Mean	Standard deviation
Teachers’ belief about the definition of learner autonomy	4.0700	.52667
Teachers’ belief about how to improve students learner autonomy	3.8753	.47001
Teachers’ belief about their roles in fostering learner autonomy	3.8392	.72618

Analysis of variance was performed to the items in the factor-teachers’ beliefs about the definition of learner autonomy. It was found in Table 4 that there were significant differences among the items (F [52400]=29.919, $p<0.05$). Through comparison, it was clear that the mean values of item 14 (master learning methods), item 13 (learn independently), item 12 (self-assessment), item 16 (discern their own strength and weakness) and item 17 (specify learner needs) were higher than that of item 15 (self-monitoring), which indicated that these elements were highly accepted in the definition of learner autonomy. In the following online interview, some teachers expressed similar points.

“Learner autonomy refers to active learning, application of appropriate methods and budgeting and effective use of one’s time to attain the best learning effects” (ZK).

“It is the ability to be responsible for their own learning, set goals, arrange study materials, synthesize course resources available and evaluate learning outcome” (SY).

“The student is able to independently manage their study, be well-organized and thoughtful, clearly analytical, and choose the suitable methods to achieve learning goals” (LX).

“First of all, learner autonomy is a student-centered mode. The students are expected to give full play to their initiative, enthusiasm and creativity. Students with autonomous learning awareness will take an active attitude and have the ability to use what they have learned and resources available to read, think, explore and analyze. As a result, learning objectives can be achieved by them through independent analysis, exploration and practice” (GZY).

Even though item 15 was also in the first factor, its score was significantly different from those of other items. In the interview, most teachers held that autonomous learning still needed teachers’ monitoring. One of them explained that self-monitoring might be a contributing factor in autonomous learning in theory. But in reality, it could not be described as a crucially contributing part in learner autonomy. Last semester, her students were in lack of initiative as in most cases, the teacher told them which units or which parts of the book should be reviewed. “That is to say, essentially, I have to monitor their learning process” (WXL).

Although there has not been any widely accepted definition on learner autonomy since the notion was put forward in the field of foreign language teaching thirty years ago, the agreement was reached on some of its basic characteristics, which were defining learning objectives and needs, learning willingly, reviewing regularly, evaluating learning methods on a regular basis and so forth (Thomas & Rose, 2019). When the teachers were at the mention of autonomous learning in the online interview, the descriptive words like "freedom", "autonomy", "independence", "voluntary", "responsibility", and "self-control" frequently appeared. This was similar to the findings of Al Asmari (2013) as well as Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) in their research on a language center in Oman. In their study, teachers were basically in agreement on the point that learner autonomy meant that the students took responsibilities and made decisions in their personalized study. Also in our research, teachers' understanding and beliefs about learner autonomy were basically consistent with its definitions in other related literatures.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FACTOR 1—TEACHERS' BELIEF ABOUT THE DEFINITION OF LEARNER AUTONOMY (N=481)

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Students with strong learner autonomy can specify their own needs (17)	4.18	.678
Fostering students' self-assessment of learning can facilitate their learner autonomy (12)	4.14	.634
Mastering learning methods is the key to learner autonomy (14)	4.13	.714
Students with learner autonomy can identify their strength and weakness in learning (16)	4.10	.676
Independent learning is the core of learner autonomy (13)	4.05	.742
Self-monitoring is the core of learner autonomy (15)	3.82	.775

B. Teachers' Beliefs on How to Improve Students' Learner Autonomy in Classroom Setting

Variance analysis of the dimension- teachers' beliefs on how to improve students' learner autonomy in classroom setting showed that significant differences existed among the items (F [104800]=57.663, p<0.05). By means of comparison (Table 5), it was found that the scores of item 6 (students are allowed to choose what they will study), item1 (activities where learners can learn from each other) and item 3 (group activities) significantly exceeded those of the rest items. This indicated that teachers were largely sympathetic to this view that it was an effective teaching method in the classroom to create free space for the students to choose what they would learn together with cooperative group learning and mutual learning. Results in this study were similar to those in other countries. For instance, Al-Asmari (2013) claimed that cooperative group learning was the most effective way to enhance learner autonomy in the classroom in his survey of some teachers in a language center in Saudi Arabia on the methods of teaching autonomous learning.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FACTOR 2—TEACHERS' BELIEF ABOUT HOW TO ENHANCE LEARNER AUTONOMY IN CLASSROOM SETTINGS (N=481)

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Learner autonomy will be enhanced if the students are allowed to choose what they want to learn. (6)	4.17	.710
Activities in which students can learn from each other can boost learner autonomy. (1)	4.07	.625
Cooperative group activities help improve learner autonomy. (3)	4.05	.684
Learner autonomy will be boosted due to students' involvement in classroom management. (5)	3.95	.92
A student-centered classroom provides good conditions for the enhancement of learner autonomy. (2)	3.93	.690
Students can choose the type of classroom activities, which helps to improve learner autonomy. (8)	3.93	.688
Students' engagement in the determination of course goals will cultivate their learner autonomy. (9)	3.92	.743
Study in self-access foreign language center will foster learner autonomy. (10)	3.79	.714
Learner autonomy will be enhanced if students make their own choice in learning materials. (7)	3.68	.801
Online extracurricular assignments will boost learner autonomy. (11)	3.65	.739
If students have the right to decide the way of evaluating their points, learner autonomy will be enhanced. (4)	3.48	.876

In this dimension, the items which had comparatively lower scores were 10 (Study in self-access foreign language center will foster learner autonomy), 7 (Learner autonomy will be enhanced if students make their own choice in learning materials), 11 (Online extracurricular assignments will boost learner autonomy) and 4 (If students have the right to decide the way of evaluating their points, learner autonomy will be enhanced). By comparison, the average scores of these items were significantly less than the figures for the rest items in the same dimension. In particular, the mean value of item 4 was the lowest. This meant that there existed low degree of acceptance among the teachers in terms of students' choice of learning materials, self-evaluation, online assignment and learning in the self-access center. In the following interview, the teachers explained:

"The students couldn't make out quite a few evaluation methods. What they were familiar with were no more than examinations" (WXL).

"Definitely, students' performance must be reviewed by their teachers. Otherwise, what is our role? Many university students began to learn English in the kindergarten. After over a decade of study, they have higher expectation and demand of the teachers in universities. Never before have had my students determined the evaluation methods by themselves. Besides, by convention, it is teachers who set questions in the final examination. I cannot imagine the students will take such job" (SY).

Similarly, according to the findings of Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) in the dimension of the feasibility of practicing learner autonomy in classroom settings, the figure for the item concerning evaluation was also the lowest. However, from the descriptive statistics of items in factor 1, the item about self-evaluation was not low. That means in teachers' beliefs, there existed difference between the definition and how to foster learner autonomy in the aspect of self-evaluation. Besides, due to advocate of learner autonomy, many universities built advanced cyber learning centers. For some university faculties and administrative personnel, autonomous learning was just e-learning (Wong, 2020). But the survey in this study indicated that e-learning was not always an effective way of self-regulated study. In the qualitative survey, some teachers pointed out:

"Our self-access English learning center is like a computer room. It seems not effective for them to study on computers. In the self-access center, a few teachers just let students learn by themselves" (GZY).

"Contents on the Internet are cluttered. Also it is difficult for the students to judge which contents are authoritative and reliable. E-learning is not the whole of autonomous learning in that cyberspaces do not have the guiding, supervising and counseling functions as the teachers do" (LH).

In the interview, teachers expressed their confusion about how to cultivate learner autonomy in the classroom settings. One of them pointed out "I do not think I can figure out the effective measures. The choice of teaching scheme is a little arbitrary. Sometimes, as I see it, learner autonomy equals students' sole responsibility of planning and executing their own learning" (ZK). Meanwhile, they were not very satisfied with the implementation of autonomous learning in the classroom. For instance, one teacher said "our classroom only provides space and time for learner autonomy" (WXL). On the whole, compared with students' self-evaluation, choice in learning materials and classroom activities and involvement in the determination of course goals, these measures were more widely accepted by the English teachers in Chinese universities, which were cooperative group activities and choice of what they wanted to learn.

C. Teachers' Beliefs About Their Roles in Learner Autonomy

Variance analysis of the third factor—teachers' beliefs about their roles in learner autonomy indicated that significant differences existed among the items, all of which were reverse (F [2960]=68.665, $p<0.05$). By means of adjusting order (Table 6), we could find that the adjusted average score of item 18 (learner autonomy can be conducted completely without teachers' assistance) was higher than those of the rest two items. It meant that actually from the perspective of teachers' roles in the cultivation of students' autonomous learning, we gained fewer acceptances in the statement in item 18. On the other hand, after the order was adjusted, the figures for item 19 (learner autonomy is a negation of the traditional view that teachers led the dominant role in education) and item 20 (learner autonomy means independent learning) were relatively lower. That meant that originally items of 19 and 20 won more recognition than item 18.

TABLE 6

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FACTOR 3—TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR ROLES IN LEARNER AUTONOMY (N=481, R=REVERSE)

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Learner autonomy can be conducted completely without teachers' assistance (18r)	4.16	.837
Learner autonomy is a negation of the traditional view that teachers led the dominant role in education (19r)	3.71	.982
Learner autonomy means independent learning (20r)	3.65	1.000

Teaching featured with learner autonomy was different from the one dominated by teachers. But it did not mean that autonomous learning could be totally without teachers' assistance (Lee, 2016). In fact, teachers could play the role of assistance, advisor and resource provider in the classroom settings (Akhter et al., 2020). When referring to their roles, the teachers pointed out:

"For the students who can take charge of their own time, they still need our help to tackle some problems. Furthermore, for those with insufficient self-study abilities we can act as a designer and organizer of a class besides problem solver" (WXL).

"Learner autonomy presents higher requirements for us. In the traditional teaching mode, students just paid close attention to our lectures. Now, learning is conducted by the students independently. In this process, if they find and put forward some questions, it is our turn to give the answers and provide more resources to help them have a thorough understanding of the learning content" (SY).

"We actively encourage and guide the students to learn independently. In addition, a platform is built for them to share learning achievements, information and references, and provide assistance to some students who are in need of in the problem-solving process" (BYG).

"The teacher is like a guide, providing guidance on learning content and methods. We, as it were, leaders in teaching and learning practice. First, on the occasion of a new semester, we use a variety of ways to get across the importance of English to the students. Second, in the classroom, we help them learn a lot of Western cultures through English textbooks, which enhances their interest. Once they have profound interest and clear study goals, we will arrange tasks to acquire appropriate learning approaches" (LYM).

"Teachers are facilitators. Namely, they guide and help the students in terms of learning themes, content, and strategies. Apart from that, they help the students out with queries, broaden their horizons and learn English effectively" (GZY).

The roles mentioned in the online interview were: organizing teaching in class, answering questions, providing resources, fixing learning objectives, evaluation, increasing interest, instructing how to use advanced learning devices. Notably, some teachers maintained that the optimal condition of exercising learner autonomy was that both students and teachers were self-regulated learners at the same time, and thus they would learn from each other and help each other forward. This view was echoed by Delos and Torio (2021) in his research on learner autonomy. That was teachers' self-study was the key to the facilitation of students' autonomous learning. The teacher who could not regulate his own study was unlikely to cultivate learner autonomy in his students.

D. Teachers' Beliefs About the Relationship Between the Implementation of Learner Autonomy and Age, Culture and Psychological Factors

Besides the three aspects discussed above, there were other dimensions which needed discussions though they were not attributed to any factor in the factor analysis. They were about age (item21： Learner autonomy could be fostered among the students of any age; item22: Learner autonomy could be enhanced in both children and adult learners), culture (item23: Learner autonomy can be promoted in the student of any cultural background; item24: Compared with the students in the Western countries, it is more difficult to develop learner autonomy in Chinese students) and motivation (item25: Students with higher motivation are more likely to improve learner autonomy than those with relatively lower motivation). As similar studies on the three perspectives mentioned above had been conducted out of China (Jones et al., 2020), we felt the need to conduct the empirical studies based on results of the quantitative data supplemented by the qualitative ones in the interview. Table 7 presented the descriptive statistics on the three perspectives, in which the highest mean was in motivation, at 4.2 while the figure for age was the lowest, at 3.9. Furthermore, variance analysis showed that there was significant difference among the three\

(F [2960]=197.945, p<0.05).

TABLE 7
TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LEARNER AUTONOMY AND AGE, CULTURE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS (N = 481)

Individual factor	Mean	Standard deviation
Motivation	4.2079	.71474
Culture	4.0042	.80622
Age	3.9210	.89442

In the three learners' individual factors, the lowest average value was in age. In other words, teachers believed that there was some correlation between age and cultivation of learner autonomy. That is, there existed difference between adults and children in the cultivation of learner autonomy. In the interview, one teacher explained "Adult students have stronger autonomous learning ability. On the other hand, younger ones need more guidance from their teachers" (WRS).

As for motivation, one teacher maintained that "English is not very useful to my students. That is why they have little interest in it. Essentially I lead the class. Even when I keep them at hard work, they are unwilling to learn, not to mention autonomous learning" (WXL). Yunus and Arshad (2015) also claimed that weak motivation would reduce the effect of learner autonomy. In the light of their research, motivation was the key to language learning, the degree of which was of great importance to learner autonomy.

When it comes to culture, its mean value was not significantly different from that of age. This indicated that in the teachers' opinion, the impact of culture was not particularly evident. And to refine that slightly, students from any cultural background could develop their learner autonomy as long as in the appropriate environment. However, one teacher in a second batch university stated "Typically, cramming method is adopted in English teaching in high school. Since Chinese university students are accustomed to such approach, it is difficult to develop their learner autonomy" (LYM). This view was shared by Al Asmari (2013) who in a research in Saudi Arabia maintained that from the perspective of teachers, once the students were used to spoon fed teaching methods, it was comparatively hard to cultivate their learner autonomy. Besides, in a survey conducted by Littlewood (1999) on Asian students' learner autonomy, on the individual level, no significant difference was revealed between Asian students and their Western peers in the development of learner autonomy while on the population level, education model, personal experiences and learning environment all exerted certain impact on the cultivation of learner autonomy. Therefore, even though changes took place in the attitude towards the traditional spoon feeding mode, there were quite a few high schools and universities were negatively influenced. In response to this, focus on the individual differences and needs would play a vital role in the implementation of learner autonomy.

V. CONCLUSION

By mixed methods approach, this study explored Chinese university English teachers' belief about learner autonomy. Through data analysis, we found that they had a clear understanding of the definition of learner autonomy. Also, their views in this respect were basically consistent with those in related documents. Apart from the consistency in their views on the scope of content implied in the concept of learner autonomy, agreement was also reached on the role of themselves in autonomous learning in teaching English in universities. For instance, the majority of teachers affirmed the indispensible role in supervision and guidance. However, inconsistency emerged between their beliefs of the definition and belief of the methods to enhance learner autonomy. In this study, the participants just affirmed the positive role exerted by a limited number of methods such as cooperative study and group learning which were the most-used teaching ways in the communicative approach. Some of the teachers were not clear about how to integrate learner autonomy into evaluation and selection of goals, contents, activities and so forth. In brief, the gap between teachers understanding of learner autonomy and actual teaching practice, hindering the smooth implementation of the teaching concept discussed in this study. As for the rest dimensions, first with regard to culture, though most teachers believed that difference in cultural background should not be rated as the element affecting learner autonomy, in practice, the traditional “spoon feeding” mode in China impeded autonomous learning. Second, as for motivation, the teachers held that lack of motivation in learning English was a major hindrance to the improvement of learner autonomy.

On the whole, as an educational concept, learner autonomy found general acceptance among English teachers in Chinese universities. But there was a gap between their understanding of the definition of this notion and how to implement the concept in teaching practice. Factors such as culture and Chinese traditional teaching mode negatively affected the effective fulfillment of learner autonomy. Some of our suggestions were that at the theoretical level individual teachers deepen their understanding of learner autonomy and its implementation methods and in their daily teaching they improve the effectiveness of implementation by teaching observation and reflection after class. Besides the efforts by teachers alone, teachers and educational researchers could cooperate to seek out practical and effective ways of the realization of learner autonomy in specific classroom settings. Finally, as for out-class environment, policy makers in the domain of English teaching might take as many factors as possible in terms of the effective implementation of learner autonomy to create a favorable external environment for the smooth implementation of this notion.

Appendix. Questionnaire About Teachers’ Belief of Autonomous Learning

This questionnaire consists of 25 items. There are five options below each item. Each option has a number. Please judge which option below each item is most suitable for your teaching practice. And tick the corresponding bracket.

1. Activities in which students can learn from each other can boost learner autonomy.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
2. A student-centered classroom provides good conditions for the enhancement of learner autonomy.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
3. Cooperative group activities help improve learner autonomy.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
4. If students have the right to decide the way of evaluating their points, learner autonomy will be enhanced.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
5. Learner autonomy will be boosted due to students’ involvement in classroom management.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
6. Learner autonomy will be enhanced if the students are allowed to choose what they want to learn.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
7. Learner autonomy will be enhanced if students make their own choice in learning materials.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
8. Students can choose the type of classroom activities, which helps to improve learner autonomy.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
9. Students’ engagement in the determination of course goals will cultivate their learner autonomy.
   totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
10. Study in self-access foreign language center will foster learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
11. Online extracurricular assignments will boost learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
12. Fostering students’ self-assessment of learning can facilitate their learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
13. Independent learning is the core of learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
14. Mastering learning methods is the key to learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
15. Self-monitoring is the core of learner autonomy.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
16. Students with learner autonomy can identify their strength and weakness in learning.
    totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
17. Students with strong learner autonomy can specify their own needs.

totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )

18. Learner autonomy can be conducted completely without teachers' assistance.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
19. Leaner autonomy is a negation of the traditional view that teachers led the dominant role in education.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
20. Learner autonomy means independent learning.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
21. Learner autonomy could be fostered among the students of any age.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
22. Learner autonomy could be enhanced in both children and adult learners.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
23. Learner autonomy can be promoted in the student of any cultural background.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
24. Compared with the students in the Western countries, it is more difficult to develop learner autonomy in Chinese students.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )
25. Students with higher motivation are more likely to improve learner autonomy than those with relatively lower motivation.
totally disagree ( ) disagree ( ) neutral agree ( ) totally agree ( )

REFERENCES

[1] Akhter, S., Ajmal, M., & Keezhatta, M. S. (2020). A case study on the effectiveness of learner autonomy in English literature classroom. *PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/Egyptology, 17*(6), 3063-3076.

[2] Alharbi, N. S. (2022). The Effect of Virtual Classes on Promoting Saudi EFL Students' Autonomous Learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 13*(5), 1115-1124. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1305.26 (accessed on 5 December 2022).

[3] Asmari, A. (2013). Practices and Prospects of Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Perceptions. *English Language Teaching, 6*(3), 1-10.

[4] Balcikanli, C. (2010). Learner autonomy in language learning: Student teachers' beliefs. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 35*(1), 90–103. https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/ielapa.850642220019550 (accessed on 9 December 2022).

[5] Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System, 39*(3), 370-380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009 (accessed on 14 January 2023).

[6] Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT journal, 12*(7), 1-45.

[7] Cheng, H. Y., & Ding, Q. T. (2021). Examining the behavioral features of Chinese teachers and students in the learner-centered instruction. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 36*(1), 169-186. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-020-00469-2 (accessed on 12 January 2023).

[8] Chuying, O. (2017). A Review on Language Learner Autonomy Research in China (2006-2016): Based on 12 Key Domestic Journals. *English Language Teaching, 10*(11), 76-86.

[9] Crome, K., Farrar, R., & O'Connor, P. (2009). What is autonomous learning?. *Discourse: learning and teaching in philosophical and religious studies, 9*(1), 111-125. https://doi.org/10.5840/discourse20099112 (accessed on 5 January 2023).

[10] Delos Reyes, R. D. G., & Torio, V. A. G. (2021). The relationship of expert teacher–learner rapport and learner autonomy in the CVIF-dynamic learning program. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 30*(5), 471-481. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-020-00532-y (accessed on 9 January 2023).

[11] Gamble, C., Wilkins, M., Aliponga, J., Koshiyama, Y., Yoshida, K., & Ando, S. (2018). Learner autonomy dimensions: What motivated and unmotivated EFL students think. *Lingua Posnaniensis, 60*(1), 33-47. https://doi.org/10.2478/linpo-2018-0003 (accessed on 7 January 2023).

[12] Gong, Y. F., Gao, X. A., & Lyu, B. (2020). Teaching Chinese as a second or foreign language to non-Chinese learners in mainland China (2014–2018). *Language Teaching, 53*(1), 44-62. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444819000387 (accessed on 1 January 2023).

[13] Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning.* Pergamon Press. (First Published 1979, Council of Europe).

[14] Jones, K. M., Rubel, A., & LeClere, E. (2020). A matter of trust: Higher education institutions as information fiduciaries in an age of educational data mining and learning analytics. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology, 71*(10), 1227-1241. https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.24327 (accessed on 11 December 2022).

[15] Lee, L. (2016). Autonomous learning through task-based instruction in fully online language courses. *Language Learning & Technology, 20*(2), 81-97. http://llt.msu.edu/issues/june2016/lee.html (accessed on 13 December 2022).

[16] Lin, L., & Reinders, H. (2019). Students' and teachers' readiness for autonomy: Beliefs and practices in developing autonomy in the Chinese context. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 20*(1), 69-89. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-018-9564-3 (accessed on 18 December 2022).

[17] Little, D. (2022). Language learner autonomy: Rethinking language teaching. *Language Teaching, 55*(1), 64-73. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000488 (accessed on 13 December 2022).

[18] Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied linguistics, 20*(1), 71-94. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/20.1.71 (accessed on 24 December 2022).

[19] Liu, X. X., Gong, S. Y., Zhang, H. P., Yu, Q. L., & Zhou, Z. J. (2021). Perceived teacher support and creative self-efficacy: The mediating roles of autonomous motivation and achievement emotions in Chinese junior high school students. *Thinking Skills and Creativity, 39,* 100752. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2020.100752 (accessed on 14 January 2023).
[20] McCombs, B. L., & Whisler, J. S. (1989). The role of affective variables in autonomous learning. *Educational Psychologist, 24*(3), 277-306.
[21] Shen, B., Bai, B., & Xue, W. (2020). The effects of peer assessment on learner autonomy: An empirical study in a Chinese college English writing class. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 64,* 100821. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.100821 (accessed on 10 January 2023).
[22] Thomas, N., & Rose, H. (2019). Do language learning strategies need to be self-directed? Disentangling strategies from self-regulated learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(1), 248-257. http://www.jstor.org/stable/45214918 (accessed on 11 January 2023).
[23] Wang, N., Chen, J., Tai, M., & Zhang, J. (2021). Blended learning for Chinese university EFL learners: Learning environment and learner perceptions. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 34*(3), 297-323. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1607881 (accessed on 7 December 2022).
[24] Wang, T. (2019). Competence for students' future: Curriculum change and policy redesign in China. *ECNU Review of Education, 2*(2), 234-245. https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1106861 (accessed on 29 December 2022).
[25] Wong, R. (2020). When no one can go to school: does online learning meet students' basic learning needs?. *Interactive learning environments,* 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2020.1789672 (accessed on 25 December 2022).
[26] Yang, J. (2019). Understanding Chinese language teachers' beliefs about themselves and their students in an English context. *System, 80,* 73-82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.10.014 (accessed on 23 December 2022).
[27] Yunus, M. M., & Arshad, N. D. M. (2015). ESL teachers' perceptions toward the practices and prospects of autonomous language learning. *Asian Social Science, 11*(2), 41-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v11n2p41 (accessed on 28 December 2022).

Zhonger Wang is a lecturer of EFL in Shanghai Lixin University of Accounting and Finance, Shanghai, China. He completed his MA in TESOL in East China University of Science and Technology. Currently he is pursuing his doctorate in Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Malaysia. His main area of research is language pedagogy and language acquisition. He focuses on supporting autonomous experiences in language learning and their relationship to motivation and acquisition.

Nurliyana Bukhari is an assistant professor in Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Malaysia. Dr. Bukhari received her Ph.D. in educational research, measurement, and evaluation from the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG), USA in May 2017. Her research focuses on issues of fairness in testing, technology integration in assessment, language testing and assessment, assessment design, validation, psychometric estimation, and understanding learners. She is also an active member of international organizations such as the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and the National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME). She has served as the secretariat for the Malaysian Psychometrics Association (MPA), a national organization focusing specifically on psychometrics, since 2018.

Yang Han is a lecturer of EFL in Beijing Union University, Beijing, China. She completed her MA in Translation Theory and Practice in Inner Mongolia University. Currently, she is pursuing her doctorate in Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Malaysia. Her main area of research is language pedagogy and second language acquisition. She focuses on language aptitude and teacher-student collaboration assessment.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 984-993, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.20

A Diachronic Study of Interaction in Chinese Academic Writing Through the Lens of Metadiscourse

Jing Wei
College of International Studies, Southwest University, China

Xi Xiong
College of International Studies, Southwest University, China

***Abstract*—Metadiscourse provides a framework for understanding interaction in discourse by examining the linguistic resources that the writers employ to organize their text and involve their readers. The studies in metadiscourse use in Chinese academic writing reveal that Chinese scholars maintain an impersonal style and adopt an authoritative stance. We investigated the changes in interaction in Chinese academic writing during the past 40 years by exploring metadiscourse use in 90 Chinese research articles from the top five Chinese academic journals in Applied Linguistics in 1980, 2000, and 2020. The analysis shows significant decreases in metadiscourse use during this period in both interactive and interactional features, and changes in linguistic choices of metadiscourse demonstrate a shift to guidance and persuasion with more logical arguments, objective evidence, and relevant literature, possibly suggesting that Chinese scholars now use metadiscourse mainly to clarify and inform, presenting knowledge as codified facts, privileged rather than negotiated or constructed. We also find that metadiscourse use significantly increased in 2000 before its decrease in 2020, unveiling Chinese scholars' earlier efforts to guide and involve.**

***Index Terms*—interaction, Chinese academic writing, metadiscourse, diachronic study**

I. Introduction

During the past three decades, studies in rhetoric, pragmatics, and academic writing have established that academic writing is more than an impersonal and objective presentation of facts and that academic writers interact with their readers through written texts, organizing their propositional material in such a way as to establish a preferred interpretation, and at the same time, conveying judgments, marking attitude and commitments to involve their readers jointly in the construction of the text. For the interaction to happen, academic writers have in mind the concept of "reader-in-the-text"—a voice that is intended to be attributable to the reader (Thompson & Thetela, 1995), using interactive resources to guide the readers through the text, and interactional resources to involve them collaboratively in the construction of the text (Thompson, 2001; Hyland, 2005). The terms interactive and interactional are later adopted by Hyland (2005) for the classification of the resources in his interpersonal model of metadiscourse, which has become "one of the most commonly employed methods" (Hyland, 2017, p. 16) to examine interaction in academic writing.

The majority of the studies in metadiscourse focus on linguistic items that are searchable in corpora and reveal academic discourse communities' rhetorical preferences, how they view their readers as participants in the discourse, how they choose metadiscourse resources to guide and engage their readers, and how they construct a comprehensible and persuasive text. One line of research is the synchronic research comparing metadiscourse use in English and Chinese research articles (RAs). These studies show that, on the whole, fewer metadiscourse markers, in both interactive and interactional dimensions, are used in Chinese RAs (e.g., Wu, 2010; Hu & Cao, 2011; Ju, 2013; Ruan & Xu, 2016), suggesting that Chinese scholars are less aware of their participating audience and refrain from interacting with them, or that they choose to maintain a more impersonal style and adopt a more authoritative stance. The differences are explained by the paratactic features of the Chinese language (Ju, 2013), the Chinese cultural practice where authoritative knowledge is respected (Hu & Cao, 2011), and rhetorical face-saving strategies to avoid the rebuttal and criticism from their readers (Wu, 2010).

More recently published studies focus on the diachronic changes in metadiscourse use in English academic writing over the past 50 years, with findings that report a substantial increase of metadiscourse items in 2015, as compared to 1965. This increase is, however, completely due to the increase in interactive forms: as there is a significant increase in interactive types and a significant decrease in interactional features (Hyland & Jiang, 2016a; Hyland & Jiang, 2016b; Hyland & Jiang, 2017; Hyland & Jiang, 2018), showing that the scholars pay more attention to ensuring that their readers would interpret their RAs the way they want them to, but at the same time, they are less willing to interact with their readers. Factors such as the globalization of research, the growing demands of publishing metrics on scholars, the explosion of academic publications, the growth in collaboration and multiple authorship, the influence of external funders and commercial sponsors are proposed to account for these changes (Hyland & Jiang, 2018; Hyland & Jiang, 2020).

With academic cooperation and research publication becoming increasingly international, these cultural, institutional, and economic forces that affect the international academic world have also influenced the Chinese academic communities. However, whether these forces affect the interactional patterns in Chinese academic writing, to our best knowledge, has not been explored. This research, therefore, aims to explore whether and how interaction in Chinese RAs has changed during the past 40 years (1980-2020)1, through the lens of metadiscourse, to extend previous synchronic studies on interaction in Chinese academic writing, and complement existing diachronic studies on interaction in English RAs.

II. Metadiscourse and Interaction in Chinese Academic Writing

Academic writing is essential to the creation and dissemination of academic knowledge. It is in academic writing that scholars share their research work with their colleagues and persuade their colleagues that their research matters by establishing the context of their research, demonstrating the relevance of their work, reporting and interpreting their research findings. This process of academic writing is compared to "the sound of one hand clapping" (Thompson & Thetela, 1995, p. 103), during which academic writers try to interact with their readers through two complementary approaches: the interaction from reader to writer and that from writer to reader. These two complementary approaches were later adopted by Hyland into his interpersonal model of metadiscourse (2005) as the two major categories of metadiscourse resources: the interactive dimension and the interactional dimension.

Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse (2005) has been by far a most widely used model of metadiscourse in studies exploring and investigating interaction in academic writing in English as well as other languages. Chinese scholars made a few attempts at establishing original theoretical frameworks (e.g., Li, 2011; Mu, 2010), before they chose to adopt Hyland's (2005) model while adding metadiscourse resource examples in Chinese, in their studies of Chinese metadiscourse or comparative studies of Chinese and English metadiscourse (e.g., Liu, 2013; Hu & Cao, 2011; Huang & Yang, 2014; Mu et al., 2015; Liu & Song, 2018).

Studies of metadiscourse use in Chinese RAs show that Chinese scholars conform to the rules of Chinese traditional academic discourse in their academic dialogues with fellow scholars. They maintain an authoritative voice, by using more boosters (Ying, 2017) and accuracy-oriented hedges (Wu & Pan, 2010) to show a higher degree of certainty and confidence, a limited number of attitude markers (Wu & Pan, 2010; Ying, 2017) and avoid self-mention or using first-person plurals rather than first-person singulars when referring to themselves (Wu & Pan, 2010; Ying, 2017) to appear objective and impersonal.

The studies comparing metadiscourse use in English RAs and Chinese RAs investigated the influence of linguistic factors, culturally preferred rhetorical strategies, and epistemological beliefs on metadiscourse use. These studies found more metadiscourse markers in English RAs than in Chinese RAs (Wu, 2010; Hu & Cao, 2011; Ju, 2013; Ruan & Xu, 2016), which indicates that English academic writers are more aware of interacting with their fellow scholars than their Chinese counterparts. The Chinese scholars use fewer metadiscourse markers in both interactive and interactional dimensions. The use of less interactive metadiscourse markers is explained by the paratactic feature of the Chinese language: the construction of meaning is achieved by semantic or logical comprehension rather than connectives in the juxtaposition of syntactic units (Ju, 2013). The use of less interactional metadiscourse is explained by the Chinese cultural practice where authoritative knowledge is respected (Hu & Cao, 2011). It is also pointed out by Wu (2010) that Chinese scholars avoid rebuttal and criticism from their readers by the use of more hedges and the avoidance of self-mentions.

The findings from previous studies show that the metadiscourse use in Chinese RAs reflects a traditionally authoritative voice in Chinese academic writing, demonstrating that Chinese scholars tend to appear authoritative, objective, impersonal, and at the same time avoid face-threatening situations. However, has metadiscourse use in Chinese academic writing changed over the past few decades? If yes, how has metadiscourse use changed? Are the changes similar to or different from those in English academic writing? What do these changes tell us about the changes in interaction in Chinese academic writing? The answers to these questions would help us understand better rhetorical practices, academic interaction, and knowledge construction.

III. Methodology

To track the changes in metadiscourse in Chinese academic writing, we built three corpora and compiled a list of Chinese metadiscourse items for the analysis of the corpora. This list comes from three sources: Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse (2005, 2018), previous studies on Chinese metadiscourse, and metadiscourse items that we documented during the process of the corpora-building. We then used the concordance software Antconc 3.5.8 (Anthony, 2019) to search each of the three corpora for the items in our list of Chinese metadiscourse items.

A. The Corpora

We built three corpora by taking RAs from the top five academic journals in Applied Linguistics at three periods: 1980, 2000, and 2020. These five academic journals have achieved the top rankings according to their impact factor in 2020 (CSSCI). Table 1 provides the details for the academic journals from which the RAs of this study were taken.

TABLE 1
DETAILS OF THE ACADEMIC JOURNALS

Journal title	Year of first issue	Impact factor (2020)
Foreign Language World	1980	3.943
Modern Foreign Languages	1978	3.548
Technology Enhanced Foreign Language Education	1979	2.213
Foreign Language Teaching and Research	1957	2.157
Foreign Language Education	1979	1.783

Six research articles from each period were taken from these academic journals, therefore, the corpus comprises a total of 90 RAs of 581,561 Chinese characters, with 30 RAs from each year. The details of the corpora are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
THE DIACHRONIC CORPUS

Year	Number of Chinese characters
1980	14,2108
2000	18,0618
2020	25,8835
Total	581,561

B. The Compilation of Chinese Metadiscourse Items List

Building on previous studies (e.g., Williams, 1981; Crismore, 1983; Copple, 1985; Thompson & Thetela, 1995; Hyland, 2001), Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse views metadiscourse as linguistic resources that one uses to organize information as an interactive event involving the writer, the reader and the text, distinguishing metadiscourse into the interactive dimension which helps organize the text in a way that it would be understood or interpreted as the writer prefers, and the interactional dimension which helps the writer interact with the readers by intruding and commenting on their text.

This model is adopted and used as the basis of the compilation of Chinese metadiscourse items to engage better with existing studies of metadiscourse, as it is widely used as the analytical framework in studies investigating metadiscourse use in not only English discourse (e.g., Cao & Hu, 2014; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Hyland, 2004; Hyland & Jiang, 2018; Gillaerts & Velde, 2010; Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), but also Chinese discourse (e.g., Li, 2007; Wu, 2010; Hu & Cao, 2011; Ju, 2013; Liu, 2013; Gao, 2014; Liu & Song, 2018; Ruan & Xu, 2016), as well as studies comparing metadiscourse use in English discourse and discourse in other languages such as Spanish (Aertselaer & Dafouz-Milne, 2008), Iranian (Pooresfahani et al, 2012), Turkish (Ozdemir & Longo, 2014), or Persian (Kuhi & Mojood, 2014).

Therefore, the first step in the compilation of Chinese metadiscourse items was to organize a list of Chinese equivalents for the most common metadiscourse items listed in Hyland (2005, 2018). The second step was document the metadiscourse items listed in previous studies on Chinese metadiscourse including Li (2011), Mu (2010), Wu (2010), Hu and Cao (2011), Ju (2013), Liu (2013), Gao (2014), Liu (2013), Ruan and Xu (2016), Huang and Yang (2014), Liu and Song (2018). The third step was to record for the metadiscourse items that the researchers came across during the process of building the corpora of Chinese research articles.

A total of 771 Chinese metadiscourse items were included in the list. Table 3 presents Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse with English and Chinese exemplars.

TABLE 3
AN INTERPERSONAL MODEL OF METADISCOURSE WITH ENGLISH AND CHINESE EXEMPLARS

Category	Function	English exemplars	Chinese exemplars
Interactive	Help the writer manage the information flow		
Transitions	Refer to relations between clauses such as addition, contrast, consequence, etc.	in addition; but; thus; and	除此之外 (in addition); 但是(but); 所以 (thus)
Frame markers	Refers to text structure such as sequencing, announcing goals, shifting topics, etc.	finally; to conclude; my purpose is	最后 (finally); 总而言之 (to conclude); 试图 (the purpose is)
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above; see Fig	上文 (noted above); 参见图 (see Fig)
Evidentials	Refer to the source of information from outside the current text	according to A; B states	A 认为 (according to A); B 指出 (B states)
Code glosses	Elaborate, explain or provide examples to propositional meaning	namely; such as; in other words	即 (namely); 例如 (for example); 换言之 (in other words)
Interactional	Help the writer interact with their readers		
Hedges	Open up space for alternative opinions	might; perhaps; about	可能 (might); 也许 (perhaps); 大约 (about)
Boosters	Convey full commitment to what is being written	in fact; definitely; it is clear that	事实上 (in fact); 不言而喻 (definitely); 很明显 (it is clear that)
Attitude markers	Express surprise, agreement, frustration, etc.	Surprisingly; I agree; unfortunately	令人惊讶的是 (surprisingly); 我同意 (I agree); 不幸地 (unfortunately)
Self-mentions	Refer directly to the writers themselves	I (exclusive); we (exclusive); me (exclusive)	我 (exclusive I/me); 我们 (exclusive we/us); 我的 (my, mine); 我们的 (our, ours)
Engagement markers	Explicitly address the readers	you; we (inclusive); note	你/你们(you); 我们 (inclusive we/us); 请注意 (Please note)

(Adapted from Hyland, 2005: 49)

C. *Analysis of the Corpora*

The 90 RAs that were chosen were first saved in TEXT files, and then NLPIR Chinese Word Segmentation System (Zhang, 2013) was employed to divide the Chinese characters in the corpora into Chinese words. After that, AntConc 3.5.8 (Anthony, 2019) was used to search the metadiscourse items used in the three sub-corpora, following the list of Chinese metadiscourse markers compiled by us, as explained above.

We then manually examined each concordance line containing the occurrence of these items, to make sure that they functioned as metadiscourse. Both authors coded 20% of the data (i.e., 18 RAs; six RAs from each of the three subcorpora) independently, and achieved an inter-coder agreement of 92% after resolving disagreements, then the first author analyzed the rest of the data. After checking all the instances to make sure they functioned as metadiscourse, we normalized the results to 10,000 characters so that comparisons across corpora of different sizes can be made. Log likelihood tests were then performed to determine statistical significance, following Hyland and Jiang (2018).

IV. THE CHANGING PATTERNS IN INTERACTION

On the whole, we find 233.9 cases of metadiscourse per 10,000 Chinese characters in the 2020 Chinese RAs corpus, a significant decrease by 20.3% as compared to the 1980 corpus (log-likelihood = 153.95, $p < .001$). This is a feature different from the changing patterns of metadiscourse use in English RAs, which has grown substantially over the past 50 years (Hyland & Jiang, 2018, p. 22). Another feature in metadiscourse use in Chinese RAs is that while metadiscourse use in English RAs on the whole increased steadily over the past five decades, i.e., increased in 1985, then again in 2015, metadiscourse use in Chinese RAs experienced a slight increase of 7.7% in 2000, then a significant decrease of 27.1% in 2020 (log-likelihood = 300.78, $p < .001$), showing that interaction in Chinese academic writing appears to have first grown between 1980 and 2000, and then declined between 2000 and 2020, as illustrated in Figure 1.

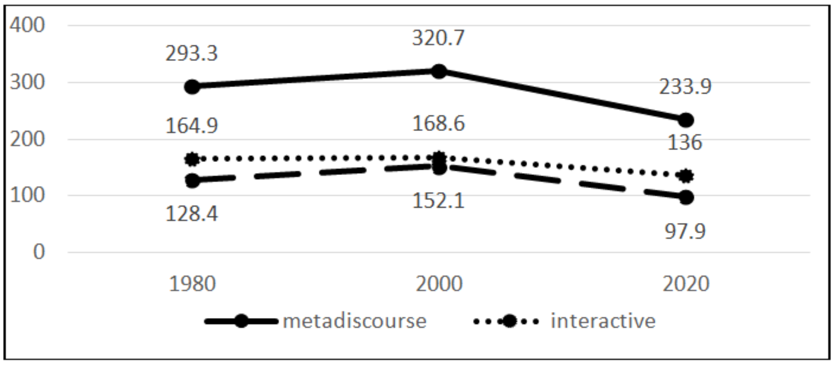


Figure 1 Changes in Metadiscourse Use Between 1980 and 2020 (per 10,000 Chinese characters)

A third feature in the changing patterns in interaction in Chinese academic writing is that both interactive and interactional resources contributed to the decrease of interaction in Chinese academic writing, while the substantial growth of interaction in English RAs was entirely due to the increase in interactive forms (Hyland & Jiang, 2018, p. 22). During the past four decades, the decrease of 20.3% in metadiscourse use was due to the decline in both interactive items, by 17.5% (log-likelihood = 77.47, $p < .001$), and interactional items, by 23.8% (log-likelihood = 77.41, $p < .001$).

In the next section, we zoom in on the details in how interaction in Chinese academic writing has changed in occurrences and linguistic choices with examples from the three sub-corpora over the span of the past 40 years.

A. Changes in Interactive Metadiscourse

Interactive metadiscourse is a repertoire of resources that help organize and construct the discourse in such a way that the readers would understand and interpret the text as the writers intend them to, revealing writers' awareness of their readers' needs and the extent to which they are willing to meet these needs. Table 4 shows that during the 1980-2020 period, the use of three sub-categories fell: transitions by 28.1%, frame markers by 39.2% (log-likelihood = 106.37, $p < .001$), and code glosses by 29.8%, while endophorics and evidentials increased, by 54.5% (log-likelihood = 23.81, $p < .001$) and 109.9% (log-likelihood = 57.73, $p < .001$) respectively.

Transitions express logical relations between main clauses, and frame markers refer to text boundaries or text structure, both of which help the readers understand the logical reasoning in the discourse. Endophorics and evidential direct readers' attention to materials that help them recover the writers' intention by referring to information within or outside the text. The decreased use of transitions and frame markers, together with the increased use of endophorics and evidentials point to a change in persuasion: Chinese scholars are now relying more on supporting data both within the text with endophorics (e.g., see Fig.) and from external sources with evidentials (e.g., according to X), than on logical reasoning using transitions or frame markers, despite the substantial growth in the average length of the RAs where more explicit structuring is needed (Hyland & Jiang, 2018, p. 24). Code glosses help clarify the writers' communicative purposes by elaborating on the meaning of a clause or item (e.g., for instance, in other words), the decrease of which may suggest that the writers expect their readers to be specialists in applied linguistics, with good on-line processing abilities for academic information.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF INTERACTIVE ITEMS 1980-2020 (PER 10,000 CHINESE CHARACTERS)

Interactive	1980	2000	2020
Transitions	64.0	59.0	46.0
Frame markers	16.6	12.2	10.1
Endophorics	11.2	15.8	17.3
Evidentials	8.1	7.9	17.0
Code glosses	65.0	73.7	45.6
Total	164.9	168.6	136

Transitions express logical relations such as addition, contrast, consequence between main clauses, helping readers grasp the relations between main clauses. The use of transitions declined in 2000 by 7.8%, then again in 2020 by 22.0%. The most commonly used expressions for transitions, however, are the same in all three corpora: 但 (but), 因此 (therefore), and 因为(because):

(1) 它在结构形式上比明喻简捷，但在意义上却是藏而不露，因此往往较为深刻，产生的语言效果也较强。(1980)

(It is simpler than simile in terms of structure and form, but it is hidden and not exposed in meaning, therefore it is often more profound and produces stronger linguistic effects.)

(2) 就本次研究而言，二者的区分并不重要，因为只要有新的语言输入，它就会和已习得的语言发生作用。(2000)

(As far as this research is concerned, the distinction between the two is not important, because as long as there is new language input, it will interact with the acquired language.)

(3) 科学研究以信度和效度为本，但作者可能更看重推介研究发现和应用价值。(2020) (Scientific research is based on reliability and validity, but the author may pay more attention to recommending research findings and application value.)

Frame markers are expressions that sequence arguments, label stages, announce discourse goals, or shift topics. The use of frame markers dropped significantly by 39.2% (log-likelihood = 106.37, $p < .001$) in the past 40 years, first in 2000, then again in 2020. Apart from the decrease in its use, the linguistic choices of frame markers also experienced changes: in the 1980 corpus, Chinese scholars mainly used frame markers to shift topic with 下面 (next) and 至于 (as to), or to label stage with 总之 (in short), while in the 2000 and 2020 corpora, they used frame markers mainly to order arguments with 首先 (firstly, first of all) and 其次 (secondly):

(4) 下面通过对乔姆斯基所提三种语法模式的分析逐步来认识它。(1980)

(Next, let’s understand it step by step through the analysis of the three grammatical patterns mentioned by Chomsky.)

(5) 学习环境方面的这些特点都不利于词汇产出性能力的发展。首先，目前的词汇量的扩大只是单纯表现在数量上的增加……其次，输入的局限和产出机会的缺乏……造成了运用词汇的两种能力发展不均衡。(2000)

(These characteristics of the learning environment are not conducive to vocabulary productivity of the semantic network. Firstly, the current expansion of vocabulary is simply an increase in quantity...Secondly, the limitation of input and the lack of output opportunities … result in unbalanced development of two skills in the use of vocabulary.)

(6) 这五个类别的描述语难度值都出现了不同程度的异常: 首先，词汇能力 B1 和 C1 级描述语的难度值较为接近……; 其次，关于语法能力的 B1．1、B2．1、 B2．2 级描述语的难度值也非常接近……(2020)

(The difficulty values of the descriptors of the categories have different degrees of abnormality: First, the difficulty values of the descriptions of the vocabulary ability B1 and C1 are relatively close …; secondly, the difficulty values of the descriptors at levels B1.1, B2.1, and B2.2 regarding grammatical competence are also very close…)

Code glosses, which help clarify the writers’ communicative purposes by elaborating on the meaning of a clause or item, also decreased over the past 40 years, by 29.8%. However, unlike transitions or frame markers, the use of code glosses first increased in 2000 by 13.4% and then decreased in 2020 by 38.1% (log-likelihood = 143.8, $p < .001$). The purposes that Chinese scholars use code glosses in their writing remain relatively unchanged, mainly to provide examples, as illustrated in (7), often realized by the use of 例如 (for example) and 如 (for instance), and to offer further explanations or elaborations, often realized by the use of a colon or the parentheses, as illustrated in (8) and (9):

(7) 第六句用升调时也是指示，例如上级对下级也许会这样说。(1980)

(Sentence Six is also an instruction with a rising tone, for example, a superior might say this to a subordinate.)

(8) 一个词项的内部结构由 4 种信息组成：语义、句法、词法和形式（包括发音和拼写）。(2000)

(The internal structure of a lexical item consists of 4 kinds of information: semantics, syntax, morphology and form (including pronunciation and spelling)).

(9) 句末位置包括两种情况：1）位于分句中所有必要成分之后；2）当有一个以上状语并列于该位置时，位于句末。(2020)

(The position at the end of a sentence includes two situations: 1) It is located after all the necessary components in the clause; 2) When there is more than one adverbial in this position, it is at the end of the sentence.)

Endophorics and evidentials are the two types of interactive metadiscourse that increased during the past four decades. Endophorics facilitate the readers’ comprehension by referring to other parts of the text, and over the past 40 years, the use of endophorics grew significantly by 54.8% (log-likelihood = 23.81, $p < .001$). The linguistic choices in endophorics show an evident move from expressions referring to information in other parts of the text in general such as the 上述 (aforementioned), 上面 (as said above), and 以下 (the following) in the 1980 corpus, to expressions referring to information provided in tables, examples, and figures using 表 X (Table X), 例 X (Example X), and 图 X (Figure X) in the 2000 and 2020 corpora, suggesting a shift from supporting the claims with hard evidence rather than logical argumentation:

(10) 由于上面我们讲的意义差别，所以在翻译时我们通常把第一句译成“她坐在那里，纹丝不动”。(1980)

(Because of the differences in meaning we discussed above, when translating, we usually translate the first sentence into “She sits there and doesn’t move”.)

(11) 从表 3.5.1 可以看出，大部分学生的性格倾向处于中间状态，其偏异程度一般。(2000) (It can be seen from Table 3.5.1 that most of the students’ disposition tendencies are in an intermediate state, and the degree of deviation is average.)

(12) 测试句对前半句内容进行提问，旨在掩蔽实验目的，如例 3a。(2020)

(The test sentence is a question about the content of the first half sentence, which aims to conceal the purpose of the experiment, as in Example 3a.)

Evidentials, which refer to community-based literature, and provide important support for arguments, increased significantly by 111.1% (log-likelihood = 57.73, $p < .001$) during the past 40 years, and this increase is mainly reflected by the increase in the use of in-text citations, the raw frequency of which was 258 in the 2020 corpus, as compared to 10 in the 1980 corpus and 32 in 2000 corpus, in both of which 认为 (think) was the most frequently-used expression. The changes in linguistic choices signify a move from direct quotes to in-text citations which work better for generalizing from several sources (Hyland & Jiang, 2018).

(13) 乔姆斯基认为，任何句子都具有深层结构和表层结构。(1980)

(Chomsky thinks that any sentence has a deep structure and a surface structure.)

(14) 从社会语言学的角度来看，词是“社会交际系统中最主要的成分”（Labov，1973：340）。(2000)

(From the perspective of sociolinguistics, words are “the most important component in the social communication system”(Labov，1973：340)

(15) 随着功能语言学的兴起，人们逐渐认识到它不仅传递概念信息，产出可信文本，而且表达丰富的人际意义，实现作者与读者的社会互动（Halliday & Martin, 1993; Hyland, 2004; 李战子, 2001）。 (2020)

(With the rise of functional linguistics, people have gradually realized that it not only conveys conceptual information and produces credible texts, but also expresses rich interpersonal meanings and realizes the social interaction between authors and readers (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Hyland, 2004; Li, 2001)).

B. Changes in the Interactional Dimension

Interactional metadiscourse helps writers establish a community-based personality by making their views explicit and aligning themselves with their readers, revealing the extent to which writers work to involve and engage their readers. From Table 5, we can see that during the 1980-2020 period, the use of hedges (–21.6%), attitude markers (–26.8%), and engagement markers (–80.5%, log-likelihood = 346.55, $p < .001$) decreased, while the use of boosters (+5.6%) and self-mentions (+46.5) increased. It is also worth noticing that four out of the five interactional subcategories, i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions, increased in the 2000 corpus before dropping in the 2020 corpus. These changes reveal that Chinese scholars adopted a more explicitly involved and personal position before they turned to a stronger and less personal authorial stance.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF INTERACTIONAL FEATURES 1980-2020 (PER 10,000 CHINESE CHARACTERS)

Interactional	1980	2000	2020
Hedges	43.1	54.1	33.8
Boosters	37.7	45.1	39.8
Attitude markers	11.2	15.6	8.2
Self-mentions	7.1	18.7	10.4
Engagement markers	29.3	18.6	5.7
Total	128.4	152.1	97.9

Hedges play down the certainty of the writer’s claims by recognizing alternative voices and viewpoints, while boosters work in the opposite direction by closing down alternatives and heading off conflicting views. The decreased use of hedges and increased use of boosters indicate a stronger authorial stance. On the other hand, the decline in the use of attitude markers, which convey the writer’s affective attitude to propositions, signaling surprise, agreement or frustration, indicate that the Chinese scholars are now taking a more objective, less personal stance. Engagement markers explicitly address readers, to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants, and self-mentions reveal the degree of explicit author presence in the text. The decline in engagement markers and greater use of self-mentions show a tendency to downplay their readers and highlight author presence.

The use of hedges increased in the 2000 corpus, and decreased in the 2020 corpus, to a lower level than the 1980 corpus, showing that Chinese scholars around the year 2000 were more willing to recognize alternative voices, while in the year 2020, they are more likely to present information as recognized facts. In all three corpora, the most commonly used expressions for hedges are those for possibilities such as 可能 (possible) and 可以 (may, can), or for the extent of certainty that they give to a claim such as 主要 (mainly) and 一定 (certain):

(16) 与同声传译相比，这种传译形式可能较为准确、完整，但是占时间过多。 (1980)

(Compared with simultaneous interpretation, this form of interpretation may be more accurate and complete, but it takes up too much time.)

(17) 本研究还存在不足，主要反映在以下两个方面…… (2000)

(There are still shortcomings in this research, which are mainly reflected in the following two aspects.)

(18) 同时，发现语料库概率模型与本族语者的构式变体选择高度一致，验证了本文构建的语料库概率模型具有一定的心理现实性，一定程度上可以反映和预测本族语者的构式使用行为。(2020)

(At the same time, it is found that the probability model of the corpus is highly consistent with the choice of constructional variants of the native speaker, which verifies that the corpus probability model constructed in this article has a certain psychological reality and can reflect and predict the use of the native speaker’s construction to a certain extent.)

There was only a marginal increase of 5.6% in boosters during the past 40 years despite the increase in 2000. However, the linguistic choices have seen evident changes, from commitments expressed as personal beliefs in the 1980 corpus such as 必须(must for possibility), 当然 (certainly), and 甚至(even), to those which seek to convey more objective, data-supported assurances such as 发现(find), 表明(show) and 显著 (obviously, significant) in the 2000 and 2020 corpora (examples 20 and 21).

(19) 但是，这种直观断定应通过形式描写加以证明才行，这当然是形式语法份内的事了。(1980)

(However, this kind of intuitive conclusion should be proved by formal description, which is certainly a matter of formal grammar.)

(20) 在调查中我们发现，对于研究意义，特别是研究与教学实践的关系，调查对象们有着一系列不同的理解。(2000).

(In the survey, we find that the survey subjects have a series of different understandings about the significance of research, especially the relationship between research and teaching practice.)

(21) 方差检验显示，教师在课堂策略使用类型上差异显著，策略类型效应显著：F=40，P<0.001。(2020)

(Variance test shows that teachers have significant differences in the types of classroom strategies used and the effect of strategy types: F=40, P<0.001.)

The use of attitude markers, like that of hedges, also increased in the 2000 corpus, and decreased in the 2020 corpus. While declining in numbers, the expression 重要 (important) remains the most common expression in all three corpora (22). Attitude markers do not appear as frequently as other interactional resources, and they carry strong negative judgements, as illustrated in (23), or positive judgements, as illustrated in (24).

(22) 外语电教作为重要工具的作用和地位，不但不会减少，相反还会越来越被人们所了解。(1980)

(The role and status of foreign language audio-visual education as an important tool will not be reduced, on the contrary, it will become more and more understood by people.)

(23) 社会用语都有极强的目的性，甚至可以说是急功近利。(2000)

(Social language has a strong purpose, and it can even be said to aim at quick success.)

(24) 新手教师虽然自主性较强，但应对管理体系的经验相对较少，因此他们在管理体系介入下的资源利用值得研究。(2020)

(Although novice teachers have strong autonomy, they have relatively little experience in dealing with the management system, so their resource utilization under the intervention of the management system is worth studying.)

Self-mention, which is closely associated with authorial identity by explicitly signaling writer presence, increased by 46.5% (log-likelihood = 10.95, p < .001) over the past 40 years, after an increase of 163.4% in 2000 (log-likelihood = 83.85, p < .001), showing that Chinese scholars want to be more visible in their writing, stepping in to explicitly signal their presence and take responsibility for their claims. The most common self-mention in all three corpora is 我们 (exclusive we and us), which allows Chinese scholars to create more distance between themselves and their reporting, indicating a less invasive stance than first-person in singular forms, although it is more personal, compared to 本文 (this paper) and 笔者 (the author), the second and third most common self-mentions in the 1980 and 2000 corpora.

(25) 我们认为，功能语法作为语法领域的新生事物，反映了语言学新的发展趋势。(1980)

(We believe that functional grammar, as a new thing in the field of grammar, reflects the new development trend of linguistics.)

(26) 笔者在访谈中发现，英语专业的学生大多对自己的口语交际能力有较高要求。 (2000)

(The author found in the interview that most of the English majors have higher requirements for their oral communication skills.)

(27) 本文基于中国综合社会调查（CGSS）2006 年和 2017 年的数据，比较分析我国国民英语能力的基本状况及发展态势。(2020)

(Based on the data of the China Comprehensive Social Survey (CGSS) in 2006 and 2017, this article compares and analyzes the basic status and development of Chinese people’s English proficiency.)

It is worth mentioning that in the 2020 corpus, 研究者 (the researcher) is the third most common expression for self-mention, which was not found in either the 1980 or 2000 corpus, signaling that Chinese scholars now identify themselves as researchers more than they did 20 years ago.

(28) 同时，研究者还观测到了教师专业自主性的提升。(2020)

(At the same time, the researchers have also observed an increase in teachers’ professional autonomy.)

Engagement markers, which explicitly address readers, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants, have declined the most in all interactional items, by 80.5% (log-likelihood = 346.55, p < .001), suggesting that Chinese scholars are less interested in explicitly stepping into the text to focus their readers’ attention on particular viewpoints. In all three corpora, 我们 (inclusive we and us) is the most commonly used expression:

(29) 我们要随时随地向一切内行请教，以解决我们在翻译过程中遇到的各种问题。(1980)

(We need to consult all experts anytime and anywhere to solve the various problems we encounter in the translation process.)

Engagement markers also help pull readers into the discourse to guide them to particular interpretations, with questions or directives such as see, note, or consider.注意(note) is the second most frequently used engagement marker is the 1980 and 2000 corpora, the use of which calls for readers’ attention to what the writer wants to emphasize:

(30) 应当注意的是……现有的词汇能力发展理论还不能算是真正意义上的理论。(2000)

(It should be noted that … the existing theories on the development of lexical competence … cannot be regarded as a theory in the true sense.)

Questions are also among the top three most frequently used engagement markers in the three corpora, pulling the readers into the discourse, guiding them to particular interpretations, displaying or emphasizing the writers' opinion on a topic, as illustrated in (31):

(31) 为什么时空状语在汉语中都以前置为优势语序而产生的迁移影响却不同呢？研究发现，在二语习得中母语迁移发生与否及其作用程度受到诸如语言、心理、认知、环境等多种因素的制约。(2020)

(Why are spatiotemporal adverbials in Chinese with predominant word order and the transfer effect is different? Research has found that the occurrence and extent of mother tongue transfer in second language acquisition are restricted by many factors such as language, psychology, cognition, and environment.)

V. Conclusion

This study aimed to identify changes in patterns of interaction in Chinese RAs over the past 40 years through the lens of metadiscourse use. We find a significant decrease in metadiscourse over the past four decades, and with a closer look, we find that this is because of the decreases in both interactive and interactional items. This decrease renders Chinese academic writing interactional patterns more similar to those in English textbooks where metadiscourse resources are used to aid comprehension, than English research articles where metadiscourse devices are employed to assist persuasion. This finding suggests that knowledge in Chinese academic writing is more privileged, accepted, and presented as codified facts or reality than negotiated and constructed.

We also find differences in the changes between the 1980-2000 period and the 2000-2020 period: between 1980 and 2000, both interactive and interactional items increased, while between 2000 and 2020, both interactive and interactional features decreased. Therefore, although Chinese academic writers in 2020 made use of metadiscourse items mainly to clarify and inform, they adopted different interaction strategies in 2000, when they not only made more use of interactive devices to accommodate their audience's expectations and knowledge, but also employed a lot more interactional devices to explicitly include them in the discourse construction. These findings are also corroborated by the changes that we find in linguistic choices of the metadiscourse devices, showing a shift to guidance and persuasion with more logical arguments, hard evidence, relevant literature, and objective-data-supported assurances.

The diachronic changes in metadiscourse use in academic writing reveal how academic writers respond and react to the changes in the academic context that embrace and shape rhetorical practices in the academic community. Our research finds that Chinese scholars today present their academic findings, their readers, and themselves in patterns different not only from their international counterparts, but also from Chinese scholars 40 years ago. Similar diachronic studies in more disciplines, interviews with Chinese scholars, collaborative research work with historical linguistics may help produce more fruitful findings to unveil the political, institutional, and economic influences that frame and shape academic work.

Acknowledgements

This research was funded by the Humanities and Social Science Fund of the Ministry of Education of China [grant number 18YJC740109] and Chongqing Municipal Education Commission [grant number 18SKB060].

References

[1] Aertselaer, JoAnne Neff-van, and Emma Dafouz-Milne. (2008). "Argumentation patterns in different languages: An analysis of metadiscourse markers in English and Spanish texts." In *Developing Contrastive Pragmatics*, edited by Pütz, Martin and Aertselaer, JoAnne Neff-van, 87-102. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

[2] Anthony, Laurence. (2019). *Antconc3.5.8*. Retrieved March 5, 2021, from https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/

[3] Cao, Feng, and Guangwei Hu. (2014). "Interactive metadiscourse in research articles: A comparative study of paradigmatic and disciplinary influences." *Journal of Pragmatics, 66*. 15-31.

[4] Crismore, Avon. (1983). "Metadiscourse: What it is and how it is used in school and non-school social science texts," *Center for the Study of Reading Technical Report,* no. 273.

[5] Fu, Xiaoli, and Ken Hyland. (2014). "Interaction in two journalistic genres: A study of interactional metadiscourse." *English Text Construction, 7*. 122-144.

[6] Gao, Jingting. (2014). "International Students' Use of Chinese Metadiscourse Markers." *Journal of Nanjing Institute of Technology (Social Science Edition), 14*. 20-25.

[7] Gillaerts, Paul, and Freek Van de Velde. (2010). "Interactional metadiscourse in research article abstracts." *Journal of English for Academic purposes, 9*. 128-139.

[8] Hu, Guangwei, and Feng Cao. (2011). "Hedging and boosting in abstracts of applied linguistics articles: A comparative study of English-and Chinese-medium journals." *Journal of pragmatics, 43*. 2795-2809.

[9] Huang, Qin, and Cancan Yang. (2014). "A comparative study of the use of metadiscourse between English and Chinese news features." *Journal of Xi'an International Studies University, 22*. 1-5.

[10] Hyland, Ken. (2001). "Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles,." *English for Specific Purposes, 20*, 207–226.

[11] Hyland, Ken. (2004). "Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing." *Journal of second language writing, 13*(2). 133-151.

[12] Hyland, Ken. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing*. London: Continuum.

[13] Hyland, Ken. (2017). "Metadiscourse: What is it and where is it going?." *Journal of pragmatics, 113*. 16-29.
[14] Hyland, Ken, and Feng Kevin Jiang. (2016a). ""We must conclude that…": A diachronic study of academic engagement." *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 24*, 29-42.
[15] Hyland, Ken, and Feng Kevin Jiang. (2016b). "Change of attitude? A diachronic study of stance." *Written communication, 33*, 251-274.
[16] Hyland, Ken, and Feng Kevin Jiang. (2017). "Is academic writing becoming more informal?." *English for Specific Purposes, 45*, 40-51.
[17] Hyland, Ken, and Feng Kevin Jiang. (2018). ""In this paper we suggest": Changing patterns of disciplinary metadiscourse." *English for Specific Purposes*, *51*, 18-30.
[18] Hyland, Ken, and Feng Kevin Jiang. (2020). "Text-organizing metadiscourse: tracking changes in rhetorical persuasion." *Journal of Historical Pragmatics, 21*, 137-164.
[19] Ju, Yumei. (2013). "A Study of Metadiscourse in the Discourse of English and Chinese Academic Papers—From the Perspective of Aristotle's Rhetoric." *Foreign Languages Research, 3*. 23-29.
[20] Kuhi, Davud, and Manijheh Mojood. (2014). "Metadiscourse in newspaper genre: A cross-linguistic study of English and Persian editorials." *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 1046-1055.
[21] Lee, Joseph. J., and Nicholus C. Subtirelu. (2015). "Metadiscourse in the classroom: A comparative analysis of EAP lessons and university lectures." *English for Specific Purposes, 37*. 52-62.
[22] Li, Xiuming. (2011). *Research on Chinese Metadiscourse Markers*. Beijing: China Social Science Press.
[23] Li, Xiuming. (2007). "Analysis of Metadiscourse Markers and Stylistic Features." *Contemporary Rhetoric, 2*, 20-24.
[24] Liu, Shufen. (2013). "A Comparative Study of Metadiscourse in Chinese and American News Review Discourses." *Contemporary Rhetoric, 2*. 83-89.
[25] Liu, Hong, and Yulei Song. (2018). "A Comparative Analysis of the Use of Metadiscourse in Chinese and Foreign Chinese International Education Master's Degree Thesis Abstracts." *International Chinese Language Education, 3*. 41-53.
[26] Mu, Congjun. (2010). "A Comparative Analysis of Metadiscourse Markers in Chinese and English Newspaper Editorials." *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice, 4*, 35-43.
[27] Mu, Congjun, Lawrence Jun Zhang, John Ehrich and Huaqing Hong. (2015). "The use of metadiscourse for knowledge construction in Chinese and English research articles." *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 20*, 135-148.
[28] Ozdemir, Neslihan Onder, and Bernadette Longo. (2014). "Metadiscourse use in thesis abstracts: A cross-cultural study." *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 141*, 59-63.
[29] Pooresfahani, Ailin Firoozian, Gholam Hassan Khajavy and Fateme Vahidnia. (2012). "A contrastive study of metadiscourse elements in research articles written by Iranian applied linguistics and engineering writers in English." *English Linguistics Research, 1*, 88-96.
[30] Thompson, Geoff. (2001). "Interaction in academic writing: Learning to argue with the reader." *Applied linguistics, 22*, 58-78.
[31] Thompson, Geoff, and Puleng Thetela. (1995). "The sound of one hand clapping: The management of interaction in written discourse." *Text & Talk, 15*, 103-128.
[32] Ruan, Xianyu, and Jin Xu. (2016). "A Contrastive Study on Application of Metadiscourse in English and Chinese Petroleum Academic Texts." *Journal of Southwest Petroleum University (Social Sciences Edition), 18*. 96-104
[33] Vande Copple, William. (1985). "Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse." *College Composition and Communication, 36*, 82-93.
[34] Williams, Joseph M. (1981). *Style: Ten Lessons in Clarity and Grace*. Boston: Scott Foresman.
[35] Wu, Geqi. (2010). "A Comparative Study of Authors' Position Markers in the Conclusion of English and Chinese Research Papers." *Journal of Xi'an International Studies University, 18*. 46-50.
[36] Wu, Geqi, and Chunlei Pan. (2010). "Research on Author's Position Markers in Chinese Academic Papers." *Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies, 3*. 91-96.
[37] Ying, Jieqiong. (2017). "A Cognitive Study of Writing in the Discussion Part of Foreign Language Academic Papers—Based on the Analysis of Mood and Metadiscourse." *Technology Enhanced Foreign Language Education, 6*, 64-70.
[38] Zhang, Kevin. (2013). *NLPIR Chinese Word Segmentation System*. Retrieved April 12, 2021, from https://github.com/NLPIR-team/NLPIR.

Jing Wei is an Associate Professor and M.A. Supervisor in the College of International Studies at Southwest University, Chongqing, China. She holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics. Her research interests include academic discourse, Functional Linguistics and English for academic purposes.

Xi Xiong is an M.A. candidate in Linguistics in the College of International Studies at Southwest University, Chongqing, China. She received her bachelor degree in English Education in 2020. Her research interests include academic discourse and English for academic purposes.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 994-1005, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.21

Faking the Arabic Imagination Till We Make it: Language and Symbol Representation in the Indonesian E-Commerce

Kamaluddin Abu Nawas*
Arabic Language Department, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Gowa 92118, Indonesia

Abdul Muiz Amir
Department of Qur'anic and Hadith Studies, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Kendari 93116, Indonesia

Alim Syariati
Management Department, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Gowa 92118, Indonesia

Fahmi Gunawan
Arabic Education Department, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Kendari 93116, Indonesia

***Abstract*—This study aimed to examine the relationship between Arabization and Islamization discourses by Arabic commodification in the Muslim's branding construction in Indonesian e-commerce media. Previous studies on Arabic commodification related to Islamism ideology were limited to textbooks, speeches, regulations, and news narratives. Similar practices can also occur in the digital economy by representing labels or brands of e-commerce products and services. The data collected was based on store labels, brands, and product descriptions using Arabic theological terms. It was then analyzed using a digital ethnographic design that combines an interdisciplinary approach to critical discourse analysis (CDA) and critical hermeneutics studies. The results showed that labels on Indonesian e-commerce contain pious political-economic ideology through Arabic commodification. This is represented by Muslim merchant agents that insert dogmatic theological terms as store labels, product brands, and descriptions. The practices are used as sellers and missionary tools to attract public attention to the positive Islamic economics image. This strategy has gained the trust of Muslim consumers in Indonesia regarding product quality and service satisfaction. Therefore, this study implied that some digital e-commerce businesses in non-Arab Muslim countries created Islamic missionary-based marketing.**

***Index Terms*—Arabic Language, Commodification, E-commerce, The Ideology of Religiosity, Virtual Ethnography**

I. Introduction

Arab culture has contributed to shaping the face of Islam in Indonesia so that Arab symbols seem synonymous with Islam itself (Kuipers & Askuri, 2017). This discourse has made the Muslim community believe that Arabic is an exclusive and sacred language (Yahya et al., 2021). This phenomenon is inseparable from the historical influence of the entry of Islam into Indonesia, which was spread by Muslim missionaries from the Middle East (Drewes, 1968a) and is known as the "Arabization of Islam." Similarly, Ghoshal (2010) reported that the "Arabization of Islam" is a form of hegemony of Arab cultural identity into the Islamic entity so that most Muslims in Indonesia represent the language, clothing, food, and lifestyle of Arabs as the Islamic entity itself. Especially for the language aspect, the Arabization of Islam discourse seems to have influenced the Muslim community in Indonesia, so that they believe Arabic as an exclusive and sacred language (Nawas et al., 2022).

The discourse of Arabic language commodification in this study is defined as an economic commodity practice using Arabic theological terms packaged by Muslim producers, mainly as labels or trademarks in e-commerce. This phenomenon is reflected in the widespread Muslim sellers' use of Arabic theological terms as store labels and product brands on social media and e-commerce applications, such as Shopee. The application has been popular in this country, with the highest customer visits and transactions than other e-commerce applications, specifically during the Covid-19 pandemic (The report of iPrice, 2020; SmilarWeb, 2022). Online shop owners have found several uses of Arabic theological terms through Shopee, such as-*Sunnah, Nabawī, Islāmī, Syar'ī,* and *Da'wa*. Shirazi (2016) stated that the Halāl label legitimizes the products legalized in Islamic teachings. However, the product specifications contradict the

* Corresponding Author.

Islamic law legality because commodity interests only drive them. This is the initial driving factor for the emergence of Arabic commodification as a commodity label hiding behind religious authority.

Previous studies did not examine e-commerce Arabic commodification as part of the ideological construction related to Islamism. They only explained the relationship between commodification and Islamism ideology through textbooks (Edres, 2022), mainstream media news (Fealy, 2008), regulatory texts (Hachimi, 2013; Solimando, 2022), and conversational interactions through online social media (Amir, 2019). Similarly, previous studies on the construction of Islamic branding in e-commerce were limited to CDA advertising (Feramayasari & Wiedarti, 2020), legal transaction system (Zainul et al., 2004), branding and consumer trust systems (Muhammad et al., 2013), and transaction ethics (Ashraf, 2019). Those studies did not examine the production and distribution of the ideology behind Arabic-language Islamic branding in e-commerce. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate Arabic commodification as a marker of the political-economic ideology of piety in Indonesian e-commerce by proposing three research problems.

First, how are representations of Arabic commodification practices constructed by merchants in Indonesia through the Indonesian e-commerce? and second, why do Arabic commodification practices tend to be produced and distributed through this platform? We use Norman Fairclough's Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach to the digital economy discourse based on digital ethnography research design to answer these two questions. This approach requires the availability of data related to discourse representation as part of discourse construction, which includes production, distribution, and consumption. All three are then elaborated to find the discourse construction's sociological context. Arabic theological terms as an Islamic Brand are collected and classified to ascertain the influence of their attraction from these terms. The research design was elaborated to reveal the characteristics of the religious ideology behind the use of Arabic theological terms (Islamic Brand) found in Shopee in-store labels, brands, and product descriptions. This study implies the presence of Arabic commodification through labeling shops and products, all the while inserting ideological dogmas.

A. The Relationship Between Arabization and Islamization in Indonesia

Linguists articulate the term Arabization using different definitions. Pereira (2017), for example, expresses the term Arabization as the practice of vernacularizing Arabic into local cultures within non-Arabic communities. In this case, he examines the Arabic transmission process into local languages in North Africa. In contrast, Ghoshal (2010) tends to use the term Arabization as part of the ideological dogma of Islamism, as stated in the following quote:

"This process of homogenization and regimentation—a process I would like to call the 'Arabization' of Islam—puts greater emphasis on rituals and codes of conduct than on substance, through the Wahhabi and Salafi creeds, a rigidly puritanical branch of Islam exported from, and subsidized by, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia."

Arabization and Islamization discourses cannot be separated (Kuipers & Askuri, 2017). This is because Indonesia's Muslim community knows Arabic through Islamic missionization from the ocean-going missions of the Middle East (Arab merchants) and South Asia (Gujarati merchants) in the 13th century AD (Drewes, 1968b). Instead of using Arabic in their daily communication, most people use it as a marker of theological identity or religious ideology (Kaptein, 2017). This is seen in the Muslim community's enthusiasm to learn Arabic through the Quran in formal and non-formal educational institutions (Sanusi & Albantani, 2021). The phenomenon is in line with Maulana (2018) that language Islamization is undeniable when the process is carried out in any culture. Therefore, Arabic is popular in Indonesia because it is the official language of Islam.

Arabic popularity has reached its peak as an Islamization dogma since the rise of an Islamic state in the Reformation era or after the collapse of the New Order in Indonesia in the mid-1990s (Hasan, 2009). Islamic theological terms are part of the social, political, cultural, and economic interactions amid the country's majority Muslim population (Nurhajati & Fenton, 2020). This is seen by several Arabic terms that emerged as a resistance to political hegemony from anti-imperialist Islamism groups over the domination of liberalism and Western secularism (Rahman, 2017). The representation of religious identity symbols through Arabic by Muslim communities is adopted chiefly from the terms in the Qur'an and Hadith, the second primary source of Islamic teachings (Woodward, 1993). People use the terms *khalīfah*, meaning Islamic political system, *ribā'*, implying transactions violating Islamic law, and *syarī'ah,* meaning Islamic law. Other terms are *sunnah*, which means according to the instructions of the Prophet Muhammad; bid'*ah*, representing practices contrary to the *sunnah*; and *kāfir,* implying followers of religions outside of Islam. The use of Arabic Islamic theological terms and symbolisms appear to form a commodification practice of the language that illustrates the process of the transformation of Islamic discourse in Indonesia (Gade & Feener, 2004). Therefore, this study found the opportunity for Arabic commodification to be integrated into the economic discourse distributed by Muslims through e-commerce applications.

B. The Language Commodification Discourse

Language has transformed from a communication tool into a symbolic capital that mobilizes public ideology (Suleiman, 2013). It could also be exchanged as a commodity tool in material modalities (Woolard, 2020). Therefore, language is a communication tool and central to social control. Academics have widely discussed this discourse that created the commodification concept through scientific publications.

Heller (2003) conceptualizes commodification as something produced to be offered and sold in the market for the desired profit. Similarly, language commodification refers to the condition when language is used and valued for economic gain. In the same vein, Lytra (2013) reports that the practice of language commodification is considered a form of social and economic symbol capital to increase employment and access to higher education. Previously, the concept of "linguistic market" analyzes how high the premium of the dominant language (standard variety) pertains to vernacular dialects for economic value. Therefore, the practice has been socially recognized as a global economic discourse characterized by terms such as tertiaries, neoliberalism, and globalization tower to express a broad socio-economic context (Pujolar, 2018).

Language commodification is closely related to using language as a linguistic element integrated into ideological markers (Solimando, 2022). According to Mosco (1996), commodification transforms use values into exchange values. Irvine (1989) stated that linguistics construct meaning and social interaction, categorize identity, and map the political and economic conditions that limit the possibilities for making meaning and social relations. Moreover, Gal (1989) stated that commodification scope has shaped the language ideology and helps explain why linguistics is vulnerable to producing and reproducing social and moral order as the legitimacy of social identity. This is in line with the position of Arabic in Indonesia as a theological language and a marker of the political-economic ideology of piety.

Yahya et al. (2021) showed the tendency of Indonesia's Muslims to use Arabic as a commodification tool to distribute personal and communal piety ideologies. This originated from the position of Arabic as a representation of the exclusive and sacred eschatological language of God and the hereafter. For this reason, people proficient in Arabic are considered pious, which is not always the case. Jaspal and Coyle (2010) reported that a group of British-born Pakistani youths, when asked why they learned Arabic, replied that Arabic is the Muslim world's language, serving not only as a liturgical language but also a religious identity and can be commodified. The phenomenon inspired this study to examine the formation pattern of Arabic commodification practiced by the Islamism group through digital trade channels in e-commerce. This study aimed to ensure that the practice is a primary motivational indicator fueling the growth of the piety economic discourse in Indonesia.

C. Islamic Branding

A brand is a mark or symbol signifying a particular product. It serves as a tool to identify a company's or business's products to differentiate it from its competitors (Alfonsius et al., 2021). But on the other hand, branding not only defines identity but also creates an emotional bond between consumers' senses wherever they are so that, ultimately, a brand can provide awareness to consumers and make them re-evaluate all product categories to create their loyalty (De Chernatony & Riley, 1998). In particular, one of the essential advantages of an established brand is the brand commitment inherent in its loyal customers. From this, it can be concluded that brands have the power to attract consumer loyalty so that they return to buy products or use certain services (Tabaku & Zerellari, 2015). Therefore, it is not surprising that many consumers purchase certain brands with higher selling prices than other brands with lower prices for similar products or services.

In the *syarīʻah* economic system or Islamic law, not all products are traded as they must ensure the *halāl* or permissible according to Islamic jurisprudence criteria. Formal religious authority institutions issue this label to mark the permissibility of a product consumed or used by Muslims (Aman, 2020a). The Islamic or *halāl* brand refers to Islamic teachings in food and cosmetic product packaging, pharmaceuticals, logistics, clothing, finance, hospitality, and banking (Alserhan, 2010a). Consequently, Muslims prefer Arabic-language Islamic labels listed on product packaging traded as Islamic brandings, such as *halāl, sunnah,* and *nabawī* (Al-Kwifi et al., 2019). This notion supports Karoui and Khemakhem (2019), which stated that religion interacts with individual and community ideologies in a complex manner, influencing its adherents' consumption behavior and perceptions.

II. Materials and Methods

This study applied a critical paradigm based on digital ethnographic design to explore the consequences of digital media in shaping ethnographic techniques and processes. The design also aimed to explain ethnographic studies' digital, methodological, practical, and theoretical dimensions (Pink et al., 2016). Arabic was traced to indicate language commodification practiced by Muslim sellers at Shopee. Therefore, the digital data on Arabic theological terms comprised labels and trademarks found on Shopee, such as *Sunnah, Syar'ī, Nabawī, Islāmī, Halāl,* and *Da'wa*. These terms were chosen because they are used massively in Shopee e-commerce as a means of commodifying diverse Islamic piety‒values, norms, and identities‒for the purpose of economic interests by Muslim merchants.

Similarly, using these Arabic theological teorms is a marketing tool and a persuasive means to sell goods and services to attract Muslim consumers. This phenomenon utilizes not only religious motivations but also contemporary Islamic economic marketing and business strategies driven by the accelerating pace of globalization (Shirazi, 2016). The terms were grouped and described qualitatively, though some were also explained quantitatively. Furthermore, this design was elaborated using an interdisciplinary approach between critical discourse analysis and critical hermeneutic studies. The elaboration resulted in a collaboration to discuss the discourse in more complex aspects (Van Dijk, 2011).

Among the myriad of e-commerce platforms, we select Shopee as the basis for obtaining the data. This e-commerce provides a web and mobile-based application for most Southeast Asian users as the chosen brand with 129 million visits per month and increases to 421 million trips in 2022 (Survey of iPrice, 2020). Furthermore, SimilarWeb in March 2022 placed Shopee in the first rank as the most popular e-commerce application visited by the digital community

(SmilarWeb, 2022). It works like what the e-bay, Amazon, or Alibaba offers. While other competitors like Tokopedia, Lazada, or OLX present the same primary offerings, the massive promotion and discounts in Shopee outperform other e-commerce in Indonesia. It identifies with mostly young-aged users and is dominated by fashion offerings (source: link). Thus, most Muslim sellers use its popularity to insert their political-economic ideology, including religious doctrine, while fulfilling their economic agenda.

The design was implemented by tracing the store labels and product brands using these terms by entering their keywords in the Shopee search field. The data collected were described and analyzed using Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional critical discourse analysis (CDA) approach (Fairclough, 1993, 1995, 2013b). The analysis involved representing the data to determine the production, distribution, and consumption construction, followed by interpretation using critical hermeneutic reading (Byrne, 2001). Interpretation involved linguistically analyzing the Arabic language shop labels and product brands used by Muslim sellers, including inserting the holy book text in the thumbnail section and product descriptions. This analysis aimed to find a functional semantic relationship between these terms and their meanings to determine the ideological characteristics behind Islamic branding on Shopee (Fairclough, 2013a).

III. Results and Discussion

A. *Representation of Islamic Branding in Arabic on E-Commerce*

In the introduction, we raise two crucial questions for this research to answer. The first question is related to how Muslim merchants in Indonesia construct the representation of Arabization through Shopee. The second question is associated with the construction of Arabization discourse by Muslim merchants through e-commerce, in this case, Shopee. For the first question, the results of our data exploration show that the representation of Arabic commodification practices constructed by traders in Indonesia through the Shopee platform can be observed in three ways: discourse production, distribution, and consumption.

(a). Discourse Production

The search reports the popularity of Shopee in Indonesia shown by an increase of 45% in the number of stores and 60% of products on Shopee that use Islamic Branding labels over the past five years. Although not all stores in Shopee use Islamic Branding labels and brands, the significant increase shows its popularity among merchants and buyers in Muslim-majority countries like Indonesia compared to other religions (Catholic Christianity, Protestantism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism). This phenomenon is in line with the report of Purwaningwulan et al. (2019), which states that the Muslim market in Indonesia has been dynamic and surprising in the last ten years.

The results of our data search reveal six labels or brands that Muslim merchants predominantly use on Shopee, namely *Sunnah*, *Shar'ī*, *Nabawī*, *Islāmī*, *Ḥalāl*, and *Da'wa*. These findings are based on our search through keyword exploration in the Shopee search bar. These labels are used by Shopee entrepreneurs as store labels and their product brands, as in Table 1 and evident in Figures 1 and 2. Manufacturers use these store labels to market books, clothing, herbal medicines, cosmetics, perfumes, food, furniture, and sports equipment in Table 3. at Shopee using Arabic Islamic branding. A theological genre is used to attract consumer attention in predominantly-Muslim Indonesia.

TABLE 1
ISLAMIC STORE LABELS ON A LEADING E-COMMERCE

Store Label	Frequency
Sunnah/Sunnah	34.4%
Nabawī/Nabawi	33.1%
Syar'ī/Syar'i	2.1%
Ḥalāl/Halal	23.4
Islāmī/Islamic	3.9%
Da'wa/Dakwah	3.1%

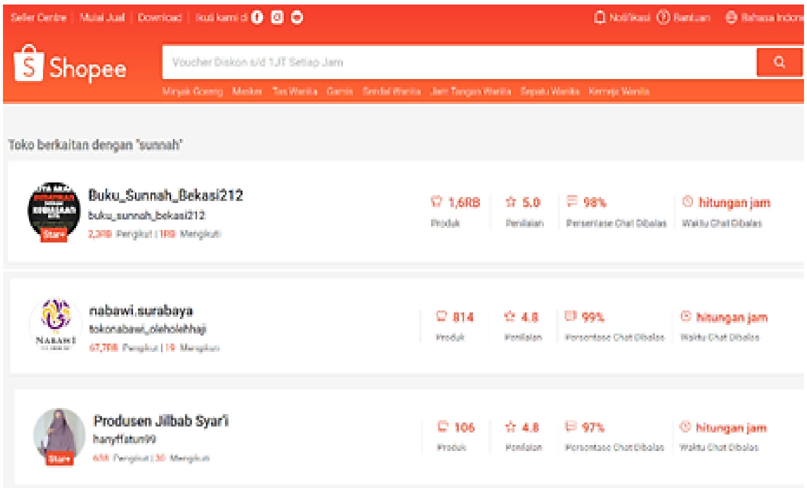


Figure 1. Store Label: Link, (accessed, 02/Jan/2022)

The data in table 1 shows that the label of *Sunnah* is the most utilized term (34.4%) that appears on Shopee from a total of 1600 products that use Islamic branding. Merchants combine these labels with those for product types, store locations, and other Arabic tags associated with Islamism symbols, as in Figures 2 and 3. The *Sunnah* labels with product types include *Sunnah Book Store*, *Herbal Sunnah Shop*, *Sunnah Kurma*, and *Sunnah Outfit*. Examples of labels with names of store locations are *Sunnah Store Solo*, *Sunnahjogja*, *Sunnah Store Bandung*, *Galeri Sunnah Makassar*, *Sunnahstore Balikpapan*, *Gamis Sunnah Purwokerto*, and *Pustaka Sunnah Gorontalo*. The labels using other Islamic dictions include *Yuk Hijrah Ke Sunnah*, *Lapak Dakwah Sunnah*, *Sunnah Rasulullah Store*, *Khalifa Sunnah*, and *Toko Sunnah Berkah*. Sellers use the dictions in Arabic as Islamic branding offered at Shopee. Additionally, the *Nabawī, Syar'ī, Halāl, Islāmī,* and *Da'wa* dictions are found on the platform. Examples include *Nabawī Herbal Official*, *Produsen Jilbab Syar'i*, *Halal Korean Food*, *Lapak Islami*, and *Akhir Zaman Muslim Store*. Nevertheless, the Sunnah diction as a store label on Shopee is still widely used by sellers.

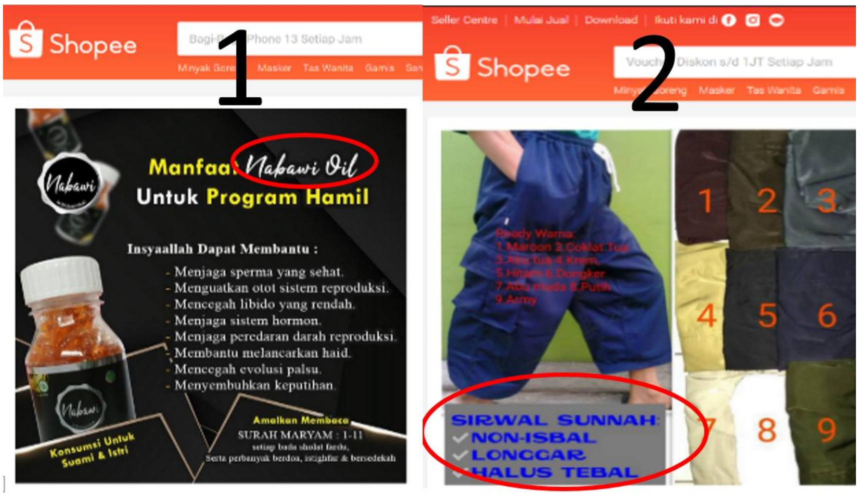


Figure 2. *Sunnah* and *Nabawī* Presentation
Source: links 1 and 2 (accessed 02/Jan/2022)

Merchants employ Islamic branding in Arabic at Shopee as a store label and a product brand. The various products traded use *Sunnah*, *Nabawī*, *Syar'ī*, *Ḥalāl*, *Islāmī*, and *Da'wa* as their brandings, such as *Sirwal Sunnah*, *Nabawi* Oil, *Syar'i* robes, *and Da'wah* T-shirts. These products are easily found on Shopee by searching for keywords according to the dictions. The search results showed that more than 1,200 products use these dictions, mainly books, clothing, herbal medicines, cosmetics, food, furniture, and sports equipment, as shown in Table 2. Books are one foundational means of knowledge transmission such that they present as the product that utilizes Arabic terms or symbols. The next is clothing lines to emphasize the presentation of Islamic looks to maintain spiritual eyes.

TABLE 2
TYPES OF ISLAMIC PRODUCTS ON E-COMMERCE

Types of product	Percentage
Book	35%
Clothing	25%
Herbal medicines	15%
Cosmetics	10%
Perfume	9%
Food	3%
Furniture	2%
Sport equipment	1%

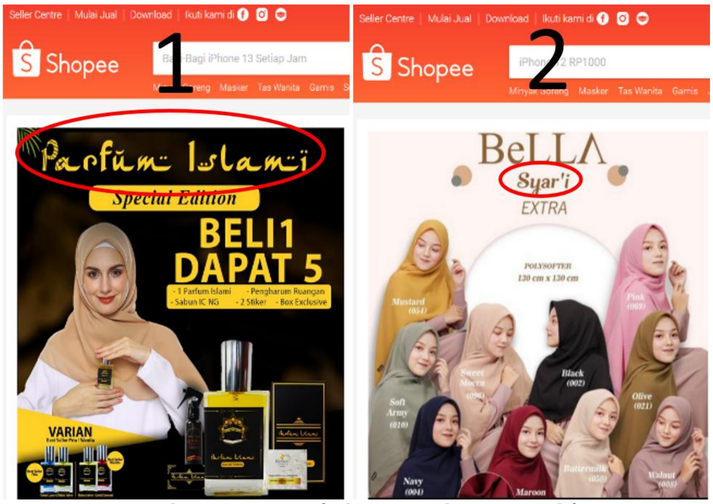


Figure 3. The Presentation of Islamic Branding Commodification
Source: Link 1 & 2 (accessed 03/Jan/2022)

The use of the terms *Sunnah*, Shar'ī, *Nabawī*, *Islāmī*, and Da'wa as part of Islamic branding in Shopee shows that there has been a functional linguistic expansion from theological terms to economic terms. In functional meaning, these terms are different from the term *Ḥalāl*, where this term has an inherent function as a marker of the legality of financial products that have been officially agreed upon by Muslims throughout the world (Aman, 2020b). In contrast, the terms *Sunnah, Shar'ī, Nabawī, Islāmī*, and *Da'wa* are specifically recognized in the Islamic tradition not as economic labels but as theological terms. Al-Ḥanafī (1966) explains that the term Sunnah is used in Islamic terminology to mean "*Fī-mā ṣadar 'an Rasūlillāh gair al-Qur'ān*" or everything attributed to the Messenger of Allah (Peace be upon Him/PBUH) apart from the Qur'an. In addition, he also mentions another articulation of the Islamic legal term "*al-'Ibāda an-nāfila,*" or the suggestion of ritual worship that is not obligatory. Similarly, the term *Shar'ī* is articulated in Islamic literature as "*Khitāb Allāh Ta'ālā bimā yatawaqqaf 'alā ash-shar'i, wa lā yudrak lau-lā khitāb ash-shar'i ka-wujūb aṣ-ṣalā*," or the command of God Almighty based on Islamic law, and the law is unknown if it is not commanded, such as prayer (p. 1019). Another term is *Nabawī* as "*Aḥadīth an-nabawiyya - al-kalām an-nabawī*," or any saying attributed to the Prophet Muhammad (Umar, 2008). The term Islāmī is "*Nisbat ilā al-Islām,*" or everything that is attributed to the teachings of Islam. The term Da'wa is "*Ṭalab isbāt ḥaqq lah 'alā gairih*," or the assertion of the truth of something over something else (Umar, 2008).

(b). Discourse Distribution

Shopee provides sellers with product display and description features through verbal and visual narratives, such as images and videos. Every product item displayed by manufacturers is equipped with a thumbnail, title, and description. Manufacturers say information in the store's header image accompanied by quotes from the Qur'an and *Hadith* to support the product's functions and advantages, e.g., Figure 4.

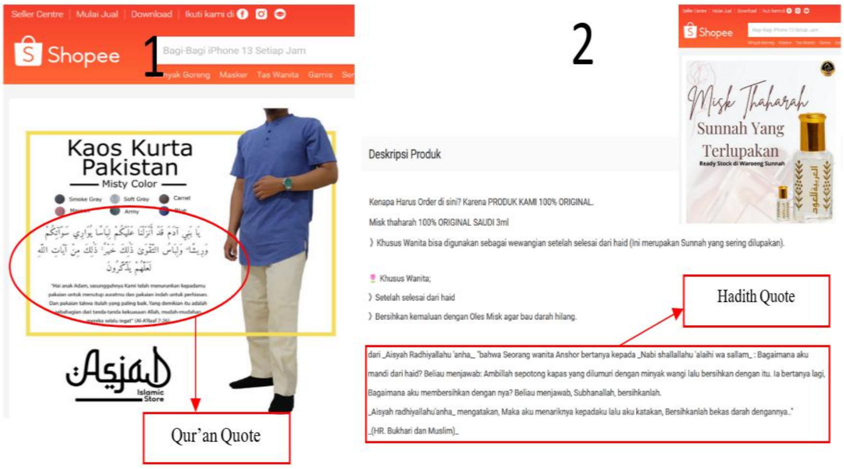


Figure 4. Thumbnails and Product Description
Source: Link 1 & 2 (accessed 02/Jan/2022)

Figure 4 shows the Qur'an and Hadith excerpts inserted by merchants in their thumbnails and product descriptions. This allows sellers to explain that their products are legal in Islamic teachings. The Arabic Qur'an verse quotations accompanied by their translations (QS al-A'rāf/7:26) are seen in the thumbnail section. The Hadith quotes only display their translation in Indonesian, appearing in the product description section. This shows the popularity of the discourse on Islamic branding production at Shopee among the Muslim merchants.

The Qur'an quote is translated as: *"O children of Adam, let not Satan tempt you as he removed your parents from Paradise, stripping them of their clothing to show them their private parts. Indeed, he sees you, he and his tribe, from where you do not see them. Indeed, We have made the devils allies to those who do not believe."* (The Qur'ān Project, 2010).

The Hadith quote is translated as: *"A'isya said that a woman of the Ansar asked the Prophet about washing after menstruation, and he instructed her how to do it, saying, "Take a piece of cotton with musk and purify yourself with it." She asked how she should do this, and he replied, "Purify yourself with it." She asked again how she should do this, and he replied, Praise be to God! Purify yourself with it." 'A'isha then drew her aside and said, "Go over the mark of the blood with it."* (translation source: link, accessed 02/Jan/2022).

The insertion of quotations of scriptural texts by these Muslim merchants, both in Arabic and those that they have translated into Indonesian. These can be found in the thumbnail and product description sections (see figure 3). There is an example of a Qur'anic verse in al-A'rāf/7:26 quoted in Figure 4 as part of the product legality statement. The Qur'anic verse explains the function of clothing as a tool to cover the aura (ugliness) ordered by God to humans. The representation can be seen from one of the phrases in the Qur'anic verse, "*Libās at-taqwā żālik khair,*" or the best clothing is the garment of taqwa (piety). Referring to the literature on Qur'anic exegesis, the meaning of the phrase does not speak of the garment of righteousness in the literal sense but as "*al-'Amal aṣ-ṣāliḥ,*" or good deeds, so the word "*libās*" (apparel) in verse is a "*kināya*" or parables (Ar-Rāzī, 2000).

A similar practice also appears in the product description (see Figure 5), which shows a Muslim trader's insertion of a Hadith as a legal dogma for the fragrant oil product. The Hadith quoted explains a Muslim woman who asked the Prophet about the procedure for cleaning the vital parts of their body when having a *junub* (mandatory bath) after menstruation. At the same time, in the product thumbnail, the merchant also wrote the phrase "The forgotten *sunnah* (prophetical customs)." These insertions of scriptural texts seem to send a dogmatic message to consumers that the perfumed female genital cleansing oil products they offer conform to the specifications suggested by the revelation texts.

The articulation of Arabic theological terms in the form of Islamic Branding shows that there has been a linguistic functional shift or meaning, from those used initially in theological areas are drawn into economic regions. This phenomenon is in line with the definition of language commodification as "the process of transforming use values into exchange values" (Mosco, 1996, p. 141). This is what is also intended in this article as a practice of language commodification that includes the textual meaning of a term and how the text is practiced. This is in line with (Brown & Yule, 1988) statement, "We not only analyze the language but also analyze the use of the language". This phenomenon is in line with (Daniels & Der Ruhr, 2010).

(c). Discourse Consumption

The Shopee e-commerce platform provides buyers with product information, comment services, and rating markers as stars. The highest star rating is based on the number of acquisitions, starting from five to one star. These features are a service strategy for Shopee to evaluate the buyers' satisfaction with the credibility of the producers' or sellers' services. The comments in figure 5 mostly reasoned that Arabic stores with Islamic branding products provide transaction security for Muslims. Most buyers commented on each Islamic branding product positively. They received an average of five stars on each product, meaning consumers were satisfied with the quality of the merchant's products and services. However, some consumers complain about product quality, as seen from the following image excerpt.

Figure 5. Buyer Response

Figure 5 shows the rating obtained for one shop labeled *Sunnah* that provides pants or *sirwal* products. The ratings were 919 five-star, 70 four-star, 11 three-star, and one two-star out of 1001 customers who responded to the store's product and service quality. From 428 comments, most buyers responded positively, indicating their satisfaction with the quality of the store's products and services. The following is the text excerpt from the comments shown in Figure 5.

The buyer's remark translated, " *All praises are to Allah, the package has arrived, the product is good, the seller is friendly, kind, I got another bonus. Thank you for the bonus, guys. The product is recommended. Do not hesitate when you want to shop, please. I hope it sells better, guys.*

The seller's remark translated as *All Praise is to Allah, Allah repays your kindness, brother Dito. May Allah the Almighty bless our commerce.*

Not all customers commented positively. At least 12 other comments gave three and two buyer star ratings, indicating disappointment with the product quality and delivery delay. The narrative excerpt of the comment shows the consumer's response to the quality of the product he bought with a statement praising the quality of the product and the service of the merchant who gave him the bonus. The comment written by the consumer is inserted with the phrase "*Alḥamdulillāh*/All praises be to Allah," to which the merchant replies, "*Tabārakawata'ālā*/Allah repays your kindness." Both quoted phrases show the process of negotiating the ideology of piety in the transaction relationship between the two. This is also evident in the trader's last clause, which explicitly states, "May Allah the Almighty bless our commerce." Although these utterances seem normal in the dialogue between Muslims, the Arabic terms become their markers in the interaction of Muslims with the ideology of "Islamism" through the discourse of "*gazwat al-fikr*" or ideological warfare (Bruinessen, 2015).

The trend of Arabic Islamic branding terms in Shopee reveals that the *Ḥalāl* label is not the only term used by Muslim merchants to signify the legality of their products. Instead, they also use the terms *Sunnah, Shar'ī, Nabawī, Islāmī*, and *Da'wa* in Shopee as store labels or product brands. The problem is not a matter of normativity or whether or not these theological terms can be used as branding for a product in Islamic law. However, it is more of a promotional strategy or marketing politics to attract consumers. This is in line with the report of Karoui and Khemakhem (2019), which states that not all products labeled with Islamic branding can guarantee product quality per the legality of Islamic law.

B. The Emergence of E-Commerce as the Commodification Platform in Indonesia

(a). Situational Context

The Arabic Islamic branding terms in e-commerce emerged due to the revival of Salafism in Indonesia through the propaganda of "Back to the Qur'an and Sunnah." This started following the collapse of the New Order era or after the rise of the Reformation era (Jahroni, 2015). Since then, information disclosure and freedom of expression have become strategic opportunities utilized by digital society to be involved in political piety. Furthermore, Arabic terms emerged due to the influence of the popular liberalism and puritanism movements that opposed the assimilation of Islamic teachings into local wisdom. The movements produced and distributed these discourses through religious studies on social media dominated by the Salafi-Wahabism group (Wahid, 2012). Since the mid-1980s, the Salafism movement has propagated *Sunnah* through spiritual practices, fashion trends, appearances, and Arabic-style communication dialects claimed to be consistent with the traditions of the early three generations of Islam (6th century Hijri) (Hasan, 2007). The movement denounced the Western-style lifestyle through heretical propaganda. This discourse has triggered the emergence of Islamic brands that use *Ḥalāl* to symbolize Islamic products' legality. Additionally, the brands have drawn dogmatic theological terms, such as *Sunnah*, *Islāmī*, *Syar'ī*, and *Da'wa*, into the political-economic ideology of piety.

(b). Institutional Context

The puritanism movement in Indonesia is mobilized by the Islamic community organizations divided into mainstream Islamism, Salafism, and Neo-Islamism. The first group represented by Nahdlatul Ulama (NU) is trying to Islamize or assimilate Islamic teachings and local wisdom traditions. Salafism is concerned with theological purification or those proactively opposing the first group. It is represented by *Salafi Wahabi*, *Tablighi Jama'ah*, and mass organizations in line with their mission. This group is a collection of mass organizations engaged in practical politics based on religious ideology. The organizations were represented by the Islamic Defenders Front (FPI), Wahdah Islamiyah, the 212 Alumni Association, and other groups affiliated with transnational-based ideological movements (Abdullah & Osman, 2018). Furthermore, Neo-Islamism calls for a political revolution from a democratic to an Islamization base. This group was represented by Hizbut Tahrir Indonesia (HTI), the Indonesian Mujahidin Council (MII), Jama'ah Ansar Daulah (JAD) affiliated to ISIS, and Jama'ah Islamiyah affiliated to Al-Qaeda. Although these mass organization groups have different directions, they promote digital Islamism using Arabic theological terms such as Islamic branding on social media and e-commerce.

The emergence of Neo-Islamic social movements has supported development that has shaped the political landscape in recent decades (Wiktorowicz, 2007). The campaign puts forward a homogeneous and static collectivity and is motivated by resistance to Western-style modernization or secular modernity (Esposito, 1998). It is a reactionary collectivity and a militant group seeking regime change to a *Shari'ah*-based government. Moreover, Neo-Islamism has grown as a strategic activist structure organized around loosely defined networks and groups (Bayat, 2005). It also promotes Arab cultural values through proper adherence to Islamic teachings. According to Melucci (1996), the group supports the logic of the new social movement that seeks to create a collaborative meaning network by mobilizing religious ideologies. The network to be created comprises political parties, religious organizations, Social Community Institutions (NGOs), schools, and social networks. Like the Gulen community based in Turkey, these movements provide their followers with strategic economic, educational, cultural, and social resources (Agai, 2007). Boubekeur (2005) stated that the e-commerce market system also creates a consumption culture that plays a vital role in the movement’s growth and development.

(c). Socio-Cultural Context

The influence of Arabic as a theological language through its vernacularizing into Indonesian determines the popularity of Islamic branding in e-commerce (Levy et al., 2021). *Sunnah*, *Islam*, *Syar'ī*, and *Da'wa* are familiar terms among Muslims, specifically religious rituals (Kaptein, 2017; Kuipers & Askuri, 2017). Therefore, these terms seem normal when used as store labels or product brands in e-commerce in Indonesia. For Muslim consumers, Islamic branding is buying and selling worldly products and the motivation to live religion as a social life (Alserhan, 2010b). This lies the strength of Islamic brands compared to conventional brands. However, not all Arabic-labeled branding represents Islamic teachings strictly. Islamic branding symbols could also be inserted with ideological dogma to produce political resistance. Traditional Arabic-style clothing products, such as *Sirwal* or pants above the ankles in Figure 2, are used to oppose conventional clothing. However, Islamic branding has found its marketing strategy that attracts consumers through religious motivation (Zaid et al., 2022). It is a challenge for conventional entrepreneurs to be oriented to material values and present social, spiritual, or moral values by embedding business ethics in their transaction systems. This shows that consumer trust is sourced from the sellers’ product and service quality through guaranteed transaction security in language representation (Qian & Law, 2021).

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Arabization has strongly influenced the growth and development of Islamization discourse in Non-Arabic Muslim countries like Indonesia. Indonesia is one of the concrete examples of the growth of this discourse. One of the sources of production and distribution of this discourse is through the negotiation process of digital trade mediatized through e-commerce. Thus, this study investigated this seemingly-neglected theme by employing the digital ethnographic design and critical discourse analysis in Indonesian e-commerce to clarify two research questions, i.e., the presentation of Arabic commodification in the digital marketing sphere and the reasonings for this movement.

This study observes the proliferation of Arabic-language labels originating from theological terms in Islamic teachings. We report the new emerging theological terms such as *Sunnah*, *Nabawī*, *Syar'ī*, *Islāmī*, and *Da'wa* in Islamic branding in the economic area. This is because Muslims in Indonesia consider Arabic the official, sacred, exclusive, and ideological theological truth language. Although this is considered language commodification because placing a linguistic term does not match its ideal meaning, such practices have attracted consumer interest. Secondly, this movement emerges from the situational, institutional, and socio-cultural contexts. Furthermore, language commodification should not be viewed skeptically in theological discussions but as a spiritual marketing strategy to complement the limitations of services offered by conventional marketing.

REFERENCES

[1] Abdullah, Najwa, and Mohamed Nawab Mohamed Osman. (2018). “Islamisation in the Indonesian Media Spaces New Sites for A Conservative Push.” *Journal of Religious and Political Practice, 4*(3): 214–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/20566093.2018.1525894.

[2] Agai, B. (2007). “Islam and Education in Secular Turkey: State Policies and the Emergence of the Fethullah Gu¨len Group.” In *Schooling Islam: The Culture and Politics of Modern Muslim Education*, edited by R. Hefner and MQ. Zaman. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

[3] Alfonsius, Alfonsius, Genesis Sembiring Depari, and Jen Peng Huang. (2021). “Marketing Mix and Repurchase Intention of Cafe Industry During Covid-19: A Statistical and Data Mining Analysis.” *Jurnal Minds: Manajemen Ide Dan Inspirasi, 8*(2): 209. https://doi.org/10.24252/minds.v8i2.22171.

[4] Al-Ḥanafī, Muḥammad b. ‘Alī Ibn al-Qāḍī. (1966). *Mausū‘a Kasysyāf Iṣtilaḥāt Al-Funūn Wa Al-‘Ulūm* (Encyclopedia of Science and Arts), Beirut: Maktabah Lubnān Nāsyir.

[5] Al-Kwifi, O.S., A. Abu Farha, and ZU. Ahmed. (2019). “Dynamics of Muslim Consumers’ Behavior Toward Halal Products: Exploration Study Using FMRI Technology.” *International Journal of Emerging Markets, 14*(4): 689–708. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOEM-11-2017-0486.

[6] Alserhan, Baker Ahmad. (2010). “Islamic Branding: A Conceptualization of Related Terms.” *Journal of Brand Management, 18*(1): 34–49. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2010.18.

[7] Aman, Ameenullah. (2020). “Islamic Marketing Ethics for Islamic Financial Institutions.” *International Journal of Ethics and Systems, 36*(1): 12–43. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOES-12-2018-0182.

[8] Amir, Abdul Muiz. (2019). “The Identity of Piety in the Digital Age (Study of the Use of Religious Symbols in Social Media).” *Islamic Studies Journal for Social Transformation, Vol. 3*(1): 37–55.

[9] Ar-Rāzī, Fakhruddīn. (2000). *Mafātiḥ Al-Gaib* (Keys of the Unknown). Beirut: Dār Ihyā’ Al-Turaṡ Al-‘Arabī.

[10] Ashraf, Mohammad Ali. (2019). “Islamic Marketing and Consumer Behavior toward Halal Food Purchase in Bangladesh: An Analysis Using SEM.” *Journal of Islamic Marketing, 10*(3): 893–910. https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-03-2018-0051.

[11] Ayoob, Mohammed. (2004). “Political Islam: Image and Reality.” *World Policy Journal, 21*(3): 1–14.

[12] Bayat, Asef. (2005). “Islamism and Social Movement Theory.” *Third World Quarterly, 26*(6): 891–908. https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590500089240.

[13] Boubekeur, Amel. (2005). “Cool and Competitve Muslim Culture in the West.” *Isim Review, 16*(1): 12–13.

[14] Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1988). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[15] Bruinessen, Martin van. (2015). “Ghazwul Fikri or Arabization? Indonesian Muslim Responses to Globalization.” In *Southeast Asian Muslims in the Era of Globalization*, 61–85. London: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137436818_4.

[16] Byrne, Michelle. (2001). “Hermeneutics As A Methodology for Textual Analysis.” *Aorn Journal, 73*(5): 968-970.

[17] Chernatony, Leslie De, and Francesca Dall’Olmo Riley. (1998). “Defining A ‘Brand’: Beyond the Literature with Experts’ Interpretations.” *Journal of Marketing Management, 14*(5): 417–43.

[18] Daniels, Joseph P, and Marc Von Der Ruhr. (2010). “Trust in Others: Does Religion Matter?” *Review of Social Economy, 68*(2): 163–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/00346760902968447.

[19] Dijk, Teun A Van. (2011). “Discourse Studies and Hermeneutics.” *Discourse Studies, 13*(5): 609–21. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445611412762.

[20] Drewes, Gerardus Willebrordus Joannes. (1968). “New Light on the Coming of Islam to Indonesia?” *Bijdragen Tot de Taal-, Land-En Volkenkunde, 124*(4): 433–59.

[21] Edres, Nijmi. (2022). “Religion, Ideology, and Nation-Building in Jordanian Textbooks and Curricula for the Teaching of Arabic Language.” *Lingue Culture Mediazioni-Languages Cultures Mediation (LCM Journal), 8*(2): 81–100. https://doi.org/10.7358/lcm-2021-002-edre.

[22] Errington, Josef. (1999). “Language, Religion, and Identity in Indonesia.” *ISIM Newsletter, 3*(1): 16.

[23] Esposito, J.L. (1998). *Islam and Politics*. New York: Syracuse University Press.

[24] Fairclough, Norman. (1993). “Critical Discourse Analysis and the Marketization of Public Discourse: The Universities.” *Discourse & Society, 4*(2): 133–68. https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926593004002002.

[25] Fealy, Greg. (2008). “Consuming Islam: Commodified Religion and Aspirational Pietism in Contemporary Indonesia.” In *Expressing Islam: Religious Life and Politics in Indonesia*, edited by Greg Fealy and Sally White, 15–39. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies. https://doi.org/10.1355/9789812308528.

[26] Feramayasari, Kiki, and Pangesti Wiedarti. (2020). “A Critical Discourse Analysis on Shopee 12.12 Birthday Sale Advertisement.” *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics, 5*(1): 121–30.

[27] Gade, Anna, and R Michael Feener. (2004). “Muslim Thought and Practice in Contemporary Indonesia.” In *Islam in World Cultures: Comparative Perspectives*, edited by R Michael Feener, 183–215. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO Inc.

[28] Gal, Susan. (1989). “Language and Political Economy.” *Annual Review of Anthropology, 18*(1): 345–67. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.an.18.100189.002021.

[29] Ghoshal, Baladas. (2010). “Arabization: The Changing Face of Islam in Asia.” *India Quarterly, 66*(1): 69–89.

[30] Hachimi, Atiqa. (2013). “The Maghreb-Mashreq Language Ideology and the Politics of Identity in a Globalized Arab World1.” *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 17*(3): 269–96. https://doi.org/10.1111/josl.12037.

[31] Hasan, Noorhaidi. (2007). “The Salafi Movement in Indonesia: Transnational Dynamics and Local Development.” *Comparative Studies of South Asia, Africa and the Middle East, 27*(1): 83–94. https://doi.org/10.1215/1089201x-2006-045.

[32] Hasan, Noorhaidi. (2009). “The Making of Public Islam: Piety, Agency, and Commodification on the Landscape of the Indonesian Public Sphere.” *Contemporary Islam, Vol. 3*(3): 229–50. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11562-009-0096-9.

[33] Heller, Monica. (2003). “Globalization, the New Economy, and the Commodification of Language and Identity.” *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(4): 473–92. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.012809.104951.

[34] Irvine, Judith T. (1989). “When Talk Isn’t Cheap: Language and Political Economy.” *Am. Ethnol, 16*(2): 248–67.

https://doi.org/10.1525/ae.1989.16.2.02a00040.
[35] Jahroni, Jajang. (2015). *The Political Economy of Knowledge: Salafism in Post-Soeharto Urban Indonesia*. Boston: Boston University.
[36] Jaspal, Rusi, and Adrian Coyle. (2010). "'Arabic Is the Language of the Muslims-That's How It Was Supposed to Be': Exploring Language and Religious Identity through Reflective Accounts from Young British-Born South Asians." *Mental Health, Religion and Culture, 13*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/13674670903127205.
[37] Kaptein, Nico J G. (2017). "Arabic As A Language of Islam Nusantara: The Need For An Arabic Literature of Indonesia." *Heritage of Nusantara: International Journal of Religious Literature and Heritage, 6*(2): 237–51.
[38] Karoui, Sedki, and Romdhane Khemakhem. (2019). "Factors Affecting the Islamic Purchasing Behavior – A Qualitative Study." *Journal of Islamic Marketing, 10*(4): 1104–27. https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-12-2017-0145.
[39] Kuipers, Joel C, and Askuri. (2017). "Islamization and Identity in Indonesia: The Case of Arabic Names in Java." *Indonesia, 1*(103): 25–49. https://doi.org/10.5728/indonesia.103.0025.
[40] Levy, Shalom, Yaniv Gvili, and Hayiel Hino. (2021). "Engagement of Ethnic-Minority Consumers with Electronic Word of Mouth (Ewom) on Social Media: The Pivotal Role of Intercultural Factors." *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research, 16*(7). https://doi.org/10.3390/jtaer16070144.
[41] Lytra, V. (2013). "From Kebapçı to Professional: The Commodification of Language Discourse and Social Mobility in Turkish Complementary Schools in the UK." In *Language, Migration and Social Inequalities: A Critical Sociolinguistic Perspective on Institutions and Work*, edited by A. Duchene, M. Moyer, and C. Roberts, 147–70. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783091010.
[42] Maulana, M Firman. (2018). "Islamization Versus Deislamization of Language a Case of Indonesian Vocabularies." In *AICLL: The 1st Annual International Conference on Language and Literature*, 473–83. KnE Social Sciences. https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v3i4.1957.
[43] Melucci, A. (1996). *Challenging Codes: Collective Action in the Information Age*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[44] Mosco, Vincent. (1996). *The Political Economy of Communication: Rethinking and Renewal*. Vol. 141. London: SAGE Publications.
[45] Muhammad, Marjan, Muhd Rosydi Muhammad, Mohd Adam Suhaimi, Husnayati Hussin, Mohamed Jalaldeen Mohamed Razi, and Kalthom Abdullah. (2013). "Building Trust in E-Commerce from an Islamic Perspective: A Literature Review." *American Academic & Scholarly Research Journal, 5*(5): 161–68.
[46] Nawas, Kamaluddin Abu, Abdul Rasyid Masri, and Alim Syariati. (2022). "Indonesian Islamic Students' Fear of Demographic Changes: The Nexus of Arabic Education, Religiosity, and Political Preferences." *Religions, 13*(4): 320. https://doi.org/10.3390/rel13040320.
[47] Nurhajati, Lestari, and Adam James Fenton. (2020). "Islamist Newspeak: The Use of Arabic Terms as a Form of Cultural Hegemony in Political Communication by Muslim Fundamentalist Groups in Indonesia." *Journal of Indonesian Islam, 14*(2): 287–308. https://doi.org/10.15642/JIIS.2020.14.2.287-308.
[48] Pereira, Christophe. (2017). "Waves of Arabization and the Vernaculars of North Africa: An Annotated Bibliography." In *The Routledge Handbook of Arabic Linguistics*, edited by Elabbas Benmamoun and Reem Bassiouney, 488–503. London: Routledge.
[49] Pink, Sarah, Heather Horst, John Postill, Larissa Hjorth, Tania Lewis, and Jo Tacchi. (2016). *Digital Ethnography: Principles and Practice*. London: Sage Publications.
[50] Pujolar, Joan. (2018). "Post-Nationalism and Language Commodification." In *The Oxford Handbook of Language Policy and Planning*, edited by James W. Tollefson and Miguel Pérez-Milans, 1–21. Oxford: Oxford Handbooks Online: Scholary Research Review. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780190458898.013.25.
[51] Purwaningwulan, Melly Maulin, Asep Suryana, Uud Wahyudin, and Susanne Dida. (2019). "Creative Innovation Online Relationship Marketing Islamic Fashion E-Commerce in Indonesia." *Library Philosophy and Practice, 2579*(1): 1–17.
[52] Qian, Jianwei, and Rob Law. (2021). "Examination of Website Language Strategies Adopted by Five-Star Hotels in China: A Corpus Approach." *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research, 16*(4). https://doi.org/10.3390/jtaer16040060.
[53] Rahman, Taufiqur. (2017). "Contextualizing Jihad and Mainstream Muslim Identity in Indonesia: The Case of Republika Online." *Asian Journal of Communication, 27*(4): 378–95. https://doi.org/10.1080/01292986.2016.1278251.
[54] Sanusi, Anwar, and Azkia Muharom Albantani. (2021). "Teaching Arabic Language Base on Character Building Through Qur'an Perspective." *Ijaz Arabi Journal of Arabic Learning, 4*(1): 44–58. https://doi.org/10.18860/ijazarabi.v4i1.9951.
[55] Shirazi, Faegheh. (2016). *Brand Islam: The Marketing and Commodification of Piety*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
[56] Solimando, Cristina. (2022). "Language Tests in the Arabic-Speaking World: Between Ideology and Language Policy." *Lingue Culture Mediazioni-Languages Cultures Mediation (LCM Journal), 8*(2): 13–31. https://doi.org/10.7358/lcm-2021-002-soli.
[57] Suleiman, Yasir. (2013). "Nationalism and the Arabic Language: A Historical Overview." In *Arabic Sociolinguistics*, 19–40. Routledge.
[58] Tabaku, Elvira, and Mirela Zerellari. (2015). "Brand Loyalty and Loyalty Programs; A Literature Review." *Romanian Economic and Business Review, 10*(2): 71–87.
[59] The Qur'ān Project. (2010). *The Qur'an With Surah Introductions and Appendices: Saheeh International Translation*. Edited by A.B. Al-Mehri. Birmingham: Maktabah Bookseller Publishers.
[60] Umar, Aḥmad Mukhtār 'Abd al-Ḥamīd. (2008). *Mu'jam Al-Lugah Al-'Arabiyyah Al-Mu'Aṣarah* (Contemporary Arabic Language Dictionary). Cairo: 'Ālam al-Kutub.
[61] Umar, Aḥmad Mukhtār. (2008). *Mu'jam Aṣ-Ṣawāb Al-Lugawī Dalīl Al-Muśaqqaf Al-'Arabī* (Dictionary of Correct Arabic Meanings and Usage). Cairo: 'Ālam al-Kutub.
[62] Wahid, Din. (2012). "Challenging Religious Authority: The Emergence of Salafi Ustadhs in Indonesia." *Journal of Indonesian Islam, 6*(2): 245–64. https://doi.org/10.15642/JIIS.2012.6.2.245-264.
[63] Wandira, Ayu, and Taifikur Rahman. (2021). "Islamic Branding, Viral Marketing, Online Consumer Review, and Purchasing

Decision: The Mediating Role of Purchase Intention.” In *Annual International Conference on Islamic Economics and Business (AICIEB)*, *1*:323–37.
[64] Wiktorowicz, Quintan. (2007). “Islamic Activism and Social Movement Theory: A New Direction for Research.” *Mediterranean Politics, 7*(3): 187–211. https://doi.org/10.1080/13629390207030012.
[65] Woodward, M. R. (1993). “Textual Exegesis as Social Commentary: Religious, Social, and Political Meanings of Indonesian Translations of Arabic Hadith Texts 565-583.” *The Journal of Asian Studies, Vol. 52*, (3): 565–83. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2307/2058854.
[66] Woolard, Kathryn A. (2020). “Language Ideology.” *The International Encyclopedia of Linguistic Anthropology*, 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118786093.iela0217.
[67] Yahya, Yuangga Kurnia, Umi Mahmudah, and Siti Nikmatul Rochma. (2021). “Arabic Language as Representation of Muslim Identity in Indonesia.” *Lakhomi Journal Scientific Journal of Culture, 2*(2): 82–88. https://doi.org/10.33258/lakhomi.v2i2.473.
[68] Zaid, Bouziane, Jana Fedtke, Don Donghee Shin, Abdelmalek El Kadoussi, and Mohammed Ibahrine. (2022). “Digital Islam and Muslim Millennials: How Social Media Influencers Reimagine Religious Authority and Islamic Practices.” *Religions, 13*(4): 335. https://doi.org/10.3390/rel13040335.
[69] Zainul, Norazlina, Fauziah Osman, and Siti Hartini Mazlan. (2004). “E-Commerce From An Islamic Perspective.” *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications, 3*(3): 280–93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.elerap.2004.01.002.

Kamaluddin Abu Nawas is a Ph.D. holder in the Arabic literature study. He obtains the title from Universitas Islam Negeri Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, Indonesia. Prior to his last education in 2002, he focuses her specific interest in the literary study of Arabic language.

He currently serves as the Vice Rector in the Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Indonesia from 2019-2023. His role includes the examination of potential collaboration in the universities to secure internal university excellence. Dr. Nawas serves as a member of the external assessor for university excellence in Indonesia.

Abdul Muiz Amir is a Ph.D. holder in the Quranic Translation Studies. He accomplishes his education from Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Kalijaga Yogyakarta, Indonesia in 2021.

Prior returning to his home university, he embraces the research interests in the issue of humanity in the Islamic society. He wrote several journals in the reputable journals with the topics of Quranic interpretation in the Muslim society in Indonesia. He is also now the Regional Board of *Ulama* (Islamic Scholar) in the South-East Sulawesi. He actively spreads his thoughts in the community and scholarly contexts.

Alim Syariati is a scholar in the Strategic Management. He conducted his doctorate degree in the University of Hasanuddin, Indonesia in 2017. His research interests focuses on the wide aspects of strategic management in the service industry, entrepreneurships, and behavioral economics.

Currently, he serves as the vice head of Management Department in Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Indonesia. His work can be traced back to several reputable publications. He also serves as the reviewers in the MDPI, and the Elsevier.

Fahmi Gunawan is a widely-recognized scholar in the Arabic Literature. He obtained his doctorate degree in the Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Kalijaga Yogyakarta, Indonesia in 2021. His work revolves around the literature study in the Quranic interpretation and past collection of Islamic civilization.

He, now, serves as the Board of Ulama (Islamic Scholars) in his hometown. His expertise in the community service as well as his work can be trace back to his scholar profiles.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1006-1015, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.22

The Effect of Employing Extensive Reading Texts on Enhancing the Writing Performance of Freshmen at the University of Jordan

Kelle T. Taha
Language Center/English, University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Mayada Z. Al Sukhon
English Dept., University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

***Abstract*—Reading and writing skills play essential roles in second language teaching and learning. The objective of the present study is to investigate the effect of extensive reading on the writing performance of freshmen students at the University of Jordan. In order to achieve the aim of the study, 16 students were chosen as a convenient sample from freshmen students. This group of students were exposed to extensive reading texts over the period of one and a half month. Data of the study were collected via a writing pretest and posttest. The pretest was conducted prior to the application of the treatment. A paired samples test was used as a statistical test. The findings of the study showed that there is an improvement in the writing performance of the group. This resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating that the extensive reading may have a significant positive effect on the writing performance of freshmen.**

***Index Terms*—extensive reading, writing performance, freshmen**

I. Introduction

University students are the expected future leaders of the nation and the hope that will uplift and reshape the community, and contribute to its development and prosperity. To this end, educators and policy makers are keen on investing in, progressing, and expanding these students' overall skills, experience, and confidence. One important requirement for students' success in different fields of knowledge and future careers is fluency in the English language (Dilshad et al., 2016). English plays a crucial role in globalization and might achieve the lingua franca status faster than is expected (Dewey, 2007). As an international language that is used globally and being the official language of many nations, it paves the way for communication with people from different nations (Crystal, 2003).

There are many reasons why Arab university students need to acquire an acceptable level of mastery of the English language. One reason is that they are required to do and are confronted with many writing assignments (Horning & Kraemer, 2013). Moreover, when planning to join a global workforce in the future, students need English as it is the means of business communication (Al-Issa & Dahan, 2011). Furthermore, as a lecturer whose work is closely related to students, the researcher points out that students of different disciplines of knowledge need English when they resort to online sources whose content is mostly produced in English. That being the case, there will be many benefits to students if educators look for methods and techniques to stimulate and increase students' motivation to learn English and enhance their linguistic competence and capabilities (Mermerlstein, 2015). However, mastering English requires a lot of hard work (Crystal, 2003). Be that as it may, learning the English language might constitute an impediment for many Arab learners of English (Thyab, 2016), which is why the researcher calls for more attention and recognition of this problem.

A significant aspect of English which constitutes a challenge for a large number of students is the written form of expression (Shukri, 2014). According to educational scientists, writing is the greatest human invention, which marks the beginning of civilization, and is considered as one of the manifestations of the advancement of peoples and nations (Gab-Allah, 2007).The researcher considers this as an indirect hint that a required minimal level of proficiency is needed. In addition, writing is complex and requires the use of different language techniques and a certain level of language proficiency to sort out thoughts for an intended objective. It is a process which involves organization of what is to be written, checking, then assessing the outcome and whether it accurately expresses the different ideas and thoughts (Qian & Li, 2014).

Owing to the fact that reading and writing are two interconnected and overlapping processes, where one depends on the other, if a given written form is not readable, then reading it becomes useless. It is a mental, visual, and dynamic process through which written symbols are interpreted into intelligible and comprehensible meanings (Atiyah, 2014). Developing the skill of reading enables the reader to understand, analyze, and conclude different meanings of words

(Gab-Allah, 2007), which indirectly reflects on their written performance. When a student reads their textbook or reads for research purposes, reading properly will indicate the level of their writing skill (Lowe & Zemliansky, 2002).

According to the researcher, many students do not realize that reading and writing complement and influence each other, and are highly interrelated. To highlight this point, Al-Dosari (2016) indicates that reading provides the reader with the basis needed for writing. Moreover, Krashen (1993), as seen in Al Omrani (2014), argues that learners develop a style of writing through reading. To address this issue, this research paper aims at shedding light on extensive English reading, and how developing the skill of reading will possibly have a positive impact on the enhancement and improvement of students' English writing skills in general, and additionally motivate students to become active readers who enjoy reading.

A. Statement of the Problem

Through writing, personal and social ties are strengthened and sustained as the written form of expression is a means of communication amongst individuals and groups; it is the product of linguistic and literary education which students resort to and utilize to communicate, agree, express thoughts, feelings, and needs (Zayed, 2009). Students depend on the skill of writing to perform their different assignments. At an undergraduate level of education, writing constitutes an integral part of students' work, the majority of which is presented in the written form of language (Horning & Kraemer, 2013). According to the researcher, ranging from research papers, written reports, and essay type questions in exams, manifesting students' written competence properly and accurately influences their overall assessment and evaluation. Nevertheless, students still regard writing as a challenging assignment which they dread and fear as it requires them to express their thoughts while being proficient and knowledgeable in the rules of writing including grammatical structures and spelling (Defazio et al., 2010), which are two areas that Arab students tend to be weak in especially due to their lack of knowledge of basic English although they study it at school (Ansari, 2012). In an attempt to overcome the defects freshmen have in their English writing, the present study relies on a reading method that requires students to use the techniques of extensive reading to improve their writing skill.

B. Objectives of the Study

The objective of the present study is:

To determine the effect of employing extensive reading English texts on improving the English writing performance and skills of freshmen students at the University of Jordan.

C. Questions of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of exposing freshmen (first-year) students at the University of Jordan to the method of extensive reading as a means to enhance the level of their written performance.

This study attempts to answer the following question:

Is there a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest of the group in the writing test that is attributed to using the method of extensive reading?

D. Study Hypothesis

This study attempts to test the following null hypothesis ($p \leq 0.01$):

There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest of the group on their writing test that is attributed to using extensive reading.

E. Significance of the Study

When students read a lot and on a regular basis, many linguistic aspects, including reading, vocabulary, grammar, and writing improve (Jacobs & Farrell, 2012). Since writing in a second language emerges as an obstacle to the majority of Arab learners of English (Shukri, 2014), teachers of language always resort to different techniques and strategies hoping that they will promote and raise the level of the language skills of their students (Mermelstein, 2015). The use of extensive reading to improve the level of written expression and writing skills of students is widely recommended in the educational literature regionally and internationally as demonstrated by Hawri (2007), Defazio et al. (2010), Shukri (2014), and Mermelstein (2015). Extensive reading plays a role in the foreign language acquisition and fluency, namely its impact on the skill of writing (Salehi et al., 2015). The present study investigates the impact of extensive reading on the writing performance of freshmen at the University of Jordan, an issue which was not addressed fully at Jordanian universities. According to the readings of the researcher, this is an attempt to determine whether or not freshmen's writing performance improves significantly when they are exposed to the extensive reading texts method. The present study expects the following:

- Students will be able to produce meaningful written paragraphs where they incorporate a thesis statement, relevant ideas (Salehi et al., 2015), correct choice of words and vocabulary items, grammatically correct sentence structure (Mermelstein, 2015), capital letters and proper use of punctuation marks.
- Educational researchers and language teachers might gain an accurate and deep understanding of extensive reading and how it might improve written skills of students over time.

• It may encourage additional relevant research, which may lead to the administration of extensive reading and its effects on writing skills in specific and language acquisition and fluency in general.

• Teachers might integrate extensive reading into their classroom routine especially in writing classes.

• The findings of this study may have a positive impact on students in terms of encouraging them to become active readers whose reading might improve their written form of expression.

F. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

This study is limited to freshmen students at the University of Jordan in the capital city of Amman. It is also limited to the period of implementation of the study which took place during the first semester of 2017.

The various limitations of this study which need to be considered when the results are interpreted and generalized include:

1) The sample size is rather small and unrepresentative of the society. The sample is convenient. The participants were EFL students in one of the researcher's classes. This is an issue which should be considered in the generalization of the results of the study.

2) Insufficient practice of extensive reading due to uncontrolled time constraints may have affected the results.

4) The validity of what to include in the teaching material and assessment measures was decided by the researcher and has not been fully examined, which may have affected the results.

Nevertheless, this pre-experimental study indicated some positive effects of reading on writing where slight improvements in the students' overall writing skills were detected.

G. Definition of Terms

This section provides theoretical and operational definitions of some of the terms and concepts used in this study.

Theoretical Definitions

1. Extensive Reading Method: Jacobs and Farrell (2012) define extensive reading as a method where many texts are read on a regular basis, and results in improving all language skills including speaking, listening, writing, vocabulary, and grammar.

2. Writing: "Writing is a complicated language skill which involves comprehensive application of language knowledge, techniques to choose and organize resources for a certain purpose, and active thinking" (Qian & Li, 2014, p. 138).

Operational Definitions

1. Extensive Reading Method: A method whereby students are required to read twenty reading texts during the teaching of writing to be measured by question and answer sessions.
2. Writing Performance: The level of the improvement perceived in the written paragraphs of the students to be measured via a writing posttest.
3. The traditional method of teaching writing: Direct instruction about grammar, punctuation marks, spelling, and a thesis statement used in writing, measured via a writing pretest.

II. Literature Review

A. Present Studies

According to (Muniandy et al., 2014), language is an essential component of all domains of life. It is needed to relay, transfer, and transmit thoughts and feelings. Partnerships, and alliances with peoples of different origins may not have been achieved without language. Therefore, language practitioners have to always search for methods and techniques that will help them create exiting atmosphere for their learners to be able, eventually, to convey to them a life-long important skill. Two main areas of language, reading and writing, are now considered as complementary and dependent upon each other (Rababeh & Jamous, 2012). Reading is considered as an essential part of the social and working lives of individuals in terms of social and economic development (Qarqez & Rashid, 2017). As seen in Frankel et al. (2016), Anderson et al. (2016) came up with a definition of reading and suggested five principles for its validation. These principles considered reading as strategic, constructive, fluent, and a constantly developing process which should be driven by motivation. Writing, on the other hand, is perceived as one of the most sophisticated activities performed by human beings as it requires experience in order to be able to design a mental idea along with its representation (Joszef, 2001). It is a means for human communication. Through writing, all sciences are being recorded and maintained, and humans' thoughts, meanings, and forms are being conveyed and translated into written symbols in order to communicate and interact successfully with others (Rababeh& Jamous, 2012). As a skill, writing is complicated. It involves extensive linguistic knowledge, and a logical approach to set up resources for a specific purpose. It is a time-consuming skill which requires a lot of effort (Qian & Li, 2014).

According to the researcher, to be a successful university student, students have to be equipped with skills. One skill which is essential for students to pursue their academic life is language proficiency. Being proficient in reading and writing, which are two interrelated language skills where similar cognitive processes come into play, is important (Al Qouran & Smadi, 2016).

It must be stated, however, that learning English as a foreign language is a challenging task since students are not part of an English-rich environment (Azad, 2017).

Some of the challenges students face when learning English include vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and spelling (Dilshad et al., 2016). In this study, the researcher suggests the implementation of the extensive reading method, which may help in advancing and improving two important language skills required when learning English. Extensive reading develops and enhances comprehension and vocabulary (Rao & Babu, 2016). As a strategy, extensive reading has become very common over the past decades. Extensive reading associations, journals, and world congresses have been established to explicitly unveil the positive impact of extensive reading on all language aspects in general including grammar, vocabulary, and writing (Chang & Renandya, 2017). In order to achieve this goal, students are required to read large quantities of texts as part of their reading comprehension exercise, which will improve their fluency, vocabulary knowledge, and all English language skills in general including spelling, grammar, and writing since reading comprehension has proved to be crucial in the acquisition of a foreign language (Davoud et al., 2016). Due to extensive reading significance and constructive consequences on linguistic abilities and capabilities, the present study illustrates the importance of extensive reading and calls for its implementation as part of the English language curriculum as well as training language instructors on applying and utilizing extensive reading in their classroom education. The study also suggests conducting further research in the field of extensive reading. As (Davoudi et al., 2016) stated, extensive reading helps in overcoming language problems, expands vocabulary knowledge, develops the style of writing, and resolves errors in spelling.

B. Previous Studies

To be a good and proficient writer, a student is expected to be a good reader as well (Khan et al., 2015). To highlight and underline the relationship between extensive reading and improved levels of written expression in the English language, and to determine whether extensive reading as a strategy is useful, several studies on the probable effect which extensive reading has on improving the English writing skills have been carried out. The researcher reviewed some of the studies which were most related to the topic of the present study.

Al Hawri (2007) conducted a study which looked into the impacts of an innovative reading program on improving the writing skills of secondary school students in Yemen. The total number of students was one hundred. Five lessons from the school book were used for the study. Regarding the tools, a pretest and a posttest in reading and writing were used. The findings concluded the reading program was efficient in developing the writing performance of students.

Kirin (2010) aimed at investigating the effects of extensive reading on students' writing ability in EFL class. The experiment was conducted on 34 second year non-English major undergraduates randomly selected from students who had registered for the 'Fundamental Reading' course at Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University in Thailand in the academic year 2007. Data was collected using a number of instruments. A comprehension test for reading ability, a reading log for recording details of reading, and a semi-structured interview script as a means of verification of the information recorded by the participants' reading engagement were used to measure the reading ability in addition to four writing prompts to measure the writing ability. However, the findings of the study showed that reading did not have any positive effects on the writing skills of students over the period of four months.

As for Khudair's (2010) study, which was conducted to examine the impacts of repeated and extensive reading on the writing and reading skills of seventh graders in Jordan, it demonstrated the effectiveness of the proposed program. The total number of students was eighty eight. A pretest and posttest reading exam, a pretest and posttest writing exam, note cards, and a camera for videotaping were the tools for the study.

Zainal and Husin (2011) aimed at investigating the effects of reading on the writing performance of students of the faculty of Engineering at the University of Technology, Malaysia. The total number of students was twenty. The tool used in this study was a pretest and a questionnaire and a posttest with a questionnaire. The findings of the study showed that reading had positive effects on the writing skills of students.

Rababeh and Abu Jamous (2012) aimed at investigating the effects of critical reading on enhancing the critical writing and reading of students of tenth graders in Jordan. The total number of students was a hundred and twenty four boys, and a hundred and eighteen girls. The findings of the study showed that there were positive effects on the writing skills of male students.

Salehi et al. (2015) aimed at exploring the impacts of extensive reading on the writing performance of Iranian EFL pre-university students over the period of six months. The total number of students was forty eight. The tools used in this study included a pretest and a posttest. The findings of the study showed that reading had positive effects on the writing performance of EFL students.

Mermelstein (2015) aimed at seeking out methods to improve the writing skills of EFL learners via an extensive reading design at a middle-ranked private university in Taipei, Taiwan. All non-English majors at this university had to participate in four years of EFL courses. The tools of the study were a writing pretest and posttest with criteria to evaluate content, organization, vocabulary, language use, mechanics, and fluency in the writings of students. The findings of the study demonstrated that enhancing extensive reading protocols would achieve positive effects on the written skills of students.

Al Dosari (2016) conducted a study concerning the effects of an integrated reading/writing approach on improving writing skills of EFL students in the English Department at King Khaled University in Abha, Saudi Arabia. The participants were all male junior students ranging between 20 to 22 years old in their second semester of the academic year 2011. The course ran for 16 weeks. The tools were a pretest and a posttest in reading and writing. The findings of the study demonstrated an improvement in students' writing.

Based on the previous studies, the researcher noticed that numerous studies which were previously conducted implemented extensive reading as a part of the curriculum in the Western countries, the Arab world, and some schools in Jordan to investigate its role in developing the students' writing skills. The majority of the reviewed studies demonstrated a strong relationship between reading and writing. The present study is similar to the reviewed studies in the general aim to investigate the effect of employing extensive reading texts on the writing performance of students. However, the effect of extensive reading on first year undergraduate students at the University of Jordan in particular has not achieved much attention. Therefore, this fact directed the researcher to focus the attention of the study on the effects extensive reading has on the writing performance of freshman or first- year undergraduate university students.

III. Methodology

A. Process

The present study's experiment is based on a one-group design. It took place in Amman, Jordan, at the University of Jordan. The University of Jordan requires all of its non-English majors to participate in an English language course about the basics of English if they do not pass its placement exam. In this course, students use a standardized curriculum and course book. The classes have students with different linguistic abilities; some students have basic linguistic skills with almost no communication abilities, other students have more advanced language skills. Different approaches including direct instruction, class demonstrations and pair/group work are used in class. In addition, reading comprehension, direct grammar, vocabulary, and writing instruction during the sessions are implemented.

To be more specific, the study took place during the first semester of the year 2017. The classes were scheduled in the form of two 50-minute back-to-back periods twice a week. The treatment lasted for a month and a half, during which students were required to read, comprehend, understand and analyze twenty different reading texts with related topics, ten of which were part of the university curriculum, and the other ten were chosen by the researcher. To make sure that students read the assigned reading texts, the researcher conducted general questions and answers sessions to test the students for content information of the reading texts. The treatment in the experiment was based on a study by Mermelstein (2014), where interacting with students was highly emphasized in the classroom. Pair as well as group work was used and required students to consult each other as well as cooperate with each other. The students' weekly activities included regular writing assignments.

To answer the question of the study, the researcher designed a treatment depending on two levels: the method of extensive reading, where a student reads a large quantity of texts on a regular basis (Jacobs & Farrell, 2012), and the traditional method. The group of students were introduced to the program and its intended objective, which was to develop their writing skills. The group was tested initially in a pretest prior to the introduction of the treatment to determine the level of their writing skills. The program was designed so that students would engage effectively in active reading so as to become good writers. To achieve this, reading and writing activities performed by the students constituted an ample part of the program. As for the material, it was selected on the basis of the students' level. The experiment aimed at improving the writing performance of students after reading a considerable number of texts as part of the extensive reading program. The group was subjected to another writing test as a posttest instantaneously after conducting the experiment. Instructions were to write a paragraph that was assessed. As seen in Mermelstein (2015), to evaluate the students' writing performance, the researcher adopted the criteria of Jacobs et al. (1981) including: content, organization, vocabulary, and language use. Another criteria adopted by the researcher was used by Salehi et al. (2015) including a thesis statement and relevance of ideas. Relevant ideas to the topic at hand, correct choice of words and vocabulary items, grammatically correct sentence structures, capital letters, and proper use of punctuation marks were part of the rubric created for the evaluation of the written paragraphs.

Each of the above-mentioned components was given a number of points. Each student received a certain grade based on adding up the total number of points designated for each component.

B. Participants

The population in this study was freshmen EFL learners at the University of Jordan in Amman in their first semester. Thirty students, including males and females, ranging between the age of 18 and 19 years old, of varying majors including engineering, pharmacy, architecture, and biology, were involved in the study. The participants can be defined as convenient samples, as they were chosen because the researcher was the instructor of the course. Since all the participants are freshmen, first year undergraduate students, all of them had previously studied EFL full-time for 8 years, and consequently can be regarded as homogeneous in terms of their level of English proficiency.

C. Experimental Materials

The reading materials provided for this study were twenty reading texts, ten of which were taken from the *Cambridge University Press Unlock1* book, and ten more related reading texts were prepared by the researcher.

D. Research Variables & Design

Variables**:**

There is one independent variable and one dependent variable in this study.

Independent variable: Extensive reading texts

Dependent variables: Writing performance.

Design**:**

The study will use a pre-experimental one group design where the same group of students will sit for a writing pretest and posttest.

The design of the experiment:

$\mathbf{O_1\ X\ O_1}$

E. Description of the Intervention

The intervention of this study is based on the intervention used in Mermelstein's (2014) study, where a significant increase in the reading levels of Taiwanese university ESL students was demonstrated as a result of using the method of extensive reading. The intervention of this study was an extensive reading activity performed by students in class two times per week. Students were given 15 to 20 minutes to finish the reading assignment. During the activity, students were not allowed to interact with their classmates as it is believed that reading is a learner-based activity. Upon completion of the reading assignments, the texts were read aloud, discussed, and explained in class to validate the understanding of students, and insure a minimum level of comprehension. Regarding the texts provided by the researcher, they were to be read by students on their own outside the classroom. To make sure the students read the assigned material on their own, the researcher subjected the students to related discussion and question-answer sessions in the classroom.

F. Data Collection

Two formal instruments were used to gather data. They served as pretest and posttest. The pretest was a paragraph writing assignment about the daily routine of students. This was conducted during the third week of the semester prior to exposing the students to extensive reading. As far as the posttest was concerned, the students were asked to write a paragraph on "The Most Famous Sport in Jordan". This assignment was given to students during week six.

G. Piloting the Study

Before the researcher administered the exam to the participants, the exam was conducted on a pilot sample. The results of the exam were statistically analyzed. The exam proved to be suitable for use as a tool for the experiment.

H. Validity of the Instrument

The instrument, a writing exam and its rubric, which the researcher used in this study, was validated by the following categories of specialists:

• Three university specialists of all ranks (assistants, associates and professors.)

All agreed that the rubric of the writing exam contained the necessary assessment criteria needed to collect the relevant data.

I. Reliability of the Instrument

To ensure that the instrument is reliable, 16 EFL students outside of the above sample of the study were given the exam to achieve consistency of the instrument in researching the area under investigation. Using Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient, the reliability was .838, which is high and so fits the purpose of this study. Table 1 shows the reliability of the instrument.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.838	2

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The paired samples test was used in the analysis of the findings of this study which relied on a one group pre-experimental design. The mean scores and their associated standard deviations for the performance of students in the writing exam were calculated.

TABLE 2
SHOWS THE RESULTS OF THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest - Posttest	-7.50000	6.83130	1.70783	-11.14014	-3.85986	-4.392	15	.001

V. DISCUSSION

The primary aim of the present study was to examine the effect of extensive reading methods on the writing performance of freshmen students of different educational majors at the University of Jordan. Data was collected by conducting two writing tests, pretest and posttest. This section represents the findings of the study, the discussion of the findings, and the recommendations.

The question of the study examines the effect of extensive reading on freshmen's writing performance at the University of Jordan. The researcher hypothesized that the writing performance of the students who were treated through the extensive reading method would not improve. The hypothesis of the study was tested at the 0.05 level of significance and it was rejected. The data were collected via a one group pre-experimental pretest-treatment-posttest design. SPSS was used for analysis. A paired samples test was carried out to determine improvement in the writing achievement of participants. Table 3 represents the results.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF THE T-TEST OF THE MEANS OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE GROUP ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest	66.2500	16	9.57427	2.39357
	Posttest	73.7500	16	8.06226	2.01556

Table 4 shows that the difference between the achievement of the group on the pretest and posttest is statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Thus, as there is a statistically significant difference between the group's achievement in the pretest and posttest, it is assumed that there is improvement in the writing performance due to the use of extensive reading.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE GROUP ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pretest & Posttest	16	.713	.002

The achievement of the group, measured by the difference between the pretest and the posttest, improved. The findings of this part of the study are consistent with studies conducted by Hawri (2007), Khudair (2010), Zainal and Husin (2011), Rababeh and Jamous (2012), Salehi et al. (2015), Mermelstein (2015), and Al Dosari (2016).

All of the above-mentioned studies showed that using extensive reading improves and enhances the writing skills of students. The researcher makes evident that the improvement in the writing performance of the students was assigned to using the extensive reading method during the teaching of writing. The participants' writing performance improved slightly over the period of one and a half months. Thus, the researcher concluded that the improvement in the writing level of students may be ascribed to the use of extensive reading. Extensive reading as a method used to enhance the writing skills of students has a number of effects. It might encourage students to become active readers with a passion towards reading. This, in turn, might have emerged as a better achievement in writing. Moreover, reading requires focus on content, deep understanding of vocabulary items and attention to the correct order of ideas. These aspects, if applied to and reflected in a writing assignment, might play a role in promoting the writing performance in general. Furthermore, being exposed to many texts in different fields provided the students with an inventory of new lexical items, and a new collection of ideas and thoughts, which they might use in their writings. According to the researcher, the results of this study indicate that reading and writing are two interrelated skills where writing is influenced positively and enhanced through reading. The input used in a writing activity constitutes the outcome of a reading activity (Salehi et al., 2015). This supports that of Mermelstein (2015) whose study demonstrated that enhancing extensive reading protocols would achieve positive effects on the written skills of students. Salehi et al. (2015) also suggested that extensive reading as a method might have positive effects on the writing performance of EFL students. As for Al Dosari (2016), his study indicated an improvement in students' writing ascribed to the use of extensive reading.

In light of the findings of the present study, the researcher concludes that using extensive reading is motivating, beneficial, and an innovative method of teaching, which has positive and considerable effects on writing in specific and language proficiency in general. As a result, the researcher calls for and recommends the following:

1. Implementation of the extensive reading method in the teaching of writing.
2. Encouraging researchers to conduct similar studies on the relationship which exists amongst different language skills, namely the effect of these skills on writing.

APPENDIX A

Names of referees for the instruments of the study:

Name	Specialization and place of work
Dr. Yousef Awad	English Department, University of Jordan, Amman.
Dr. Zaydoon Al Sharaa	English Department, University of Jordan, Amman.
Dr. Raya Kalaldeh	English Department, University of Jordan, Amman.

APPENDIX B

The instruments used in the study were a pretest writing exam and a posttest writing exam.

The rubric used in the pretest and posttest:

Criteria	Exceeds Expectations	Meets Expectations	Needs Improvement	Inadequate
Organization 4 points	Logically organized 4	Organized with some ambiguities 2	Some level of organization with ambiguities/ irrelevances 1	No apparent organization 0
Relevant ideas 4 points	Ideas are clear and easily followed - with details 4	Ideas not easily followed – with some details 3	Difficult to follow 1	Very difficult to follow – no details 0
Vocabulary 4 points	Sophisticated and correct vocabulary items 4	Appropriate choice of vocabulary items 3	Acceptable choice of vocabulary items 2	Improper use of vocabulary items 0
Grammar & language use 3 points	Complete sentences with subject verb agreement 3	Complete sentences without subject verb agreement 2	Incomplete sentences without subject verb agreement 1	Fragments and no subject verb agreement 0
Thesis statement 1 point	Thesis statement with central idea 1	Thesis statement not fully related 0.5	Slightly related thesis statement 0.5	No thesis statement 0
Punctuation & capital letters 2 points	Accurate punctuation and capital letter 2	Few punctuation and capital letters errors 1.5	Many punctuation and capital letters errors 1	No punctuation marks – No capital letters 0
Total grade: 20				

The pre-test was a paragraph writing assignment about the daily routine of students:

Name English – The Basics

As part of the study entitled "**The effect of Employing Extensive Reading Texts on Enhancing the Writing Performance of Freshmen at the University of Jordan",** you are required to write a paragraph of 150 to 200 words about your daily routine. You will be given 50 minutes to complete the task.

The posttest was a paragraph writing assignment about the most famous sport in Jordan.

Name English – The Basics

As part of the study entitled "**The effect of Employing Extensive Reading Texts on Enhancing the Writing Performance of Freshmen at the University of Jordan",** you are required to write a paragraph of 150 to 200 words about the most famous sport in Jordan. You will be given 50 minutes to complete the task.

REFERENCES

[1] Atiyah, M., (2014). *Istratijiyat Ma Wara Al Maa'rifa* (Beyond Knowledge Strategies). Amman: Dar Al Manahej, electronic copy.

[2] Al-Dosari, H. (2016). Effects of an Integrated Reading/Writing Approach on Improving Writing Skills of EFL Students**.** *Dirasat: Educational Sciences*, 43761-771.

[3] AlOmrani, A. H. (2014). Integrating Reading into Writing Instruction in the EFL Programs at Saudi Universities. *Arab World English Journal, 5*(3), 100-112.

[4] Alqouran, A. A., & Smadi, O. M. (2016). The Effect of Reading-Writing Integration on Jordanian Undergraduate Students' Writing Performance. *Arab World English Journal, 7*(2), 177-189.

[5] Ansari, A., A., (2012). Teaching of English to Ara Students: Problems and Remedies. *Educational Research, 3*(6), 519 – 524, electronic copy.

[6] Azad, M. H. (2017). Challenges faced by students in learning English in grades 11 and 12 in Bangladeshi Madrasahs. *Language In India*, *17*(6). 214-305.

[7] Chang, A. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2017). Current Practice of Extensive Reading in Asia: Teachers' Perceptions. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *17*(1), 40-58.

[8] Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language.* Second edition, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, electronic copy.

[9] Dahan, L. S., & Al-Issa, A. (2011). *Global English and Arabic: Issues of Language, Culture and Identity.* Oxford: Peter Lang AG.

[10] Davoudi, M., Zolfagharkhani, M., & Rezaei, M. (2016). The relationship between EFL learners' extensive reading and English language proficiency. *Theory and Practice In Language Studies*, *6*(3), 549-559.

[11] Defazio, J., Jones, J., Tennant, F., Hook, S. (2010). Academic Literacy: The importance and impact of writing across the curriculum – a case study. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *10*(2), 34 – 47, electronic copy.

[12] Dilshad, M., Ahmad, M., Tanvir, N., & Shabbir, F. (2016). Students' Difficulties in Learning English at Primary Level: A Teachers' Perspective**.** *Journal of Educational Research* (1027-9776), 19(1), 39-49.

[13] FRANKEL, K. K., BECKER, B. C., ROWE, M. W., & PEARSON, P. D. (2016). From "What is Reading?" to What is Literacy? *Journal of Education*, *196*(3), 7-17.

[14] Gab-Allah, A. S. (2007). *Teaching and learning English in East Asian Universities: Global Visions and Local Practices.* Egypt: Itrak for publishing and distribution, electronic copy.

[15] Horning, A. S., Kraemer, E. W., & WAC Clearinghouse, . (Firm). (2013). *Reconnecting Reading and Writing.* Anderson, S.C.: Parlor Press and the WAC Clearinghouse. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 17*(3) (2007), pp. 332-353.

[16] Hawri, M., (2007). *Athar Barnamej Al Kiraa Al Ibtikariya ala Tanmiyat baad Maharat al Kitaba lada Tullab al Marhalla al Thanawiya bil Jomhouriya al Yamaniya* (Effect of Creative Reading on Developing some Writing Skills of Secondary Students in Yemen). Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, Ein Shams University, Egypt, electronic copy.

[17] Jacobs, G. M., & Farrell, T. C. (2012). *Teachers Sourcebook for Extensive Reading*. Charlotte, N.C.: Information Age Publishing.

[18] Jozef, H. (2001). *Advanced Writing in English as a Foreign Language*. Pécs: Agora Nyomda, e-book.

[19] Khudair, R., (2010). *The Effect of Repeated and Extensive Reading Methods in the Performance of 7th Basic Grade Students of the Oral Reading and Expressive Writing Fluency Skills*. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, Yarmouk University, Jordan, electronic copy.

[20] Khan, I. U., Karim, D. A., Saif, N., Khattak, B. K., & Qureshi, Q. A. (2015). Strategies For Improving English Language Writing Skill (The Case of District Bannu). *Gomal University Journal of Research*, *31*(1), 65-77.
[21] Kirin, W. (2010). Effects of Extensive Reading on Students’ Writing Ability in an EFL Class. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *7*(1), 285 – 308.
[22] Lowe, C., & Zemliansky, P. (2002). *Writing Spaces I: Readings on Writing.* Indiana: Parlor Press, electronic copy.
[23] M. Dewey. (2007). *English as a lingua franca and globalization: an interconnected perspective*.
[24] Mermelstein, A. D. (2014). Improving EFL Learners' Reading Levels through Extensive Reading. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *14*(2), 227-242.
[25] Mermelstein, A. D. (2015). Improving EFL learners' writing through enhanced extensive reading. *Reading In a Foreign Language*, *27*(2), 182-198.
[26] Muniandy, J., Choo, L. B., Hiang, T. C., Pandian, A., Ching Ling, C. L., & Ai Lin, D. T. (2014). *Language Teaching and Learning: New Dimensions and Interventions*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
[27] Ostrowska, S., (2014). *Unlock: Reading and Writing skills.* United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
[28] Qarqez, M., & Ab Rashid, R. (2017). Reading Comprehension Difficulties among EFL Learners: The Case of First and Second Year Students at Yarmouk University in Jordan. *Arab World English Journal*, *8*(3), 421-431. doi:10.24093/awej/vol8no3.27
[29] Qian, D. D., & Li, L. (2014). *Developing language skills and their educational measures*. UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, e-book.
[30] Rao, C. S., & Babu, K. S. (2016). Importance of extensive reading in language learning. Language in India,16 (2). 251-260.
[31] Rababeh, I., Abu Jamous, A. (2012). Effects of a Critical Reading Instructional Program in the Development of Critical Reading, Critical and Creative Writing Skill of Jordanian Tenth Basic Grade Students. *An- Najjah University Journal for Research*, *26*(5), 1027 – 1058.
[32] Salehi, H., Asgari, M., Amini, M. (2015). Impacts of the Extensive Reading Texts on the Writing Performance of Iranian EFL Pre- University Students. *Asian Journal of Education and E-Learning*, *3*(4), 2321 – 2454, electronic copy.
[33] Shukri, N. A. (2014). Second Language Writing and Culture: Issues and Challenges from the Saudi Learners' Perspective. *Arab World English Journal*, 5(3), 190-207.
[34] Thyab, R. A. (2016). Mother-Tongue Interference in the Acquisition of English Articles by L1 Arabic Students. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(3), 1-4.
[35] Zainal, Z., & Husin, S. H. (2011). A study on the effects of reading on writing performance among Faculty of Civil Engineering students. *Journal of Science & Mathematics Education*, 1-8, electronic copy.
[36] Zayed, F. (2009). *Al-kita ̄bah /: Funu ̄nuha ̄wa-afna ̄nuha.* Yafa Publishing, e-book.

Kelle Taha is an assistant professor with 30 years of teaching experience. She has Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees in international education from American universities and her PhD in Curriculum and Instruction from the University of Jordan. Her research interests are in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, education, and comparative language studies. She has been teaching English courses to undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Jordan for 21 years.

Mayada Al Sukhon has been a lecturer in the English Department for the past 16 years. She worked as a full time lecturer at Prince Sultan University in Riyadh. She has been working as a part time lecturer at the University of Jordan since 2013. She has a BA in English Language and Literature from the University of Jordan, a MA in Translation from the University of Jordan, and a PhD in Curriculum and Instruction from the University of Jordan.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1016-1022, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.23

The Toponymy of Village Names in Gorontalo, Indonesia

Mohamad Karmin Baruadi
Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters and Culture, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Gorontalo, Indonesia

Sunarty Suly Eraku
Department of Earth Science and Technology, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Gorontalo, Indonesia

Novriyanto Napu
Department of English Education, Faculty of Letters and Culture, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Gorontalo, Indonesia

Hendra
Department of Earth Science and Technology, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Gorontalo, Indonesia

***Abstract*—Geographically, Bone Bolango Regency is divided into 18 districts administration areas consisting of 5 sub-districts and 160 villages. Without a doubt, a significant number of regions resulting from the division are currently unaware of the origin of the naming of regions and boundaries. Therefore, it is necessary to study the existence of these places in terms of the aspect of naming the region (toponymy) and the area where the division of the region occurs. Tapa District is one of the districts in Bone Bolango Regency. This qualitative research combines two approaches, namely anthropolinguistic and geographic approaches. The purpose of this study is to identify the toponymy of the village based on (1) embodiment aspects (water, topographical, and natural environment backgrounds), (2) social aspects, and (3) cultural aspects. Data collection techniques used in-depth interviews and literature studies with data sources obtained from village officials, community leaders, traditional leaders, and indigenous people who were born and live in Tapa. The data analysis used in this research is descriptive. Based on the study results, the aspects underlying the toponymy of the village in the Tapa sub-district are a phenomenon, social, and cultural aspects. The toponymy of the village in the Tapa sub-district, which is influenced by natural physical geography factors (phenomenon aspects), is in the naming of Miranti village, Talulobutu village, and South Talulobutu village. Meanwhile, the social aspect is found in naming the village of Talumopatu. Furthermore, the cultural aspect in the form of folklore is found in the naming of Kramat Village, Dunggala Village, and Langge Village.**

***Index Terms*—cultural, social, phenomenon, toponymy, villages**

I. Introduction

Toponymy studies (place-name) are included in anthropo-linguistic studies, an interdisciplinary field of science that studies the relationship between language and the intricacies of human life or culture (Duranti, 2001). So, a place-name and the people’s culture cannot be separated from each other (Sibarani, 2015). According to Sibarani (2004), anthropological linguistics, cultural linguistics, and ethnolinguistics terms are also used. Toponymy is a branch of linguistics derived from several names. The branch of linguistics that deals with names is onomastics or onomatology. Onomastics is under the umbrella of Historical Linguistics which examines self-names known as anthroponyms and place names known as toponyms (Kridalaksana, 2010). Toponymy is a part of exploration that focuses on topographic names, the beginning of place names, and the structure and meaning of human names, primarily individual and point names (Lauder, 2009).

Geographical names often referred to as place names or toponyms, are used more often than other terms (Gammeltoft, 2016). The toponym of a country, region, city, or geographical territorial boundary is a unified design for each component of space (Alasli, 2019). According to Lauder, a corpus-based study of toponymy is an empirical method for examining the image of a place according to the news agenda, based on the frequency of its occurrence and how the place is represented (Lauder, 2018). The term geographical name in Indonesia is also often called topographical name (Nfn et al., 2019). This naming is based on the point of view of origin, meaning, conditions around the components of the region, the design attributes of the area, the evolution of language, and the way they live (Alasli, 2019). Thus, toponymy is an investigation of place names, including their importance, the beginning, and the typology. Toponyms can allude to place-naming demonstrations or can very well be characterized as part of a naming hypothesis. Inconsistent naming is because it is framed or chosen based on the wishes of the local area, and the general arrangement is uncertain because local customs request it. There are three aspects of naming locations or toponyms: (1) phenomenon aspects, (2) society aspects, and (3) cultural aspects. These three aspects significantly impact how people name places in their lives (Sudaryat, 2009).

Culture and language are united because language is part of a culture. A naming (toponym) related to language will always be influenced by the culture of the people in an area and where the name is taken. Toponymy is also a form of human culture (Camalia, 2015). Saerheim (2014), in his research in Norway, concluded that the naming of places was adapted to local cultural traditions. Naming is based on oral traditions from folklore myths passed down from generation to generation by their ancestors. The oral tradition has existed for centuries. The witnesses and the cultural heritage of the past become one of the keys to tracing the nature of the toponym of an area. As it is known that name is a word used to refer to or call the names of people, places, goods, animals, and so on that exist in this hemisphere. The character of every creature, object, activity, and event in this world produces names that appear due to complex and diverse human life.

Toponyms are closely related to geographical and physical conditions, the people who inhabit them, and the culture that evolves in the area. Toponyms can be contributors in physical science and other sciences (Vuolteenaho, 2017). The name of a site has an expansive meaning, not only physically, such as its geographical conditions, but also includes origins, social conditions, and socially owned culture. It is a manifestation of the symbol of naming and the behavior of a particular society. The meaning of the name is comprehensive, not only physically such as the condition of its geographical location but also includes the origin, condition, and socio-culture, as well as the religion of the community, the values contained in the socially-owned cultural system will appear in the form of symbols naming and behavior of a community (Kosasih, 2010). The existing signs tend to be helpful to be made or understood by the native based on concepts that have meaning within a certain period. Ruspandi and Mulyadi (2014) outline the background of toponymy from physical aspects, social aspects, and cultural aspects. Physical aspects include a) biological elements, b) hydrological elements, and c) geomorphological elements. Social aspects include: a) specific places, b) past activities, c) expectations, d) names of historical buildings, and e) names of figures. The cultural aspect is legend/folklore.

Place-names or toponyms are based on several aspects (Sudaryat, 2009), including 1} phenomenon aspects, 2} social aspects, and 3} cultural aspects. There are three aspects of naming locations or toponyms: (1) phenomenon aspects, (2) society aspects, and (3) cultural aspects. The elements of the embodiment aspect are further divided into several parts, namely: 1} aquatic background (water form, earth form, flora and fauna, settlement patterns, and natural elements), and 2} earth background (geomorphological). The community aspect in naming a place is related to the social interaction of the community, which includes a position in society, a job, and a profession. Meanwhile, the cultural aspects are myths, folklore, and belief systems. The story is treated as a social fact using a folklore approach. Therefore, the things disclosed in it involve social aspects and are also related to the culture of the community (Baruadi, 2017). From the aspect of the natural environment related to human life itself. Humans and the environment have a very close relationship and need each other. It is evidenced by people naming their environment or residence based on the background of the natural environment, such as the background of the waters, the background of the land or the surface of the earth, and the background of the natural environment. While the social aspect in naming places is related to social interaction or as a place for social interaction, for example, matters relating to politics, economy, traditions, customs, a community, and community leaders who play an important or influential role in the area, and it is possible to collect information on alternative place names, their meanings, and history for a percentage of cases where the government and local residents have agreed upon the names, ranging from around 8% to 25%. It's important to ensure that the process of collecting this information is respectful and inclusive of all voices in the community (Perdana & Ostermann, 2018). Toponymy can assist in documentation and mobilize public interest to effectively communicate this knowledge to the general public or the younger generation (Ruspandi, 2014). This is the basis for consideration of the toponymy study of village names in the Tapa, Bone Bolango, and Gorontalo Province. Tapa district area includes seven villages: Talumopatu Village, Meranti Village, Dunggala Village, Langge Village, Kramat Village, Talulobutu Village, and South Talulobutu Village. The village map in the Tapa district is shown in Figure 1.

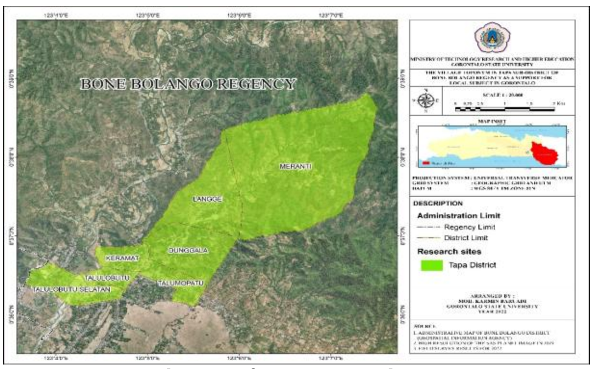


Figure 1 The Map of Tapa, Bone Bolango Regency

II. Method

This qualitative research combines two approaches, namely anthropolinguistic and geographic approaches. The purpose of this study is to identify the toponymy of the village based on (1) embodiment aspects (water background, topographical background, and natural environment background), (2) social aspects, and (3) cultural aspects. This study categorizes geographical names, origins of place names, forms, and meanings of self-names, especially names of people and places. Data collection techniques used in-depth interviews and literature studies with data sources obtained from village officials, community leaders, traditional leaders, and indigenous people who were born and live in Tapa. Ten people represent the number of informants in each village, so the total number of informants is 70 people. The data analysis used in this research is descriptive.

III. Results and Discussion

Tapa District is one of eighteen districts in Bone Bolango Regency and consists of 7 (seven) villages. Tapa District is divided into 7 (seven) villages, namely: Talulobutu Village with an area of 0.80 km^2 and a population of 1117 people, Talumopatu Village with an area of 1.39 km^2 and a population with an area of 1784 people, Dunggala Village with an area of 4, 01 km^2 and a population of 1357 people, Langge Village with an area of 7.80 km^2 and a population of 1027 people, South Talulobutu Village with an area of 0.75 km^2 and a population of 740 people, Kramat Village with an area of 0.85 km^2 and population of 1022 people, and Meranti Village with an area of 48.81 km^2 and a population of 554 inhabitants. The total area of Tapa District is 64.41 km^2. The largest village in Tapa District is Meranti, with a percentage of 75.78%, while the village with the smallest area is South Talulobutu village, with a percentage of 1.16%. North Bulango District borders Tapa District to the North, East Bulango District to the East, South Bulango District to the South, and North Bulango District to the West.

Geography is a science with its spatial identity; the substance of the study includes physical and non-physical aspects. The toponymy of villages in Tapa District in a geographical approach can be studied according to spatial patterns in terms of spatial expression. The background of toponymy related to geography is divided into two, namely physical and non-physical factors. Physical factors consist of typological aspects (related to location, area, shape, and territorial boundaries), non-biotic aspects (such as soil, water, and climate), and biotic aspects (such as humans, animals, and plants). Non-physical factors include social, economic, cultural, and political aspects. There are three classifications: 1) phenomenon aspects, 2) social aspects, and 3) cultural aspects. The naming of villages in Tapa District can be described in the following table:

TABLE 1
AFFECTING FACTORS ON VILLAGE TOPONYMY CHARACTERISTICS IN TAPA DISTRICT

No.	Geographical Factors	Elements	Villages Name	Toponymy Meaning
1.	Natural Physical Factors (phenomenon aspects)	Hydrological (river), morphological/physiographical (mountains, hills, valleys), land use, biodiversity (flora, fauna).	Meranti	Huge and Tall Trees
			Talulobutu	Water comes out of the ground
			South Talulobutu	Water comes out of the ground in the south
2.	Non-physical factors (social aspects)	Community expectations and goals.	Talumopatu	Fast and collaborative action
3.	Cultural non-physical factors (cultural aspects)	Anthroposphere (social, political, tradition).	Kramat	Something sacred
			Langge	Looking for a good place for housing
			Dunggala	Residence

A. *Natural Physical Factors (Phenomenon Aspects)*

(a). *Meranti Village*

Meranti Village has bounded by Owata Village of Bulango Ulu District to the North, Langge Village of Tapa District to the South, Lonuo Village of Tilongkabila District to the East, and Langge Village of Tapa District to the West. Based on an interview with Mrs. Novita Abdulah, a Meranti village official, she said that the meaning of the name "Meranti" is a big and tall tree. The name Meranti village is given because Meranti village is one of the villages whose territory is a backbone for the Bogani Nani Wartabone National Park, which is overgrown by various kinds of wood and plants. Meranti Village is a village resulting from division, so on giving the name, through a meeting with Taudaa Lo

Ulipu To Bone Bolango, the Regent of Bone Bolango named it "Meranti" village. The same thing was conveyed by Mrs. Sartin Abdulah and Mr. Oon Septanta Yahya, the native of Miranti village, saying that the meaning of Meranti village is a big and tall tree and is a village that supports Taman Nani Wartabone and many woody plants that grow there.

The results of interviews with informants indicate that the toponymy of Meranti village is an aspect of the phenomenon of the natural-environmental setting and is included in the flora element because the name "Meranti," which means the big and tall tree, is one of the villages overgrown with various kinds of wood and plants (flora elements).

(b). Talulobutu

Talulobutu Village is topographically located at an altitude of 95 M above sea level (DPL). Talulobutu Village has bounded by Kramat Village of Tapa District to the North, South Talulobutu Village of Tapa District to the South, Popodu Village of East Bulango District to the East, and Bandungan Village of North Bulango District to the West. Talulobutu village consists of 3 (three) dusun(s) (hamlets), namely: Dusun I Polanggua, Dusun II Toino, Dusun III Butaalya. The population of Talulobutu Village was 1209 by the time the study was conducted, consisting of 612 males population, 587 females population, and 390 families. Most of the residents of Talulobutu Village work in the agricultural sector. The area according to the use of paddy fields is 3.00 Ha, dry land 786 Ha, and plantation land 15.00 Ha.

Mr. Rahama Mansyur said that the name of Talulobutu Village in 1809 was “Bulango,” which the King led because it was a small kingdom. The Bulango Kingdom was located in the Talolobutu village area but was part of the Luwoo area, meaning a forest area that springs from the ground or tamboo. Bala, the region's guardian, led the kingdom of this village. The name Talulobutu Village came from the historical fragment above, which was agreed upon through Hulunga Lo-Lo Bala, or deliberation between the village guard and the community. The name of the village of Talulobutu is taken from the words “talu," which means in front or surface, and “lobutu" which means emitting or releasing something. So "Talu-Lo-Butu" implies something out of the ground that is water which is very meaningful for the needs of living things. One of the informants, Erna Haluti, from the village of Talulobutu, said that Talulobutu means something that comes out of the ground: water. Ms. Hasna Huntoyungo's explanation was the same as what was conveyed by the previous informant; something was coming out of the land: water. So it is called "Talulobutu" which is derived from the words “talu" which means in front or surface, and “lobutu" which means emitting or releasing something. The results of the respondent's interview show that the toponym of Talulobutu Village is included in the aspect of the phenomenon of the hydrological element, which is water that comes out of the ground.

(c). South Talulobutu

The South Talulobutu Village has bounded by Talulobutu Village to the North, South Bulango District to the South, East Bulango District to the East, and a village in Gorontalo Regency to the west. The population of South Talulobutu Village is 765 people, with 232 families consisting of 378 men and 387 women, with the majority of the population working in the agricultural sector, followed by the self-employed sector. South Talulobutu Village consists of 3 (three) Dusun(s) (village subdivision/hamlet). Those are Dusun I Molowahu, Dusun II Tunggulo, and Dusun III Upo.

The interview results show that the toponym of South Talulobutu village is included in the phenomenon aspect, because the name Talulobutu means something that comes out of the ground, which is water (hydrological element). According to Mr. Abdul Fatah, a village official, South Talulobutu is an expansion village from Talulobutu village. He said that South Talulobutu Village means something that comes out of the southern part of the land: water. Mr. Suleman Abjul, a native, said that South Talulobutu village was an expansion area of Talulobutu. Isi Adam, also a native, said that South Talulobutu Village was formerly Dusun I of Talulobutu village and later developed into a village.

B. Non-Physical Factors (Social Aspects)

(a). Talumopatu

Talumopatu Village has bounded by Dunggala Village of Tapa District to the North, Kramat Village and Talulobutu of Tapa District to the West, Popodu Village and Toluwaya Village of East Bulango District to the South, and West Bulotalangi Village of East Bulango District to the East. The Talumopatu Village is divided into four dusun(s): Dusun I Huidu, Dusun II Ayu Hulalo, Dusun III Lumbayaa, Dusun IV Binthalo Dulaa.

Talumopatu village was taken based on the actions of King Pulomoduyo. Ibu Yunita Antu, one of the informants, said that "Talumopatu" means to act quickly. The meaning of giving the name “Talumopatu” can be interpreted as follows, "Talu" from the word "Totalu" which means in front or in front of, "mopatu" means heat which means enthusiasm or act quickly or immediately. So "Talumopatu" means quick action in completing an activity when problems arise, carried out together in cooperation or huyula. Mrs. Purnaningsi Hamzati, a village official, said that Talumopatu Village is a village where the community acts quickly in completing an activity until it is completed and carried out together in cooperation or huyula. The same thing was conveyed by Mr. Yusuf Antu, the Head of Dusun III. He explained that the village of Talumopatu was taken based on the actions of King Pulumoduyo and the Islamic nuances of the people.

According to interviews with several informants consisting of religious leaders and traditional leaders, behind the name “talumopatu” are several meanings associated with customs, culture, and religion. The name “talumopatu" is associated with adat, “talu" means in front, "mopatu" which means heat implies the spirit to work, act quickly, and immediately to get the job done. So “talumopatu" can be interpreted as a quick action in completing a job (activity). Work that can be done today must be done today, not put off until tomorrow. When the work is in sight (to talu) let's do it together in cooperation (huyula). The name “talumopatu" is associated with culture. “talu" can also come from the word "taluhu," which means water. "Mopatu" means hot (warm). Based on this, “talumopatu” is interpreted as a fighting spirit that flows like hot water (passionately) based on honesty and clarity (honesty), selflessly working for the common interest in developing the country. The name “talumopatu" when associated with religious aspects, "talu" means obedient or obedient (tubo) to the leader (who is in front). "Mo" means extraordinary, and "Patu" means command. It means that "Talumopatu" means proof of obedience to the Almighty, who sent down orders through the Prophet Muhammad, whose behavior must be reflected in the leadership model of Ulil Amri (leader). Ulil Amri should act as the representative of God, the representative of the Prophet in carrying out religious law, being an example for the community to achieve happiness in life in this world and the hereafter. The interviews with all informants indicate that the toponymy of Talumopatu Village is a social aspect because the name Talumopatu Village means quick action. It was named “talumopatu" because the villagers there took immediate action in carrying out mutual assistance activities. The element of community social interaction (gotong royong) is also part of the social aspect.

C. Cultural Non-Physical Factors (Cultural Aspects)

(a). Kramat Village

Kramat Village is topographically located at an altitude of 95 M above sea level (DPL). Kramat Village is situated in the north of the Tapa District, which is ± 0.5 km from the district center, with village territorial boundaries as follows: to the north, it is bordered by Lomaya Village of North Bulango District, to the east by Talumopatu Village and Dunggala Village of Tapa District, to the south by the Kramat Village of Tapa District, to the west it is bordered by Bandungan Village of North Bulango District. Kramat Village village is divided into 3 (three) dusun(s), namely: Dusun I Deki, Dusun II Lipu, and Dusun III Hubulo. The population of Kramat Village is ± 1.215 people. Most of the land in Kramat Village is 50% dry land consisting of residential land of 50 Ha/ and plantation land of 30 Ha/M3. Kramat of Tapa District, Bone Bolango Regency, is the result of the division of Talulobutu Village. Before the division, Kramat Village was originally an area of Dusun III of Talulobutu Village, Tapa District. The Regent of Bone Bolango inaugurated Kramat Village on July 14, 2007.

According to Mr. Abdul Abas, one of the village officials, the name “kramat” means something sacred, and it was given the name “kramat” because the name “kramat” was quoted from one of the mountains considered a sacred place by the community. The site is sacred because long ago, the area was the center of the government of King Hubulo. King Hubulo was the eldest of the 5 (five) Kings who spread Islam in the Bulango kingdom. Because he struggled to spread Islam, she was given the title Aulia Sholihin. The name is taken from one of the hills considered sacred by the surrounding community, where a hill is a burial place for pious people of Gobel descent. In addition, the hill is the burial place of Aulia Sholihin King Hubulo. It is the burial place of righteous people of Gobel descent who adhere to monotheism, and until now, the site is believed by the community to be a place of pilgrimage. Mr. Herson Abdul Gani, the Head of Dusun I, said that Kramat Village means something sacred. Mr. Ahmad Hamid, who is a community member, said that Kramat Village means something sacred where in the village, there is a mountain that is used as a burial place for pious people who spread Islam.

The interview results with respondents show that the toponym of Kramat Village is part of the cultural aspect because the name “kramat” means something sacred. It was named Kramat Village because it is based on (wungguli) stories from the community (folklore elements) that on the hill in Kramat village is the burial place of Aulia Sholihin Raja Bolango. Giving village names is influenced by stories (folklore) and people's habits so that they become part of the cultural aspect.

(b). Langge Village

Langge Village is topographically located at an altitude of 100 M above sea level (DPL). Langge Village has bounded by Meranti Village of Tapa District to the North, Dunggala Village of Tapa District to the South, Bulotalangi of East Bulango District to the East, and Lomaya Village of North Bulango District to the West. The population is 1026 people consisting of 327 families, with most of the population working as farmers. Langge Village is divided into 3 (three) Dusun(s), namely Dusun I Alumbango, Dusun II Toliango, and Dusun III Yinengo. The area according to the use of dry land is 403,680 Ha, plantation land 3,552 Ha, public facilities land 92 Ha, and forest land 990.75 Ha.

Based on an in-depth interview with Mrs. Susanti Jahja, a village official, she said that in 1673, Suwawa was ruled by a vicious king in the past. The people of Suwawa felt pressured and became hateful toward the King, so they left the Suwawa area, which the King led. They crossed Wongkaditi, Dulomo and continued their journey to Bulango. After arriving at Bulango, they found that Bulango was also a territory ruled by a king, even though they moved because they hated the King in their former region. So they discussed their situations and thought about their fate. When they rest for a while and think about where to go, they look up or, in Gorontalo's language, “loolanggelo." They saw there was a place that was a bit high and green. After finishing the deliberation, they agreed to continue the journey to the place they saw by looking up, which in the Gorontalo language means “ilolanggela.” After arriving at their destination, they looked for an excellent place to build a resting home. So they were the first to open this place and turn it into a Village. They agreed to name this place Langge Village, which comes from the word “ilolanggela." Following the opinion of Mr. Marshal Dilo and Mr. Ridwan, community leaders said that "langge" means finding an excellent place to make a lodge. The name "langge" is based on folklore in ancient times. Giving village names based on folklore in ancient times contained folklore elements, so the toponym of Langge Village is part of the cultural aspect.

(c). Dunggala Village

Dunggala Village is topographically located at 55 M above sea level. Dunggala Village has bounded by Langge Village of Tapa District to the North, Talumopatu Village of Tapa District to the South, Bulotalangi Village of East Bulango District to the East, and Kramata Village of Tapa District to the West. The area according to the use of dry land is 97,70 Ha, plantation land 10,00 Ha, public facilities land 20.40 Ha, and forest land 130.00 Ha.

According to Mrs. Mortin Isa, a native, in 1580, there was a group of people from Atinggola led by Bulonggodu (Belengkot) who came through the river by boat and were stranded somewhere. After being stranded, this group made a camp to rest for some time. The place where the camp was set up was then given the names "Dunggalo" and "Pilodungga Limongolio" which means "Their Residence" (Group from Atinggola District). After the group from the Atinggola district lived in that place for a long time, Bulonggodu died. His grave is guarded by a Hulubanga/Guard, and this place is named “Dunggalo” or “Pilodunggalio.” Not long after that incident, the Dutch colonizers landed in that place and managed to take control of Dunggalo. In 1917, the name Dunggalo was changed by the Dutch government to Dunggalo.

Mrs. Rukmin Ayuba and Mrs. Nani shared the same statement that Dunggala village means "their place of residence." The group from Atinggola District stayed, then Bulonggodu, the group's leader, died and was buried there. Because it was considered the grave of an Atinggola dignitary or noble, the grave was guarded by a Hulubanga or the King's bodyguard at that time. We can still find the Bulonggodu grave in Dunggala Village, considered a sacred grave by the local community. Several myths are circulating about the occurrence at the tomb of Bulonggodu or Blongkot. According to the community, it is forbidden to bring meat if you plan to pass through the Bulonggodu Tomb in Dunggala. If you pass by the tomb while carrying meat, when you get home or to your destination, the meat you have will disappear.

When we pass the tomb carrying meat, it is said that a white cat wearing a gold necklace will appear. People around believe that the cat is the guardian of the grave. A farmer who was an eyewitness said that he passed by the tomb one day and brought meat. When he got home, the farmer was surprised because the meat he was carrying had disappeared from the plastic bag. He also saw a white cat with a gold collar wandering around the tomb. Some people believe in that story. However, some doubt the story and consider it a mere myth. Another tale that spreads in the community is the residents are not allowed to pass through the tomb during the rainy season. It is said that if you pass by the grave in the rainy season, you will be struck by lightning because it is the tomb of Bulonggadu. The word "bulonggodu" is Gorontalo language which means lightning. But in reality, many residents pass by the grave during the rainy season and are not struck by lightning. That myth is part of folklore, a story set in the past, containing an interpretation of the universe. Mythology refers to a traditional story. The results of the respondent's interview show that the toponym of Dunggala Village is part of the cultural aspect because there is an element of folklore related to the origin story of the occurrences (mythology).

IV. Conclusion

Based on the study results, the aspects underlying the toponymy of the village in the Tapa sub-district are a phenomenon, social, and cultural aspects. The toponymy of the village in the Tapa sub-district, which is influenced by natural physical geography factors (phenomenon aspects), is in Miranti. Miranti, a big and tall tree, is one of the villages overgrown with various kinds of wood and plants (flora elements). Talulobutu village is included in the hydrological element, which means water coming out of the ground, and South Talulobutu village is a division of Talulobutu village. The social aspect is found in the naming of the Talumopatu village because the village community there takes immediate action in carrying out cooperation activities. The element of community social interaction (gotong royong) is also part of the social aspect.

Furthermore, cultural aspects are found in the naming of Kramat Village based on folklore elements about the hill, which is the burial place of Aulia Sholihin King Bolango. Langge village means finding a good place to build a resting site based on ancient folklore, so the toponymy of Langge village is included in the cultural aspect. Dunggala village is also included in the cultural aspect, because there is an element of folklore related to the origin story of a group of people from Atinggola led by Bulonggodu (Belengkot). Those who came through the river by boat were stranded somewhere. After being stranded, this group set up camp to rest for some time. The place where the camp was founded was then given the names "Dunggalo" and "Pilodungga Limongolio" which means "Their Residence." The place where the camp was set up was then given the names "Dunggalo" and "Pilodungga Limongolio" which means "Their Residence" (Group from Atinggola District).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research is a Decentralized Research (PDUPT). Therefore, I would like to thank the Ministry of Education and Culture, Research and Technology, which has provided grants for Basic Higher Education Research (PDUPT) and the Institute for Research and Community Service (LPPM) UNG. We also thank all parties who cannot be mentioned individually, those who provided assistance and played an essential role in this research.

REFERENCES

[1] Alasli, M. (2019). Toponyms' contribution to identity: The case study of Rabat (Morocco). *Proceedings of the ICA, 2*, 1-7.
[2] Baruadi, M. K., Eraku, S., & Koem, S. (2017). The Role of Folk Culture in the Promoting Tourism A Case of Folklore of Otanaha Fort in Gorontalo Province. *Journal of Environmental Management and Tourism, 6*(22), 1279-1283.
[3] Camalia, M. (2015). Toponimi Kabupaten Lamongan (Kajian Antropologi Linguistik). *PAROLE: Journal of Linguistics and Education, 5*(1), 74-83.
[4] Duranti, Alessandro (ed.). (2001). *Linguistic Anthropology.* Massachusetts: Blacwell.
[5] Gammeltoft, P. (2016). *Names and Geography (C. Hough, Ed.).* Oxford University Press.
[6] Kosasih, D. (2010). Kosmologi sistem nama diri (antroponim) masyarakat sunda [The cosmology of the Sundanese self-name system (anthroponym)]. *Seminar Internasional Hari Bahasa Ibu* (pp. 33-38)
[7] Kridalaksana, H. (2010). *Kamus linguistic* [Linguistic dictionary]. Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
[8] Lauder, Allan F. (2009). *A Collocation Analysis of Keywords in a News Media Corpus: The Role of Lexis in the News Agenda and Issue Representation* [Doctoral Dissertation, Graduate School, Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia].
[9] Lauder, Multamia R. M. T., and Lauder, Allan, F. (2018). Naming the North Natuna Sea: Considerations and stages in sea naming in Indonesia. *The 24th International Seminar on Sea Names: Dual Naming: Feasibility and Benefits*. Gangneung.
[10] Nfn, S., Fitra, Y., & Mulia, A. (2019). Toponimi Rupabumi Di Kabupaten Langkat [Toponymy of Topography in Langkat Regency]. *MEDAN MAKNA: Jurnal Ilmu Kebahasaan Dan Kesastraan, 13*(2), 233-243. 10.26499/mm.v13i2.1214
[11] Perdana, A., & Ostermann, F. (2018). A Citizen Science Approach for Collecting Toponyms. *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information, 7*(6), 222. 10.3390/ijgi7060222
[12] Ruspandi, J., & Mulyadi A. (2014). Fenomena Geografi Di Balik Makna Toponimi di Kota Cirebon [The Geography Phenomenon Behind the Meaning of Toponymy in Cirebon City]. *Jurnal Geografi Gea. 14*(2), 1-13. 10.17509/gea.v14i2.3394
[13] Saerheim, I. (2014). Place names in oral tradition: sources of local language and cultural history. *Proceedings of the 25th International Congress of Onomastic Sciences Glasgow*. (pp. 285-292). Retrieval time: August, 25-29, 2014.
[14] Sibarani, Robert. (2004). *Pendekatan Antropolinguistik: Antropologi Linguistik dan Linguistik Antropologi* [Anthropology Approach: Linguistic Anthropology and Anthropological Linguistics]. Medan: Penerbit Poda.
[15] Sibarani, Robert. (2015). Pendekatan Antropolinguistik Terhadap Kajian Tradisi Lisan [Anthropology Approach to the Study of Oral Traditions]. RETORIKA: *Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa, 1*(1), 1-17. 10.22225/jr.v1i1.9
[16] Sudaryat, Yayat., dkk. (2009). *Toponimi Jawa Barat* [West Java toponym]. Bandung: Dinas Pariwisata dan Kebudayaan Provinsi Jawa Barat.
[17] Vuolteenaho, J. (2017). *Critical Toponymies: The Contested Politics of Place Naming* (0 ed.; L. D. Berg, Ed.). Routledge. doi: 10.4324/9781315258843

Mohamad Karmin Baruadi. He received his Doctoral degree in Universitas Negeri Samratulangi, Indonesia, in 2011. Currently, he is a professor in the department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia. His research interests are in Anthropology.

Sunarty Suly Eraku. She received her Doctoral degree in Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia, in 2012. Currently, he is a lecturer in department of Earth Science and Technology, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia.

Novriyanto Napu. He received his Ph.D. at the University of South Australia, Australia, in 2016. He is now a lecturer in the department of English Education, Faculty of Letters and Culture, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia. His research interests are in linguistics.

Hendra. He was born in 1986. Currently, he is a lecturer in Department of Earth Science and Technology, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1023-1030, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.24

The Representation of the Oriental Woman in Sylvia Plath's Poetry: Liberating the Veiled Body in "Purdah" and "Ariel"

Hind Alem
The Department of English Language and Literature, The University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

***Abstract*—The present article discusses the representation of Oriental female figures in selected poems of Confessional poet Sylvia Plath, revealing the function of the women's representations and their contribution to the poet's battle against patriarchy. The Orientalist aspect of Plath's works is complex and comprises different layers of meanings. The analysis focuses on the characters of Ariel and the Muslim bride in "Purdah" regarding the notion of modesty through the physical and symbolic object of the veil. Thus, the study raises the question of whether the poet offered Eastern women the same voice of liberation as Westerners or whether her judgment was influenced by Oriental discourse that is prone to stereotypes and a lack of knowledge about other cultures and religions. The study relies on Edward Said's Orientalist discourse, alongside Leila Abu Lughoud's clarification on the position of Oriental women in the Western eye. The analysis also sheds light on concepts such as the "Wild Woman Archetype" to focus on the paradoxes of empowerment and subjugation embodied in the Oriental figures referenced in Plath's poems. The study illustrates, through selected poems, the attitude of Sylvia Plath towards Oriental women and her endeavor to speak out on behalf of women's rights universally, at the risk of dismissing the peculiarities of Oriental culture and religion.**

***Index Terms*—orientalism, Sylvia Plath, poetry, oriental women, patriarchy**

I. Introduction

Sylvia Plath made it her mission to denounce the implacable patriarchal machine aimed at downsizing women. Her works show, without restrictions or taboos, the clichés associated with women as weak, inferior, and mentally unstable. With a sense of complexity and resistance, her writings do not appear as emancipatory as much as they are a dramatic succession of episodes that announces the shattering of myths regarding women in different parts of the world. In this context, one aspect left unattended in her poems is her several allusions to the Eastern side of the globe. In order to debunk the patriarchal discourse and comment on women's position, Plath appropriates Oriental female figures to explore other cultures. The poet's engagement with the Orient balances, as this study demonstrates, between ironic negativity as a manifestation of discontent and feminist positivity as a subversive performance. That is to say, her references to Oriental women underlie an ambivalence of empowerment and condescension due to the lack of actual knowledge about the oriental culture and women's rights there. Uncovering the oriental elements in the poem of Plath's "Purdah" and "Ariel" will awaken criticism from a Postcolonial perspective by looking at the dialogic interaction between the Western "Self" and its Eastern "Other."

II. The Position of the Oriental Woman Throughout History

Western culture has a long history of depicting Muslim women. Scholars refer to it as gendered Orientalism. In both visual and written media, Muslim women are consistently presented as culturally unique, mirror opposites of Western women. In the nineteenth century, Oriental women were typically shown as either slaves in harems or as persecuted victims who were imprisoned, isolated, veiled, and regarded as liabilities, as well as subjects of the gaze of lascivious and violent men, as Nader explains in *Orientalism, Occidentalism and the Control of Women* (1989). In the first records, Christian missionary women pleaded for aid by denouncing the tyranny of their Muslim sisters. Artists, authors, and even early twentieth-century colonial postcard photographers favored the sensual and erotic. In the 19th century, the vast majority of buyers of works of art belonged to the industrial and financial upper middle class. These artists have taken the Oriental woman as their muse portraying her as Lynne Thornton describes *The Orientalist* (1983):"Prisoner of her sedentary way of life, she does not disdain to let her imagination wander without leaving the cozy comfort of her hushed living rooms adorned with prized works that invite you to daydream"(p. 15).

Gerard-Georges Lemaire states in his paper "The Orient in Western Art" (2006) that Orientalist painters offered the escape that the Oriental woman needed, the possibility of dreaming in front of images of minarets, white Casbas, colorful souks, deserts, and oases, but also sultanas recluse with their slaves in intimacy as well as refined and luxurious harems. For the Western upper middle class, Orientalism is synonym with sensuality, the exciting mystery of nudity suggested by light and diaphanous silks. The spectacle of these images of harems gives them somewhat a perverse sensation of breaking into a forbidden universe where exoticism and eroticism are intimately mixed. At the beginning of the 19th century, artists were no longer content to reinvent a mythical Orient: they traveled and brought back from Spain, Greece, Turkey, or North Africa their vision of the Orient (Lemaire, 2006).

Nowadays, there is a growing concern everywhere in the world to improve the status of women. This concern came in part from the West. Nader explains that Western and non-Western countries have implicit assumption that industrialization and economic progress in the West would benefit third-world women's welfare as well as a common perception that women in Western European and American nations would have stronger relationships with their males than their counterparts in less developed communities (Nader, 1989). These ideas are questionable on many levels. The situation of women is significantly impacted by the advancement of knowledge about the West, as it is this awareness that justifies the oppression of women in many Middle Eastern nations. The ladies are therefore considered as "potential Occidentalists" rather than as Arab women (p. 2), which does not go without arousing a severe identity crisis.

Importantly, Confessional Poetry, the movement dominating the Boston poetic scene in the late 1950s, specifically addressed personal or taboo themes of such, but with a central focus on the writer's personal life. Thereby, *The Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms* summarizes 'Confessional' poetry is a form of autobiographical poem that expresses the poet's issues in a surprisingly blunt tone, such as divorce, abortion, alcoholism, and madness or suicide. Lucidly, through these subjects, Sylvia Plath, a significant figure of this movement, denounces the patriarchal system in a more or less transparent manner in her works. It is, however, conspicuous, in the light of her career, that "the problems" of the poets evoked in this definition are not treated on the personal level but tend towards a universality reinforced by the use of figures, mythological or folkloric.

Christine Baniewicz's article "A Painful Turning: American Confessional Poets on Human Suffering Abroad" (2016) examines the significance of confessional poetry in participating in discourse the self, she writes, "the confessional poet can take a more intimate approach, allowing the reader access to her own emotional and psychological turmoil as she confronts the brutal reality of suffering in a foreign land and struggles to assimilate it" (Baniewicz, 2006, p. 3). In other words, confessional poetry tries to evoke in the reader a sense of empathy for victims of suffering overseas and the poet herself without immediately engaging with political philosophy. Baniewicz describes how Adrienne Rich, a renowned American confessional poet, makes a distinction in her poem "Hunger" from the collection Dream of a Common Language between her suffering, her "Western skin, and vision," and her sense of being "torn," and the suffering of the foreign subjects—their huts "not mine," she writes (Baniewicz, 2016). As the poem progresses, however, this distinction is swiftly challenged as similarities and analogies between Western women's anguish and Black women's suffering are explored (mothers, specifically). Rather than assuming an authoritative stance on the issue, Rich adopts a more honest approach by admitting she cannot "fathom" the anguish she describes in her writing. In these words, she also implies that, even though women's grief is unique on both continents, there are thematic commonalities. Rich has raised children and can talk with expertise on the matter while not being a black mother. The poet's approach to predicate her assessment of the pain of malnourished mothers and children in Africa on a common experience is largely responsible for this poem's success in arousing compassion: motherhood (Baniewicz, 2016). Assumingly, Plath represents Oriental women in her poems as a form of empathy and empowerment towards the female kind of all cultures.

In this manner, Chizuko Ueno states in *The Feminine Guise: a Trap of Reverse Orientalism* (1997) that the hegemonic patriarchal discourse is a discourse that rejects the "Other."However, it is also a discourse that cannot endure rejection by the "Other." The American confessional poet, Plath notably, should be particularly mindful of the fact that, as Edward Said writes in *Orientalism: Western Concepts of the Orient* (1995), "a certain freedom of intercourse was always the Westerner's privilege; because he was the stronger culture, he could penetrate, he could wrestle with, he could give shape the mystery" (Said, 1995, p. 43). Said mentions the comparative constraints of such a vision, and the constrained vocabulary of such a privilege. Said's theory backs up this study to see if Plath adheres to these limitations in revising Oriental figures and how knowledgeable she is on the subjects she represents.

Indeed, forty-four years since Edward Said published his theory of "Orientalism" and fifty years since the publishing of Plath's *Ariel*, it remains intellectually fascinating to study the interrelationship between the consumerist iconicity of Sylvia Plath and the countless instances of Orientalism in her writings. Plath's lack of genuine experience with Asian or Asiatic civilizations serves as the basis for her creation of the Orient as the center of romance through the imagery hidden in her love letter to Richard Sassoon dated the 22nd of November 1955: "Persian moon," "Turkish Tables," and "Dark Alladins." Such Orientalist images, along with her singular term of endearment for Sassoon, "Jaundiced Adam," could potentially reinscribe the notion of the Orient as the locus of romance, sensuality, and disease, Yoshida puts it in his article "Esther's Uncanny Doubles: The "big, smudgy-eyed Chinese woman" and the "bleached-blonde Negress in The Bell Jar" (2016) as "a collective Eurocentric mental space that opens up after anxiously imagining humanity's fall from the zenith of Western civilization and into the jaundiced crevices of joint disease" (pp.12-13). Whether Plathian Orientalism is examined with sarcastic negativity or feminist optimism as a subversive performance, Plath's Orientalist allusions can transform her iconic position in intriguing ways.

Postcolonial Theory is widely rich in examining the representation of the Orient in Western writings, the subject of women; more particularly, it has generated many theories. It is important to note that, in this context, Orientalism refers to a complex conception of the imagination rather than a factual reality. The term "Orientalism" pertains to a fantastic, nearly mythical concept used as a literary construct to represent mythology and tradition. It has little to do with the people or the Middle Eastern region itself). A concept like "the Orient" should not be based on direct or personal contact with the area or its people for artistic purposes (Said, 1995).

Sayid Salman, in *A Fundamental Fear: Eurocentrism and the Emergence of Islamism* (1997), points out that Leila Aboulela demonstrates, in one of her interviews, that Western representation of Muslim women as "missing" or "distorted" is inaccurate. It is more convenient to examine the incidence of 'Purdah' in patriarchal Islamic societies. Purdah has two unique definitions. The first is physical, with women covering their faces with a veil or Burqa in public; the second is more complicated, with women living in isolation from both males and the realm of public activity. One might be in Purdah in both directions and yet be in charge of their personal and public activities since the Islamic tradition dictates that women should remain concealed behind masks and net screens. Similarly, Mazloum explains in “Muslim Women in Monica Ali’s Brick Lane and Leila Aboulela’s Minaret” (2015) that one need not be in Purdah to be routinely impacted by Purdah culture; this is the perspective of the Postcolonial authors. The novel *Shame* by Salman Rushdie begins with an approaching death that emphasizes the unpleasant qualities of Purdah society. He argues that society must disregard 'Purdah' not just because it oppresses women but also because such oppression has unleashed violence that will destroy civilization. He adds with remorse, "It has humiliated people for too long, and now their wildness has erupted"(Mazloum, 2015, p. 10). In a patriarchal culture, women's pasts have been omitted from the repressed history.

It is worth mentioning that in Plath's poem "Ariel," the name Ariel refers to three things: Sylvia Plath's horse, the name given to Jerusalem in the Old Testament, as well as the androgynous spirit from Shakespeare's play *The Tempest*. Hussein Alhawamdeh elaborates on this point in “The Restoration Muslim Tangerines Caliban and Sycorax in Dryden-Davenant’s Adaptation of Shakespeare’s *The Tempest*” (2021) viewing that modern scholars, such as Jerry Brotton, analyze Shakespeare's *The Tempest* to reflect England's correspondence with the Kingdom of Morocco—mainly in Algiers. Similarly, Nabil Matar deals with Ariel and Caliban as belonging to Algiers. Alhawamdeh explains that the Restoration Dryden and Davenant transformed the oriental setting in Shakespeare's *The Tempest* from Algiers to Tangier, as reflected in Dryden-Davenant's *The Tempest* or *The Enchanted Island*:

> Dryden-Davenant’s *The Enchanted Island* eliminates Tunis, Claribel, and the King of Tunis in order to offer Tangier as an alternate North African setting and to flatter a Portuguese rather than Spanish alliance. *The Enchanted Island*’s relocation of the journey from Tunis to Naples, as in Shakespeare, to a new sea route from Portugal to Mantua indicates the Restoration adapters’ awareness of the significance of Tangier as an English colony, granted by the Portuguese coast. (p. 126).

Plath's poem is frequently studied by critics who debate Shakespeare's Ariel in order to examine the creative process. Plath could be trying to create an analogy while writing this poem. This part analyzes Ariel as a reference to the imprisoned spirit in Shakespeare's play, showing how Plath revisions the character as both female and Oriental to demystify the poet's problematic views on non-Western women.

To further emphasize Plath's representation of Oriental characters, this study relies on the feminist approach, including Leila Abu Lughoud’s thoughts in her book *Do Muslim Women Need Saving?* (2013). The book emphasizes the moral battle to liberate Muslim women who are oppressed by their cultures while also demystifying the false Western perceptions of Muslim women. The boundaries that formerly separated conservatives from liberals and sexists from feminists have been erased by their religion, which has taken over society: "How does the proposition that such women live caged in their cultures undergird fantasies of rescue by "the world community?" (Abu Lughoud, 2015, p. 26) "What presumptions are being made about the superiority of that to which you are saving her? (p. 47). These inquiries form the basis of Abu Lughoud's insightful remark on the reductionist portrayals of Islam and Muslim women as helpless victims in the media. According to her, such portrayals hide the history of internal discussion and institutional conflicts for justice. To reverse such biases, Abu-Lughoud advocates for careful examination of the causes of women's suffering, as well as the role that Westerners already play in reinforcing a universal inequality that harm women from different cultures, through government's decisions and capitalism. Another feminist concept applied here is that of The “Wild Woman Archetype” by Clarissa Pinkola Estés in *Women Who Run With the Wolves: Myths and Stories of the Wild Woman Archetype (1992)*. According to Estès, the Wild Woman archetype is the foundation of this layer that emanates from the instinctual psyche. Interestingly, the two figures presented in the analyzed poems are shaped under the anthropomorphic body of the lioness, which signals that Plath empowered the persona by transforming her into an ineffable and inimitable force, rich in ideas, images, and particularities that she offers to humanity.

All these considered, this discussion illustrates the representation of the Oriental woman in Sylvia Plath's poems "Purdah" and "Ariel" as a transformative figure who subdues the patriarchal system. It is worth mentioning that analyzing the Oriental presence in Plath's poetry is divided into two parts under the single theme of the Oriental woman and her body. The first part deals with the poem "Purdah," where the subjugated bride is veiled physically, and even her senses and freedom are annihilated. Secondly, in "Ariel," the exact figure seems to have turned into a free-spirited female who rides her horse naked. Hussein A. Alhawamdeh comments in his work “The different representation of postcolonial magic realism in William Shakespeare’s *The Tempest* and Franz Kafka’s *The Metamorphosis”* (2014) on Shakespeare's Ariel lack of the power of magic realism as a reason behind its submission. Because he is not a magic realist hero like Caliban, Ariel misses the sense of resistance to Prospero's tyranny. He does not transition to the actual reality like Caliban; rather, his life persists in the land of the imaginary and magical vision (Alhawamdeh, 2014). Plath reforms Ariel into a subversive female character. In this regard, the question of the veil, the body, and modesty of the Oriental/Muslim women are debated thoroughly, leaning on Leila Abu-Lughoud's criticism of the place of the Hijab in Muslim communities and the Western eye.

III. Two Dimensional Models for the Oriental Woman and Her Body

The perception of the veil and its meaning for Muslim women will be at the heart of this section. Indeed, Sylvia Plath dealt with an Oriental practice to speak out about the confinement and the objectifying of the female body and its consequences on the quest for women's freedom in all cultures. Not only is the body completely covered, but so are the windows of the house and any other possible opening to the outside world. The closed curtain is what prevents people from seeing outside but also what does not allow them to see inside the house. Thus, what is hidden in a home is nothing more than one's own body. Therefore, would the fear of the voyeur be the same as the fear of the thief? These inquiries are present in Plath's poems "Purdah" and "Ariel," as she depicts two Oriental figures oppositely. While in "Purdah," the persona is covered and confined by religious and patriarchal dominance, the similar creative spirit in “Ariel” appears liberated from the peace of clothing, in a state of nakedness that seems closely linked to the quest for women's freedom.

A. The Servitude in Purdah

As early as 1962, Plath dealt with the object of the veil covering the oriental woman in the poem "Purdah," published posthumously in the anthology *Winter Trees* in 1971.Ted Hughes, however, asserts that this specific poem was intended for publication in the collection Ariel, a fact that proves as much again the link between the bride and the spirit of Ariel. By taking a religious tradition as her subject, the poet also wonders about the role of religion in representing women and their bodies. The poem takes the practice of Purdah as a core but carries a more profound connotation about the patriarchal machine that subjugates women. The etymology of the word *Purdah* means "screen," "veil" in Persian, according to the Merriam Webster, which gives the following historical definition*:*

> […] practice that was inaugurated by Muslims and later adopted by various Hindus, especially in India, involve secluding women from public observation by concealing clothing (including the veil) and high-walled enclosures, screens, and curtains within the home. The practice of Purdah is said to have originated in the Persian culture and to have been acquired by the Muslims during the Arab conquest of what is now Iraq in the 7th century CE. (2022)

The poem "Purdah" proves that Plath applied a feminist consciousness to an Oriental character. Popular Western culture sees the veil as rooted in the patriarchal culture of Islam, which according to the West, has aimed to deprive women of their fundamental human rights, such as rights to their bodies, over the centuries. Therefore, for the Occident, Muslim women are viewed as "subjugated" and "Obedient" individuals who ought to be "educated" and "saved," an idea that lurks in Plath's poem "Purdah."

In Among these silks
Screens, these rustling appurtenances.
I breathe, and the mouth
Veil stirs its curtain
My eye
Veil is
A concatenation of rainbows.
I am his. (Plath, 1981, p. 243)

In "Purdah," the woman is presented by Plath with irony as a valuable asset. The poem opens with the word 'Jade' followed by a punctuation mark showing a separation. There are two forms of separation in this example; on one side, there is the separation between the exterior and the interior represented by the sheet covering the body, and on the other side, a separation between man and woman evoked by the reference to Adam in the second stanza. The Jade woman, reified in precious stone, is then represented twice as Adam's' side' (stone of the side/the agonized/side of green Adam, I) in an apparent reference to Eve. In this poem, the poetic *I* is a woman who is about to marry and whose body and face are fully veiled in the practice of Purdah (Hijab). Before serving the imprisonment of the whole body, the images of nature are distorted by the veil: the moon is of a "cancerous pallor," the trees become "little polyps bushy" and "little nets" as she becomes aware of the vulnerability of her own body, she no longer saw these elements except through the symptoms of a disease, that is, the dominant patriarchy.

Plath wove this poem using short, sometimes monosyllabic verses, often punctuated with exclamation points and dashes that allow the construction of incantatory nominal phrases, especially in the last two stanzas. In the first line of the eleventh stanza, "Absence, I" means I 'am the absence, as if the lack of the verb came to signify the impossibility of the ‘I’ to articulate a discourse. Those continuous effects of scarcity, interruption, and repetition invoke urgency and the confinement in which the speaker finds herself. Thus, the poem is not told from the point of the body of the speaker but from its captivity.

Any ritual, any transition from one state to another, is an opportunity to cover the feminine body with a veil_ or to break it. In the marriage ritual, the symbol of the veil coincides with another symbol, that of the name. Indeed, the name of the husband comes, like an opaque veil, covering the woman at the time of marriage, which comes under the concept of the "covered woman" that Betty Friedan recounts in *The Feminine Mystique* (1984): the concept of the "covered woman," which was codified into the law, deferred a woman's identity upon marriage: “to a married woman, her new self is her superior, her companion, her master” (Friedan, 1984, p. 28). She explains that some women chose to keep their own name as a symbolic gesture, afraid to adhere to a life of a married woman whose personality has died. Thus the body no longer forms a body except through clothing. The mouth becomes the "veil of the mouth," and the eyes become the "eye veil."The metaphor "mouth veil" can also designate the (self) censorship of the artist, whose injunction to modesty is not reduced to what she wears but to what she says. In the accumulation of diphthongs, "my eye veil," one hears "I veil," which in a poem that economizes on verbs suggests "I'm" the veil. In addition, the spaces between the stanzas and the enjambment reinforce the idea of difference, which is similar to the trauma experienced by the speaker.

The curtain metaphor closed on the eyes recalls the curtain that closes the window of the house in which the woman is also locked up, like the cages of a prison or a Russian Doll. Moreover, in the penultimate stanza, the poetic 'I' compares its body to a little doll covered in jewels, an envelope from which she predicts that she will free herself: "I shall unloose/from the small jeweled/ doll he guards like a heart". This comparison, which comes to complete a lexical field of value: (Jade, so valuable, priceless, crystals, guards), insists on the market value of the female body. Thus, it is precisely because the female body is seen s precious good that it is hidden under a sheet. The poem suggests that this garment hinders the speaker's freedom of movement until it is eradicated, like the antithesis of the verses "I revolve in my Sheath of possibilities," which testifies to this and does not differ in any way from the safe containing money and jewels. Plath takes a Muslim woman in this poem to claim that religions call for the confinement of the female body.

The feminine body of the speaker gives way to the male body: in the sixth and seventh stanzas, it is through the glow reflected by the Jade-body that the object of the mirror, at the arrival of the groom, becomes plural. The man then becomes the "lord of the mirrors" reigning over his lands or his properties: "it is himself he guides/ in among the silk/screens," these rustling "appurtenances". The word 'screens' is the etymology of the word 'Purdah'; these screens represent several obstacles to the view. Furthermore, the term "appurtenances" implies both the phonemes /pɜ̈ of Purdah and the word 'to belong,' of which it is the origin _ "I 'am his," she says later. The polysemy of the word appurtenances, meaning both accessory objects and, from a legal point of view, properties, dependencies of a person, shows the state of servitude and parcel of the female body, which is only an object of financial transaction.

In "Purdah," the erasure of the female body does not only pass through the veil but by the voice. The poem's speaker is both deprived of its freedom of movement, "I revolve in my sheath of possibilities," where the word sheet is heard, a sheet that covers and deprives her of speech. The injunction to interiority goes so far as to make the woman mute. By keeping silent, she disappears from the public space.

Absence,
I Revolve in my Sheath of impossibles,
Priceless and quiet
Among these parrakeets macaws!
O chatterers, Attendants of the eyelash!
I shall unloose (Plath, 1981, p. 243)

The repetition of the prophetic verse “I shall unloose” testifies to the urgency of the speaker to free her both from the garment that covers her and the mouth veil that mutes her.

Western feminists appear to believe that Islam oppressed women. They misinterpret religion by claiming that a veil is a political object that degrades women into precious goods hidden under a sheet. The poem suggests that this garment either symbolically or metaphorically hinders women's freedom until it is eradicated. Arab critic Lila Abu Lughoud admits this in her book, *Do Muslim Women Need Saving?* Most people still believe that the values of choice and freedom should define women's rights. Therefore, the West insists that the latter are severely compromised in Muslim communities. Both westerners and secular progressives within the Muslim world share this fixation around the practice of the Hijab, which is an ideal way to express their worries about the oppression of women. It is often thought that women who cover themselves are being forced or capitulating to male pressure, ignoring that women have chosen to wear the veil as a mandatory practice for their religion (Lughoud, 2013).

Purdah is, in fact, an honorable custom that liberates women because it fosters a sense of respect and freedom. Islam has treated women with the utmost care, valued as individual beings, and elevates women's position by requiring that they maintain parity with males in terms of status and rights. Regarding the question of choice and liberty of covering the female body, one may ask the following questions: How can one tell the difference between voluntarily selected clothing and clothing worn out of habit, peer pressure, and fashion?

B. The Empowerment of Ariel

An enigma surrounds the title of the collection Ariel and the poem itself. The polysemy of the name appeals simultaneously to the biblical (Ariel designates the name of the city of Jerusalem in the Old Testament), the name of the spirit in Shakespearean's play *The Tempest*, and the title of the poems by T.S. Eliot on religion and spirituality, but also to her personal life since the horse that Plath rode regularly was called Ariel. Plath was familiar with Shakespeare's play

The Tempest since she referred to it in her diary on the 27th of April 1953. It alludes more specifically to an almost fantasized reading of W.H. Auden from his own commentary-poem entitled "The Sea and the Mirror" subtitled "A Commentary on Shakespeare's The Tempest," (2000), Plath states: "Auden tossing his big head back…talking in gravely incisive tone about how Caliban is the natural bestial projection and Ariel the creative imaginative" (pp. 424-425) .

This study adopts the Shakespearian angle of analysis since it deals with the representation of the oriental figures in Plath’s poems. In order to back up the perception of Ariel as an Oriental figure, the researcher relies on Alhawamdeh’s analysis (2014), where he argues that the Restoration Dryden and Davenant transformed the oriental setting in Shakespeare's *The Tempest* from Algiers to Tangier as reflected in Dryden-Davenant's *The Tempest* or *The Enchanted Island*, explaining that the "real hero"in Ariel who is empowered by the end and leads to the happy denouement exploiting repressive circumstances in productive ways Looking at Ariel as an Oriental figure shows an attempt at empowerment from the poet as a response to the confined persona of Purdah. Ariel is a transformative figure of the bride in "Purdah," who has been liberated from patriarchal oppression.

To further explain, family backgrounds decide the social spheres people are born into. Women are positioned in particular social groups and nations at specific historical junctures. These unique circumstances form aspirations and constrain women's options. To be clear, particular individuals and societies do have more options and freedom of choice than others. This was often the case for males, at least in Britain before World War II, as Virginia Woolf reveals in *A Room of One's Own* (Lughoud, 2013). However, is the relative capacity to choose exclusively determined by gender or by culture? One must reflect on the limitations faced, considering people as agents responsible for their own lives. And beyond that, one must question individuals for whom choice may not be the sole criterion for a life of value as Abu-Lughoud demonstrates in *Veiled Sentiment* (1986). Most religious systems are based on the concept that humans do not have complete control over their lives. Even the ancient Greeks viewed hubris as a terrible fault, defined as excessive pride or the conviction that one might defy the gods. Such questions are vital for considering Muslim women and their rights. Wendy Brown claims in “Regulating Aversion: Tolerance in the Age of Identity and Empire” (2008) that while addressing the bizarre notion that liberal democracies wish to control what Muslim women should wear, secularism has not delivered freedom or equality to women in the West. These beliefs, according to Brown, are founded on the "implicit premise that bare skin and the sexual display is a symbol, if not a guarantee, of women's freedom and equality" (p. 202). Men who attend mosques to become better Muslims and who embrace a new type of veiling as a religious obligation would be perplexed. Brown concludes that the beliefs on Muslim women's relative lack of choice disregard "the amount to which all choice is conditioned by and entangled with power, and the extent to which choice itself is a deficient account of freedom" (p. 203). Suppose the persona is covered and imprisoned in "Purdah," presenting a body. In that case, this is not whole, in the sense of being unequal to that of the husband, to whom she is the subordinate, the speaker in Plath’s poem “Ariel” is, on the contrary, a multitude of free female bodies, in constant movement and forming a sorority.

In the penultimate stanza of the poem "Purdah," the persona dreams of being rebellious, shattering this veiled shell in which she is trapped to finally become visible in the last stanza, "The Lioness/the Shriek in the cloak of holes ."It is worth noting that none of these metaphors refers to a human body. Moreover, the last metaphor reveals a double paradox, on the one hand, the speaker returns to its textile state (cloak of holes); on the other hand, because their cover garment of dissimulation par excellence cannot possibly veil the body entirely since it is made up of holes. Finally, the metamorphosis into a lioness insists on the anthropomorphic dimension of the poem, beginning with the parrot-men and the peacock-men and then primarily dominated by the lioness in the animal kingdom. The ending also refers to the poem "Ariel," written only two days earlier, on the 27th of October, 1962.

The two poems representing Oriental female figures under the aspect of the anthropomorphic body present a facet of the “Wild Woman Archetype” shaped by Clarissa Pinkola Estés in her work “*Women Who Run with the Wolves*: Myths and Stories of the Wild Woman Archetype" (1989):

> Although she takes different forms in our dreams and creative experiences, she does not belong to the stratum of the mother, the virgin, or the medial woman, nor is she the inner child—neither the queen, the amazon, the clairvoyant. The archetype is present everywhere, yet it cannot be seen in the usual sense of the term. What she reveals about herself in the dark is not necessarily visible in bright light (pp. 52-53).

Simply put, the author refuses to categorize the wild woman as she is multiple and hides, lurking in the shadows, or advances into the light. Estès defines the Wild Woman archetype through the prism of opacity and transparency, which is applied to the personae of "Purdah" and "Ariel," the former one concealed under her opaque coat, the latter naked traveling on horseback as if she had nothing to hide from the outside world. Moreover, “Ariel” opens with the verse “Stasis in darkness. “: stasis is associated with darkness. The word stasis mainly has two meanings: in medicine, this word means according to Merriam-Webster “a slowing or stopping of the normal flow of a bodily fluid; it designates more generally a state or a period of stagnation, "a state or a period of stability during which little or no evolutionary change in a lineage occurs" (2022). This word, therefore, has a double meaning in the poem. It refers on one side to the fluid secreted by the body_ and on the other to a state without evolution corresponding to the period preceding the women's liberation movements. Besides, darkness inevitably refers to the allegory of the cave or to the willful ignorance of human beings. However, this state of inertia does not last, and the body begins to move in the second verse.

Ariel is the air spirit in *The Tempest*, whom Plath summons in this poem, transforming it into a female. But this figure is the epitome of paradoxes, both present and absent, covered with a sheet and transparent at the same time, a spirit without a body in the speaker's image, which gradually sheds its skin as an outer cover concealing the essence of its being. In addition, Plath refers to the 11th-century legend of Lady Godiva, wife of Count Leofric of Mercia, who crossed the city fully naked to protest against the high taxes her husband levied on the inhabitants.

Hauls me through the air—
Thighs, hair;
Flakes from my heels.
White
Godiva, I unpeel—
Dead hands, dead stringencies. (Plath, 1981, p. 239)

In this legend, the character that stood out is that of Peeping Tom, the only spectator of Godiva- as the inhabitants had been ordered to go home and close the windows so as not to see her naked body. This character, a symbol of the male gaze, has become so popular that it is commonly used in English to refer to a "voyeur". It seems as though Plath wonders through these two poems, and relying on Oriental figures, why is the female body sometimes covered, sometimes uncovered, judged as modest or immodest. Is modesty, therefore, an exclusively feminine virtue?

Toril Moi demonstrates in “Simone de Beauvoir: The Making of an Intellectual Woman” (2009) that the source of a woman's subjectivity is her body. Explaining how De Beauvoir perceives the notion, she states:

> For Beauvoir, the body is our medium for having a world in the first place. We perceive the world through the body, and when the world reacts to our body in a more or less ideologically oppressive way, we respond to the world. Our subjectivity is constituted through ongoing, open-ended interaction between ourselves and the world. We constantly make something of what the world makes of us. (p. 391)

According to Moi, the body is possibly the key component that gives the foundation of the individual's subjectivity. Nevertheless, subjectivity cannot be reduced to a single physical characteristic. Subjectivity is thus related to the idea of Otherness. In "Can the Subaltern Speak" (1988), Spivak makes the case that a woman's body is a component of her displacement. Where there is oppression and marginalization, her otherness is replicated. Moi (2009) equates exploring the body with the capacity to engage whereas Spivak relates the oppression of women's bodies with their incapacity to speak. Regaining body control is a central issue in feminist and postcolonial feminist studies.

In *Veiled Sentiment* (1986), Leila Abu Lughoud discusses the issue of modesty and honor regarding women's clothing. She claims that anthropologist Hanna Papanek, who lived and researched in Pakistan in the 1970s, described the burqa as "portable isolation." According to Papanek, many saw it as a liberating breakthrough since it permitted women to leave segregated housing while still upholding the fundamental moral needs of keeping women apart from unrelated males. Abu Lughoud comments: “Since I first encountered her expression ‘portable solitude,’ I have referred to these enveloping coverings as mobile homes"(p. 13). This veiling denotes membership in a specific community and participation in a moral way of life in which families play a central role in community structure, and the home is associated with the sacredness of women.

Ultimately, Plath transforms and empowers the subaltern in Purdah, which could not speak in the confinement of her marriage and culture, into the spirit of Ariel, who travels naked freely, taking control of her body. In the last lines of "Ariel," the speaker's body is transformed, as in "Purdah," in the form of an arrow ten a dew.

And now I
Foam to wheat, a glitter of seas.
The child’s cry
Melts in the wall.
And I
Am the arrow,
The dew that flies
Suicidal, at one with the drive
Into the red
Eye, the cauldron of morning. (Plath, 1981, p. 239)

The image of "an arrow into the future could very well echo that of the arrow of the red eye, the cauldron of the morning"- morning often meaning in Anglo-Saxon countries both morning and tomorrow like Morgen in German. These last stanzas have often been commented on as a slide of the persona towards madness. However, it seems that on the contrary, they depict a journey towards clarity, as well as a hold of self-authority: solitary, molting like a serpent, lioness, Godiva, Amazon, Venus, Aphrodite, but also Diana/Artemis, she is the one who shoots the arrows; she is not less than a man.

IV. Conclusion

The study investigates the representation of the Oriental characters and their contribution to the Plath's battle against patriarchy by offering possible relations between women of different races, cultures, and religions. Throughout the analyzed poems, the poet confirms that even though each culture has its own form of patriarchal domination, one can find common denominators as it is presented in "Purdah," where she takes as a motive a traditional oriental practice to more broadly describe the bondage of women. Plath deals with the question of modesty through the physical and symbolic object of the veil, which covers the bride and represents the oppression in "Purdah" to the invisible cloak of the persona in "Ariel". In the first part, the Oriental bride is prone to servitude by the groom. He is an allegory to the patriarchal society coupled with the religious institution, of which the woman is the involuntary wife. The second part reveals Plath's attempt to empower the Oriental bride by showing the concealed body part once covered by the veil, turning the persona of "Ariel" into a liberated "Wild Woman" free from any form of confinement. Therefore, one may argue that the Orientalist aspect of Plath's poems is primarily dominated by the Western Feminist point of view, where religion and culture are discarded. The Muslim veil is, in many cases, is a choice that women enjoy the right to have. The study thus validates the explications of Said and Abu-Lughoud that the West shape and molds the Oriental personage, following stereotypes and misconceptions that result from a lack of knowledge on the part of the authors.

REFERENCES

[1] Abu-Lughoud, L. (2013). *Do Muslim Women Need Saving?* (Reprinted.). Harvard University Press.
[2] Alhawamdeh, H. A. (2014). The different representation of postcolonial magic realism in William Shakespeare’s *The Tempest* and Franz Kafka’s *The Metamorphosis*. *British Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, *12*(1), 1–13.
[3] Alhawamdeh, H. A. (2021). The restoration Muslim Tangerines Caliban and Sycorax in Dryden Davenant’s adaptation of Shakespeare’s *The Tempest*. *Critical Survey*, *33*(3–4), 121–140. https://doi.org/10.3167/cs.2021.33030412
[4] Baldick, C. (2008). *The Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*. Oxford Reference. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://www.oxfordreference.com/view/10.1093/acref/9780199208272.001.0001/acref-9780199208272
[5] Baniewicz, C. (2016). A Painful Turning: American Confessional Poets on Human Suffering Abroad. *Ellipsis: A Journal of Art, Ideas, and Literature*, *43*. https://doi.org/10.46428/ejail.43.05
[6] Brown, W. (2008). *Regulating Aversion: Tolerance in the Age of Identity and Empire.* Princeton University Press.
[7] Estés, C. P. (1996). *Women Who Run with the Wolves: Myths and Stories of the Wild Woman Archetype* (Reissue). Ballantine Books.
[8] Friedan, B. (1984). *The Feminine Mystique*. (Reissue). Dell/Laurel.
[9] Lemaire, Gérard-Georges. (2009). *Orientalism: the Orient in Western Art*. H F Ullmann
[10] Mazloum, S. F. (2015). Displaced’ Muslim Women in Monica Ali’s Brick Lane and Leila Aboulela’s Minaret. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies*, *2*(3), 526–568.
[11] Merriam-Webster. (n. d.). Purdah/Stasis. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/purdah
[12] Moi, T. (2009). *Simone de Beauvoir: The Making of an Intellectual Woman* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
[13] Nader, L. (1989). Orientalism, Occidentalism and the Control of Women. *Cultural Dynamics*, *2*(3), 323–355. https://doi.org/10.1177/092137408900200304.
[14] Said E. W. (1995). *Orientalism: Western Concepts of the Orient*. Penguin Books.
[15] Sayyid, B. S. (1997). *A Fundamental Fear: Eurocentrism and the Emergence of Islamism*. Zed Books.
[16] Spivak, G. C. (1988). Can the Subaltern Speak? In C. Nelson & L. Grossberg (Eds.), *Marxism and the Interpretation of Culture* (pp. 271–313). University of Illinois Press.
[17] *The Collected Poems: Edited by Ted Hughes* (1st ed.). (1981). [Http://libgen.rs/]. HARPER & ROW.
[18] Thornton, L. (2009). *The Orientalists: Painter Travellers Pocket Colour Series*. Acr Edition (ACC).
[19] Ueno, C. (1997). *In the Feminine Guise*. Amsterdam University Press.
[20] Yoshida, H. (2016). Esther’s Uncanny Doubles: The “big, smudgy-eyed Chinese woman” and the “bleached-blonde Negress” in The Bell Jar. *Plath Profiles*, *9*, 12–15.

Hind Alem is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Jordan, Faculty of English Language and Literature, Amman, Jordan. She is interested in Orientalism, Mythology, Fairytales, and Children’s Literature.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1031-1037, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.25

Honesty as a Manifestation of Social Piety Values in the Novel *Orang-Orang Proyek* by Ahmad Tohari to Strengthen Character Education

Teguh Prakoso
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Agus Nuryatin*
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Teguh Supriyanto
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Nas Haryati Setyaningsih
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

***Abstract*—Honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety is an attitude that must be an important provision in the education system in Indonesia, especially character education. It is important, considering that hedonism and other materialistic attitudes are widespread. The nickname crazy rich or 'sultan' for rich young people can be an inspiration counterproductive to the value of honesty. Some of those who accentuated their lavish lifestyles were dishonestly acquired. Ahmad Tohari, in the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek*, tries to convey that honesty is an attitude that should be the foundation of everyday life. The sociology of literature approach, with the basis of genetic structuralism theory used, can reveal that honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety has been exemplified clearly in the story told in the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel. The attitude and behavior shown by Kabul, Basar, and Pak Tarya symbolize the importance of honesty. This symbolization is important to strengthen character education in preparing Indonesia's golden generation.**

***Index Terms*—character education, honesty, values of social piety, Ahmad Tohari**

I. Introduction

Currently, the challenges of education in Indonesia continue to grow. The dynamics require educators and educational staff to keep abreast of existing developments. In terms of the quality of learning, for example, if educators continue to use the 'old' style, of course, it will only lead to the boredom of their students. Various learning platforms are available, offering material enrichment programs that are easy to follow and the flow of thought. Information, communication, and technology (ICT) have rapidly spread within and spread to educational systems around the world through the development of several web-based educational systems for teaching and learning (Nuryatin et al., 2023; Lim & Tan, 2022). With abundant learning resources through ICT, with just a touch of a finger, all the information needed can be easily accessed. Unfortunately, the development of advanced technology using ICT also has an impact that is not small. No matter how great students learn through internet media, a touch of learning psychology must still be given. It is a challenge to educate people in Indonesia. Without this soft skill touch, the born generation will only produce smart products in science but lack empathy. They also lack politeness, are selfish, feel the greatest, and are drugged by instant things. What is more, the world that Indonesia's golden generation is facing recently also often exhibits bad attitudes, such as showing off wealth. Impressions of the younger generation with abundant wealth are misleading references.

Based on these conditions, the researcher believes that efforts to stem the influence of an improper lifestyle due to dishonesty must be conveyed. For some of the younger generation, as the researchers convey, a culture that wants everything instantaneous seems to be a threat. When you see the phenomenon of young people who turn out to be rich, with luxurious cars, flashy houses, and also very beautiful cruise places in various parts of the world, complete with top-notch culinary delights, it reminded researchers of an incident that had become a concern in Indonesia in 2016 when a scientist was also a victim of money-replicating practices (Sindonews.com, 2016). It shows that wanting to go fast by ignoring honesty threatens Indonesia's younger generation. Therefore, recalling the importance of being honest from an early age is one of the reinforcements that must be carried out through character education. Therefore, through this

* Corresponding author. Email: agusnuryatin@mail.unnes.ac.id

article, the researcher wants to show that literary works can be used as a variable to strengthen character education, for example, through the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek* (in English: "Project People") by Ahmad Tohari, which has the theme of corruption, aka dishonest acts.

Through this article, the researcher wants to describe the results of an in-depth analysis of honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety, as the researcher found in the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek* by Ahmad Tohari. In Arabic, the word 'honest' is a translation of the word *shiddiq* which means true and trustworthy. Honest emphasizes the importance of conformity and truth to words or deeds. Because of this, being honest provides many benefits, such as making associations wider, living in peace and tranquility, and getting the blessing of God (Widiyani, 2021). From the researcher's point of view, this topic is important to convey, considering that hedonism has now become a normal phenomenon that travels on various social media platforms. The term 'sultan' or the nickname crazy rich is a title addressed to those studded with luxury goods from various world-class brands. Some of those who received this title were young people who later became a kind of idolized figures. It is then dangerous for Indonesia's younger generation because some of them practice dishonesty, for example, in the cases of Indra Kenz and Doni Salmanan (Kompas.com, 2022). For the generation of Indonesians who are educated in schools that are connected to the internet, be it elementary school, junior high school, or senior high school, a materialistic culture must be anticipated. One of the efforts must be made to instill honesty as part of moral values through character education.

Character education has always been an interesting topic of discussion to continue to study more deeply (Sudjalil et al., 2022). It is not without reason because the discourse on strengthening character education at the school level has existed from 2010 to the present. Unfortunately, the implementation of character education values itself is still low. Phenomena of moral decadence among Indonesian students, such as acts of violence, bullying, and brawls between students. Students who experience moral decadence will usually ignore the rules that apply and violate the norms in their environment (Hidayah et al., 2022). In essence, the character teaches about things considered good for someone. Character refers to behavior by religious, social, and cultural norms that apply in people's lives. For this reason, character education can be interpreted as teaching or guidance regarding good and bad things to students. Character education can give students character to meet future generations (Achsani, 2018). Character education is indeed an important topic, articles related to this topic have been published in various journals, for example, written by Freeman (2014), Setiawati (2017), Storozhenko et al. (2018), Imron & Nugrahani (2019), Na & Kobylko (2020), Muassomah et al. (2020), Prayitno et al. (2020), Mustakim et al. (2020), Hart (2020), Mujahid (2021), Jónsson et al. (2021), Novianti (2017), Muhtar et al. (2021), Sukarno et al. (2021), Nugroho et al. (2022), Rakhman (2022), and Maisyaroh et al. (2023).

One alternative that can be used as an effective way to instill character education is through literary works, including through the theme of the importance of honesty as found in *Orang-Orang Proyek* novels. However, the point of view regarding the use of literary works, particularly concerning honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety and its relation to character education, has never been discussed. Character education's value is not limited to school activities through television shows, murals, expressions of wisdom, and films. The value of character education can also be found in literary works, such as legends, novels, short stories, and children's stories (Achsani, 2018; Cahyati & Arifin, 2021; Hidayah et al., 2022). It is the statement that literary works, in addition to entertaining, can also be used as an educative medium for people's lives.

Relevant research that analyzes *Orang-Orang Proyek* novels includes research conducted by Nurhasanah (2015), Faruq (2017), Jonindo (2017), Mandra (2018), Prasetyo (2019), Muqit (2019), and Mahdijaya et al. (2021). Some of the themes in the research are about corrupt behavior. However, there has been no discussion about the importance of honesty related to its use to strengthen character education. On that basis, the following discussion is the result of the analysis that the researcher conducted as an answer to the problem that honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety must be conveyed as a provision to strengthen character for Indonesia's golden generation.

II. Method

The method used in writing this article is qualitative with a literary sociology approach with Lucien Goldman's genetic structuralism theory (Wibowo et al., 2021). This research will reveal the value of honesty represented in the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek* by Ahmad Tohari as a manifestation of the value of social piety. It must also be viewed as a sociocultural event related to factors outside the text (Damono, 1978; Goldmann, 1980). Data were collected by reading the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek*. In addition, interviews with the author were also conducted to obtain more concrete additional data, namely on June 8, 2022, and August 14, 2022, which were conducted at Ahmad Tohari's residence, in Tinggar Jaya Village, Jatilawang District, Banyumas Regency, Central Java, Indonesia. Data analysis was carried out by conducting in-depth reading (hermeneutic) to obtain more in-depth research results (Rokhmansyah et al., 2023).

III. Research Results

To make it easier to read the results of the analysis, the researcher analyzed it systematically, which consisted of (a) the structure of the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel, (b) honesty as an entity of social piety values, (c) the importance of honesty as an important variable in character building.

A. Story Structure of Orang-Orang Proyek Novel

The structure of the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel, which the researcher presents at the beginning, is the basis for the analysis to find honesty as a social entity and an important variable in character building. In addition, as a study of Lucian Goldman's structuralism, the stories told are collective subjects and facts of humanity. Both are ways to discover Ahmad Tohari's worldview. The figures (humans) that were examined as tools were Kabul, Basar, Pak Tarya, Dalkijo, Pak Baldun, Wati, Mak Sumeh, Sonah, Sri, Martasatang, Wircumplung, Sawin, Kang Aacep, Cak Mun, Aunt Ana, Wiyoso, Kang Sanu, Kang Bolot, Kang Setu, and Kang Dalim. In the story told, the conflict of corrupt behavior on all fronts is the centre of the story, which is supported by the environments and oppositional relations, which are explained as follows. First, the natural environment described in *Orang-Orang Proyek* is rural. At this location, there is the Cibawor river. During the bridge construction, the concrete piles tilted due to heavy rain. This incident is the story's beginning that conveys the message of being honest. Second, the cultural environment described in *Orang-Orang Proyek* is an environment that represents the atmosphere of bridge construction which involves many workers from various ethnic groups and beliefs. They are unique; some are religious, but others are *abangan*[1]. They represent also represented as manual labor but honest. Meanwhile, the culture also depicts the typical stereotype of a corrupt project leader. Third, the social environment in *Orang-Orang Proyek* describes the typical characteristics of rural life combined with the enthusiasm of workers in project development. The severity of their work makes them happy to vent their pleasure when receiving a salary every weekend. Different things were experienced at the project leader level, namely Dalkijo. Instead, he tried to find the difference in the project value with various pretexts and reasons that ended up corrupt behavior. Uniquely, among the opposition that occurred, there was a belief in the "occult" as the thoughts of Wircumplung and Martasatang regarding the sacrifice of bridge casting (Tohari, 2019, pp. 141–143). This phenomenon is a characteristic of rural life where some residents still believe in their ancestors' culture, including superstitious ones. Fourth, the ideological environment in *Orang-Orang Proyek* is a picture of Islamic ideology packed with enlightening messages. Moral values and invitations to do good are very thick in this context. One of the important messages conveyed was an invitation not to cheat, such as corruption. Teachings to criticize and eradicate corruption. However, when resistance to the invitation to corruption occurred, the PKI member's "clean" stamp became a means to threaten him. It reminds researchers of the leadership style of one of the regimes that once ruled Indonesia.

The environments that the researcher describes form an oppositional relationship. This relationship is formed by the imaginary universe of *Orang-Orang Proyek* novels, including cultural opposition, natural opposition, social opposition, ideological opposition, and human opposition, with the following explanation. The cultural opposition in *Orang-Orang Proyek* gave rise to Kabul and Pak Tarya (also Basar) as figures whose thoughts were opposite to those of Dalkijo and Pak Baldun. They both come from the village, but the association and interests of each make them different. The estuary is the positive pole represented by Kabul, Pak Tarya, and Basar, and Dalkijo and Baldun represent the negative pole. Ironically, Dalkijo and Pak Baldun's fraudulent thoughts targeted religious rituals in the name of mosque renovation but instead asked for it from the 'project' budget (Tohari, 2019, pp. 157–163).

The natural opposition in *Orang-Orang Proyek* describes the exciting reality of the life of the lower classes of society. They value a sense of family. They value a sense of family. The invitation to worship must be interpreted as diversity. The situation is real. Naturally, they are separated into two distinct dichotomies. One group represents a religious attitude, and the other represents an *abangan* attitude. The harmonization of the two is very fluid so that when the obligation to pray Friday arrives, the invitation to go to the mosque is answered with a joke for the *abangan* followers (Tohari, 2019, p. 41). The difference in their beliefs is common, and it is also worth it when Wircumplung and Martasatang accuse Kabul of using Sawin (Martasatang's son) as a casting victim (Tohari, 2019, pp. 137–149).

The social opposition of the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel can be seen in several ways. First, there are very different social classes in terms of educational background. In the bridge work project, Dalkijo and Kabul are educated figures, while the workers and shop owners and workers are ordinary people (proletarians). The only educated figures who do not represent the project workers are Pak Tarya and Basar. These ordinary people also represent the views of those who still believe in the occult, although some are religious. The educated dichotomy was not directly proportional to his behavior because Dalkijo's figure was included in the category of corruptors. Meanwhile, ordinary people do not have the same attitude as Dalkijo. So, even though Dalkijo has a higher social status than Kabul, Pak Tarya, Basar, and the project workers, he is not a role model for them (Tohari, 2019, pp. 30–36, 61, 207–210, 227–231).

The ideological opposition of the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel can be seen in the different perspectives between Dalkijo and Kabul. Even though they come from the same alma mater, they are different (Tohari, 2019, p. 228). It is said that Dalkijo's behavior does not show very high regard for honesty. For him, despite knowing that corruption is evil, what he did was normal to break the ropes of poverty that he had suffered (Tohari, 2019, p. 31). It is very different from what Kabul thinks. Meanwhile, ideological differences can also be seen in the opposition between Kabul, Pak Baldun, Basar, and GLM officials. When these differences cannot be reconciled, the threat of 'cleaning the environment is always a sacred word that is very easy to pronounce (Tohari, 2019, p. 163). These oppositions then gave birth to an ideological opposition between the thoughts of Kabul, Pak Tarya, and Basar with an excellent religious rationale (Tohari, 2019, pp. 44–52) against Dalkijo and Pak Baldun, whose way of thinking was only worldly. Pak Tarya, Kabul,

[1] Abangan is a term for a class of Javanese Muslims who practice a more syncretic version of Islam than the more orthodox *santri (*students at Islamic boarding schools) (Muchtarom, 1988). The term, derived from the Javanese word for red, was first used by Clifford Geertz (1983), but today its meaning has shifted.

and Basar came to the idea that religious rites only focus on their implementation, not their manifestation. Such rites only produce ritual piety and not social piety (Tohari, 2019, pp. 48–49).

The *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel highlights human opposition in the basic categories of life, namely good-bad; educated-uneducated; religious-nonreligious; smart stupid; and rich and poor. The opposition, for example, is embedded in the characters of Wircumplung and Martasatang, Cak Mun, Kang Acep, and Bejo, as well as other figures. They are uneducated, religious-nonreligious, not rich, and stupid. As the only female worker on the project, Wati's figure is a very male harmonization of the project (Tohari, 2019, p. 27).

Based on the structure of the story, it can be found that a common thread about Ahmad Tohari's world views is a message of piety. This message was inserted during a dialogue between Pak Tarya, Basar, and Kabul during lunch at Basar's house. The material is a history which reads: The Prophet was not sent, except to perfect human morals (Tohari, 2019, pp. 42–43). The word 'except' provides a meaning that requires people to carry out the next keyword, namely "perfecting morals". Because apart from "perfecting morals" has been excluded. Apart from perfecting morals, it is not the purpose of sending Kanjeng Nabi (Tohari, 2019, pp. 44–45). With this view, if the purpose of religion has shifted from moral enforcement to sharia enforcement, then the deviation is very likely to happen. Religious rites were seen everywhere with large congregations. However, these activities only resulted in ritual piety (Tohari, 2019, pp. 42–49).

B. Honesty as an Entity of Values of Social Piety

The definition of social piety itself has been conveyed by many scientists such as Sobary (2007), Yusuf (2007), and Bisri (1996). Among the definitions put forward, there is an interesting one. Bisri (1996, p. 29) explains that social piety is interpreted as *muttaqi* piety, namely the piety of a devoted servant or a believer who does pious deeds, both ritually and socially pious. So, there is no dichotomy between social or ritual piety because piety is just *muttaqi* piety.

Honesty is a valuable entity for social piety, Istiqomah (2019, p. 128) explained that among the aspects of social piety and the prosocial theory used, there is a common thread in the form of measuring tools for social piety, which includes seven things. Thus, a person is considered to have the value of social piety if the person concerned can demonstrate the attitudes of (1) social solidarity, (2) *Orang-Orang Proyek* creation, (3) tolerance, (4) fairness and balanced, (5) considers the general welfare, (6) likes helping, (7) being honest. This seventh point is the essence of this article because this behavior is becoming increasingly difficult to obtain. Being honest provides provisions for anyone to avoid corrupt behavior.

In one of his writings, Azra (2020, pp. 167–168) expressed his anger about corrupt behaviors that are difficult to eradicate. The alternative approach, according to him, is the theological and religious approach. This approach then involved two Islamic organizations, Nahdlatul Ulama and Muhammadiyah. They conduct *fiqh* studies and formulations on corruption. The result was the birth of a book entitled *Koruptor itu Kafir* (in English: Corruptors are Kafir) and published by a well-known book publisher in Bandung. However, from the researcher's point of view, the phenomena that have occurred have not shown that attempts to call corruption infidels to create a deterrent effect. Corruption also targets religious funds and projects. By looking at such conditions, honesty as one of the values of social piety is necessary.

In line with this view, the story conveyed by Ahmad Tohari through *Orang-Orang Proyek* also shows Ahmad Tohari's great concern about corrupt behavior. With humility, Tohari said that he did not want to change the world. His small agenda is always to try to make his wife and children become human beings who are different from the others. No corruption. Even if you get sustenance, it is because you have given something (see Herliany, 2018, pp. 78–79). In such a context, "having given something" embodies civility to share goodness, for example, helping or helping those in trouble. What Tohari said was also contained in the discussions held between Pak Tarya, Kabul, and Basar. On the sidelines of lunch, they discussed the material for the sermon, which was always repeated: The Prophet was not sent except to perfect human morals (Tohari, 2019, pp. 42–43). The word 'except' is then the subject of their discussion. Pak Tarya is of the opinion that the word 'except' gives an interpretation that the choice of the word requires people to interpret the next word, namely "perfect morality". Therefore, if the purpose of religion has shifted—that is, from moral enforcement to Sharia enforcement—the deviation will be found. Religious rites look lively, but these activities only bear ritual piety, not social piety (Tohari, 2019, pp. 42–49). So, honesty is an initial tool to realize a mental free from corrupt behavior, which becomes a real variable in the form of social piety. In relation to strengthening character education, honesty is an important keyword that must be instilled early on in students, the golden generation of Indonesia. It is hoped that early planting will become a culture embedded in their hearts that being dishonest is a very disgraceful act. The discussion about this author discusses in the next part of this article.

C. The Importance of Honesty as an Important Variable in Character Education

Articles on character education have been compiled by many experts and education experts in various articles. One of the interesting things for the authors to study is the definition presented by Setiawati (2017). According to him, character education can be interpreted as value education, character education, moral education, and character education which aims to develop student's abilities to make good and bad decisions, maintain goodness, and manifest and spread goodness in everyday life wholeheartedly. At the same time, this definition accommodates the importance of conscious effort with a serious intention so that each student can grow his character, and honesty is an important thing in this series. The next threatening behavior, corruption, can be avoided by building an honest attitude.

Honesty is one of the foundations that sustain a person from the temptation of corrupt behavior. It reminds the researcher of the view expressed by Hartsorne & May (see Lickona, 1992)—who revealed the "doctrine of specificity"—honesty and dishonesty committed by a person are very diverse and are determined by more specific situations (such as the level of risk that arises). Moreover, it is not simply defined in a consistent state that it is described as a "character". This provision must be conveyed to students at all levels of schooling, both in primary education, secondary education, and higher education. The conditions of the times that are tempted by hedonism and want everything to be easy, for example, are challenging. The character of students equipped with an honest attitude is expected to improve their personality. It is important because corrupt behavior does not only connote money. In the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel, Ahmad Tohari also conveys corrupt behavior in the field of education, especially in higher education, for example, through the manipulation of undergraduate degrees.

According to Tohari, someone who does not have the standard of intellectual intelligence, let alone emotional intelligence at the undergraduate level, but then officially gets a degree, both undergraduate and postgraduate. Of course, the degree obtained is not based on an academically accountable process but through fraud such as buying, attending distant classes, or fake lectures in a small town. The organizers are small colleges selling diplomas. With a title that should not be the right, they get a rise in staffing levels, salary, and other facilities. Suppose this manipulation occurs in thousands of employees at the central level to elementary school teachers. In that case, the shadow of the loss due to this covert corrupt behavior is certainly very large (Tohari, 2019, p. 61). In such a context, honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety is clearly illustrated in the story told in the *Orang-Orang Proyek* novel. Tohari's world view that hates cheating behavior through corruption can be clearly conveyed.

IV. Conclusion

Based on the results of the analysis that the author has done, at the end of this article, the researcher concludes as follows. For students, honest behavior is an attitude that must be an important part of the cultivation of character education. Honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety can strengthen character education for them as the golden generation of Indonesia. In everyday life, honest behavior is the main door that binds people's temptations to behave corruptly. To Pak Tarya, Kabul, and Basar figures, corruption is a primitive form of attitude to achieve certain goals incorrectly. On the other hand, through the figures of Dalkijo and Pak Baldun, it is also described that their greed is based on their selfish attitude. They have religious rites that only produce ritual piety because they have education and religion as well. Through the novel *Orang-Orang Proyek*, the author, Ahmad Tohari, conveyed a message of piety about honesty as a manifestation of the value of social piety.

References

[1] Achsani, F. (2018). Children's stories as media for shaping children's character. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, *1*(2), 53–64. https://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v1i2.9

[2] Azra, A. (2020). *Moderation of Islam in Indonesia: from teaching, worship, to behavior*. Kencana.

[3] Bisri, M. (1996). *Saleh ritual, salah sosial* [Ritual piety, social wrong]. Mizan.

[4] Cahyati, J. N., & Arifin, Z. (2021). The legend of Buka Luwur, the origin of dukuh pantaran as a media for character education. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, *4*(2), 205–218. https://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v4i2.177

[5] Damono, S. D. (1978). *Sosiologi sastra* [Sociology of literature]. Depdikbud RI.

[6] Faruq, F. (2017). The psychology of corruption in Ahmad Tohari's "orang-orang proyek" novel. *Lingua Franca*, *1*(2). Retrieved January 10, 2023, from http://journal.um-surabaya.ac.id/index.php/lingua/article/view/557

[7] Freeman, G. G. (2014). The implementation of character education and children’s literature to teach bullying characteristics and prevention strategies to preschool children: an action research project. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *42*(5), 305–316. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-013-0614-5

[8] Goldmann, L. (1980). *Essays on method in the sociology of literature*. Telos Press.

[9] Geertz, C. (1983). *Abangan, santri, priyayi dalam masyarkat Jawa* [Abangan, santri, priyayi in Javanese society]. Dunia Pustaka Jaya.

[10] Hart, P., Oliveira, G., & Pike, M. (2020). Teaching virtues through literature: learning from the ‘Narnian Virtues’ character education research. *Journal of Beliefs & Values*, *41*(4), 474–488. https://doi.org/10.1080/13617672.2019.1689544

[11] Herliany, D. R. (2018). Sastra suatu hari [Sastra suatu hari]. In *Sastra itu sederhana: kesaksian lintas profesi dan generasi (70 tahun Ahmad Tohari)* [Literature is simple: testimonies across professions and generations (70 years of Ahmad Tohari)]. Kepel Press.

[12] Hidayah, L. N., Hasjim, N., & Al-Ma’ruf, A. I. (2022). The value of nationalist and mutual cooperation characters in the novel “Guru Aini” by Andrea Hirata. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, *5*(2), 453–472. https://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v5i2.359

[13] Imron A.M., A., & Nugrahani, F. (2019). Strengthening pluralism in literature learning for character education of school students. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, *7*(3), 207–213. https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2019.7332

[14] Istiqomah, I. (2019). Construct validity of the social piety measuring instrument. *Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi Terapan*, *7*(1), 119–131. https://doi.org/10.22219/jipt.v7i1.7216

[15] Jonindo, R. (2017). Moral values in the novel Orang-Orang Proyek by Ahmad Tohari. *Diksatrasia*, *1*(2), 311–314. Retrieved January 10, 2023, from https://jurnal.unigal.ac.id/index.php/diksatrasia/article/view/635

[16] Jónsson, Ó. P., Harðarson, A., Sigurðardóttir, Þ. B., Jack, R., & Jóelsdóttir, S. S. (2021). Young people, old literature and

character education in Icelandic schools. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, *65*(2), 212–225. https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2019.1659407
[17] Kompas.com. (2022). *Kasus penipuan binomo: Indra Kenz jadi tersangka, Doni Salmanan dilaporkan* [Binomo fraud case: Indra Kenz becomes suspect, Doni Salmanan reported]. Retrieved January 10, 2023, from https://amp.kompas.com/nasional/read/2022/03/03/08401781/kasus-penipuan-binomo-indra-kenz-jadi-tersangka-doni-salmanan-dilaporkan
[18] Lickona, T. (1992). *Educating for character: how out schools can teach respect and responsibility*. Bantam.
[19] Lim, S., & Tan, K. (2022). Teaching descriptive writing via google classroom stream: perception among year 6 primary students. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *12*(4), 647–657. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1204.04
[20] Mahdijaya, M., Santika, Y., & Suyuthi, H. (2021). Moral values in the novel Orang-Orang Proyek by Ahmad Tohari. *Lateralisasi*, *9*(2), 93–107. https://doi.org/10.36085/lateralisasi.v9i2.2886
[21] Maisyaroh, M., Untari, S., Chusniyah, T., Adha, M. A., Prestiadi, D., & Ariyanti, N. S. (2023). Strengthening character education planning based on Pancasila value in the international class program. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education (IJERE)*, *12*(1), 149–156. https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v12i1.24161
[22] Mandra, M. A. B. (2018). Analysis of language style in the novel "orang-orang proyek" by Ahmad Tohari. *JIBS: Jurnal Ilmiah Bahasa Dan Sastra*, *5*(1), 35–47. https://doi.org/10.21067/jibs.v5i1.3177
[23] Muassomah, Abdullah, I., Istiadah, Mujahidin, A., Masnawi, N., & Sohrah. (2020). Believe in literature: character education for Indonesia's youth. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *8*(6), 2223–2231. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.080605
[24] Muchtarom, Z. (1988). *Santri dan abangan di Jawa* [Santri and abangan in Java]. Inis.
[25] Muhtar, T., Supriyadi, T., Lengkana, A. S., & Cukarso, S. H. I. (2021). Character education in physical education learning model: a bibliometric study on 2011-2020 scopus database. *International Journal of Human Movement and Sports Sciences*, *9*(6), 1189–1203. https://doi.org/10.13189/saj.2021.090613
[26] Mujahid, I. (2021). Islamic orthodoxy-based character education: creating moderate muslim in a modern pesantren in Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Islam and Muslim Societies*, *11*(2), 185–212. https://doi.org/10.18326/ijims.v11i2.185-212
[27] Muqit, A. (2019). The analysis of the socio-political fiction novels under binary opposition and deconstructive reading method (Case study of Indonesian novel entitled "orang-orang proyek" by Ahmad Tohari). *Informasi*, *49*(1), 65–76. https://doi.org/10.21831/informasi.v49i1.23728
[28] Mustakim, Elihami, Musdalifah, Baharuddin, & Emirati. (2020). Japanese non-verbal education communication by the main characters in the novel of totto-chan and the light on curtain of Sakura: An analysis of kinesics. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, *7*(9), 618–622. https://doi.org/10.31838/jcr.07.09.122
[29] Na, V., & Kobylko, J. (2020). Text semantic field method as a possibility of systemic approach to the study of literary text: on the material of the novel "Home of the gentry" by I. S. Turgenev. *RUDN Journal of Language Studies, Semiotics and Semantics*, *11*(3), 560–571. https://doi.org/10.22363/2313-2299-2020-11-3-560-571
[30] Novianti, N. (2017). Teaching character education to college students using bildungsromans. *International Journal of Instruction*, *10*(4), 255–272. https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2017.10415a
[31] Nugroho, S. B. M., Susilowati, I., Fachrunnisa, O., Prastyadewi, M. I., & Furoida, A. N. (2022). The role of mothers in anti-corruption education: The development of "BUTIKO" as knowledge-sharing virtual community. *Frontiers in Education*, *7*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2022.927943
[32] Nurhasanah, D. (2015). Lucien Goldmann's genetic structuralism in the novel "orang-orang proyek" by Ahmad Tohari. *Humaniora*, *6*(1), 135–146. https://doi.org/10.21512/humaniora.v6i1.3308
[33] Nuryatin, A., Rokhmansyah, A., Hawa, A. M., Rahmayanti, I., & Nugroho, B. A. (2023). Google classroom as an online learning media for Indonesian language learning during covid-19 pandemic. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *14*(1), 255–262. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1401.27
[34] Prasetyo, A. A. (2019). Resistance to power in the novel "orang-orang proyek" by Ahmad Tohari. *Prosiding Senasbasa*, 84–91. https://doi.org/10.22219/.v3i2.3074
[35] Prayitno, H. J., Sumardjoko, B., Apriyadi, H., Nasucha, Y., Sutopo, A., Ratih, K., Utammi, R. D., Ishartono, N., Yuniawan, T., & Rohmadi, M. (2020). The progressivist value of character education regarding social piety of K.H.A. Dahlan's teachings in Sang Pencerah's novel: A prophetic socio-pragmatic study. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, *12*(6), 66–90. https://www.ijicc.net/images/vol12/iss6/12606_Prayitno_2020_E_R.pdf
[36] Rakhman, A. (2022). *Character education in online mathematics learning during the Covid-19 pandemic*. 020006. https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0099718
[37] Rokhmansyah, A., Nuryatin, A., Supriyanto, T., & Setyaningsih, N. H. (2023). Gender performativity of characters in 2000s Indonesian novels. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *13*(1), 244–250. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1301.28
[38] Setiawati, N. A. (2017). Character education as a pillar of nation character building. *Prosiding Seminar Nasional Tahunan Fakultas Ilmu Sosial Universitas Negeri Medan*, 348–352. Retrieved January 10, 2023, from https://pdfcoffee.com/download/pendidikan-karakter-sebagai-pilar-pembentukan-karakter-bangsa-nanda-ayu-setiawati-pdf-free.html
[39] Sindonews.com. (2016). *Dimas Kanjeng dan budaya instan masyarakat Indonesia* [Dimas Kanjeng and Indonesia's instant culture]. Retrieved January 10, 2023, from https://nasional.sindonews.com/berita/1144635/16/dimas-kanjeng-dan-budaya-instan-masyarakat-indonesia
[40] Sobary, M. (2007). *Kesalehan sosial* [Social piety]. LKiS.
[41] Storozhenko, L., Yermolenko, D., & Gasii, G. (2018). Investigation of the deformation state of a composite cable space frame structures with a photogrammetric method. *International Journal of Engineering & Technology*, *7*(2.13), 442–446. https://doi.org/10.14419/ijet.v7i3.2.14568
[42] Sudjalil, S., Mujianto, G., & Rudi, R. (2022). Integration of character education through a pragmatic approach in online Indonesian learning. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, *5*(1), 49–70. Ittps://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v5i1.293

[43] Sukarno, S., Sularmi, S., & Surya, A. (2021). Profile of character education in Indonesian elementary schools during the covid-19 pandemic. *ICLIQE 2021: Proceeding of The 5th International Conference on Learning Innovation and Quality Education*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1145/3516875.3517009
[44] Tohari, A. (2019). *Orang-orang proyek* [Project people]. Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
[45] Wibowo, A., Rokhmansyah, A., & Dahlan, D. (2021). A tragic worldview in the Bima tribe legend "Wadu Ntanda Rahi" in Bima city West Nusa Tenggara. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, *4*(3), 335–350. https://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v4i3.283
[46] Widiyani, R. (2021). *Pengertian jujur dalam Islam, manfaat, dan ciri-cirinya* [Definition of honesty in Islam, its benefits, and characteristics]. Detikedu. Retrieved January 10, 2023, from https://www.detik.com/edu/detikpedia/d-5697166/pengertian-jujur-dalam-islam-manfaat-dan-ciri-cirinya
[47] Yusuf, A. A. (2007). *Implementation of social piety in the perspective of sociology and the Quran*. Humaniora Utama Press.

Teguh Prakoso is a doctoral student in Language Education at Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. He is also listed as a lecturer at Indonesian Language and Literature Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Indonesia Open University. Undergraduate education was completed at IKIP Semarang in 1998 with the title of best graduate. Meanwhile, the master's degree was completed at the Literature Study Program, Gadjah Mada University, in 2006 with the Cum Laude predicate. Apart from holding structural positions in several work units at Indonesia Open University, he is active in writing in various mass media, such as the Jawa Pos and Suara Merdeka newspapers, as well as national journals within the scope of literary criticism.

Agus Nuryatin is a professor of literature at the Faculty of Language and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang. He completed his undergraduate education in Diponegoro University (1987). He studied master's in literature in Universitas Indonesia (2001). As for his doctoral education in the field of Language Education, he obtained from the Postgraduate Program of Universitas Negeri Semarang, 2008 ago. Apart from teaching at the Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Negeri Semarang, he is also active in writing books and scientific works, both in national journals and reputable international journals.

Teguh Supriyanto is a professor of Javanese literature at the Faculty of Language and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang. He completed his undergraduate education at the Department of Regional Literature (Javanese Literature) at Sebelas Maret University (UNS), Surakarta and graduated as a literature scholar in 1986. It was during his studies at UNS that he rediscovered his hobby of puppeteering and the many ancient Javanese textbooks he read during his undergraduate studies. In 1994, he continued his master's degree in literature at UGM. He earned a Doctorate in Humanities in the field of literature in 2006 at Gadjah Mada University. Apart from teaching at the Department of Javanese Language and Literature, State University of Semarang, he is also active in writing books and scientific works, both in national journals and reputable international journals.

Nas Haryati Setyaningsih is a doctor in literary studies at the Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang. He completed his undergraduate education at Yogyakarta State University and graduated in 1981. Her master's education was taken at Universitas Negeri Semarang in 2002. He obtained his doctorate degree in 2018 at Universitas Negeri Semarang. Apart from teaching at the Department of Indonesian Language and Literature, Universitas Negeri Semarang, she is also active in writing books and scientific works, both in national journals and reputable international journals.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1038-1047, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.26

Impact of Online vs. On-Campus Classes on Academic Performance of EFL Learners' Speaking Skills

Mariam Yousef Abduh
Department of English, College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Najran, Saudi Arabia

Mohammad Owais Khan
Department of English, College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Najran, Saudi Arabia

***Abstract*—Academic performance is an essential component of assessing the success of educational programs. During the coronavirus lockdown, educational institutions worldwide changed their methods of teaching to suit the new online mode of teaching. Consequently, many students, particularly EFL learners' academic performance have been affected. This study reports the findings of online teaching's impact on learners' academic performance in the speaking course at the English Department, Najran University. This is mainly attempted through a comparison of students' academic performance in online teaching mode in speaking courses during the Coronavirus lockdown with that of on-campus teaching mode before the Covid-19 lockdown. Data for the study were collected from the scores of the students in speaking skills, which included grades for the final exams. The data were collected from the participants (N = 80 students), 40 males + 40 females, who received instructions via both the on-campus and online teaching modes. The results of the study revealed that the variability in both modes of teaching was very distinct. Students' grades in the on-campus mode of teaching did vary too much from grades in the online teaching mode. The scores of both modes of teaching similarly varied from A, B, C, D, and from failed, deprived, absentee, and withdrawn students. However, it has been found that the majority of the students performed better in the online teaching mode than on-campus.**

***Index Terms*—academic performance, online teaching, on-campus teaching, speaking skills**

I. Introduction

Research on the effect of online versus on-campus classes on the academic performance of EFL learners has been conducted during COVID-19, and speaking skills are no exception. A blend of technology in teaching and learning has recently been considered a boom in ELT pedagogy. As Manon (2019) concludes, technology is prevalent today, and while a gadget may not always be able to entirely replace a teacher, a teacher who uses technology is more likely to do so than a teacher who does not. ELT professionals were compelled to switch from the on-campus classroom to the distance education model of online teaching and learning. Distance education dates back to the 1960s. It first took the form of broadcast media initially used as a support for printed materials, then in use in on-campus classrooms. However, with the advent of the internet and new technologies, distance education saw significant changes. It has now become one of the most valuable resources in educational settings. It has transformed the way content and information are presented to learners. Today's world is changing, and it is open to new experiences and opportunities. The scope and reach of education have been greatly expanded by the implementation of online courses. Online learning is one of the fastest-growing methods of teaching and learning. The researchers compared the effects of online and on-campus classes on EFL students to accomplish the following research objectives.

II. Problem of the Study

The effect of online learning vs. on-campus learning on students' academic achievement has been the subject of much research. Online classes are conducted using a variety of teaching and learning systems. Online platforms are used to develop students' language skills in general and speaking skills in particular. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, Najran University has not undertaken any studies on the speaking performances of EFL students. This study aims to:

- ❖ get insights into the teachers' evaluation of the learners' academic performance before and during the coronavirus lockdown.
- ❖ determine whether there are significant differences in the learners' grades between the two modes of teaching in the speaking course and
- ❖ determine whether there are significant differences in absent, deprived, and withdrawn students between on-campus and online classes.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many researchers like Bourelle et al. (2016) today have the firm belief that there are no significant differences between online and on-campus teaching and learning. More importantly, compared to their on-campus counterparts, as claimed by some studies, online learners obtained better results (Zhang et al., 2004).

Recently, speaking competence in English has been given great prominence in many educational programs (Bygate, 2001). However, the teaching of speaking is problematic for many teachers due to the complexity of spoken communication and the lack of agreement about the types of approaches to be used in teaching speaking.

Teaching speaking skills efficiently requires using effective methods of teaching. Methods of teaching language skills in regular classes and online are similar in the sense that the same methods can be used to achieve the same goals in both modes of teaching. What makes methods of teaching successful is the way of delivering them, supporting the task, and maintaining engagement and participation. However, the most obvious difference between online and on-campus teaching is the absence of physical interaction between teachers and learners and among learners themselves in online classes. As online learning is closely related to learner-centered methods, teachers' responsibilities lie in monitoring and directing students to practice their speaking skills in real-life activities that enhance interaction. In addition, it enables them to acquire these two crucial skills effectively and facilitates learning. According to Richards (2008), frequently used teaching methods may include getting learners to participate in class, demonstrating their comprehension of language, recitation, memorization, or a mixture of these.

Several studies on the teaching of language skills indicate that the online education offered by the new technology has provided great opportunities for wide-ranging developments in the teaching of these language skills, particularly speaking (Dudeney et al., 2013; Mauranen, 2004; Mottram, 2013).

Yang and Chen (2014) stated that teaching language skills using web-based tools such as online forums, weblogs, and email increased the interaction between learners and their use of pragmatic skills and enhanced their linguistic competence and intercultural knowledge. Dudeney et al. (2013) used the term "digital literacies" to define the "individual and social skills needed to effectively interpret, manage, share, and create meaning in the growing range of digital communication channels" and offer a wide range of activities that teachers can use to implement technology into their teaching of language skills.

There is an increasing number of studies investigating the impact of using new technologies in facilitating the teaching of language skills, particularly speaking skills. This has led most educators to move from on-campus to online learning environments for the teaching of speaking skills.

According to Fakhruddin (2019), students’ speaking abilities can be enhanced by using the Google Meet platform. The rise in speaking proficiency achievement serves as a good indicator of this development. Additionally, students' self-confidence rises as well.

According to a study by Harunasari et al. (2021), the availability of online material, effective time management, and an internet connection are necessary conditions for online learning to be effective.

Firmansyah and Minandar (2021) state that there are a lot of difficulties in implementing online learning, including objections from both instructors and students.

On the other hand, online learning has its pros and cons. The biggest advantage of online learning is its increased flexibility. Students can learn where they want and when they want, regardless of place and time constraints, which offers better chances for education in all circumstances, especially during times of crisis. Sagheb-Tehrani (2008) assessed the advantages and disadvantages of online learning in the higher education environment. He states that flexibility is the best advantage of online education. Cole and Spence (2012) stated that, regarding the speaking course, interaction among students is higher in online teaching compared to on-campus teaching. Arias et al. (2018) remarked that online education is also well suited for non-traditional students who need flexibility because of obligations related to their jobs or families that are not often shared by undergraduate students.

Compared to the limited classroom material, online learning offers plenty of resources on the internet. It provides a wider range of materials that are easily accessible. In addition, when it comes to teaching language skills like speaking, the focus will be greater on practicing speaking comprehension skills. It may prompt learners to be more attentive and alert to the speaking tasks, leading to much faster development than in on-campus classes. Rodrigues and Vethamani (2015), for instance, explored the effectiveness of an online learning approach that could affect the speaking proficiency of ESL learners. Researchers report that the use of online learning programs shows greater language proficiency and stronger self-confidence among ESL learners in developing speaking skills.

However, there are several disadvantages to online education as well. One of the biggest disadvantages is the lack of physical interaction between teachers and learners and among learners themselves. On-campus classes may have a great opportunity to offer better physical interactions. In addition, online education can increase the level of apprehension and stress among learners. Vijay (2020) compares on-campus and online education during the coronavirus lockdown from the learners' perspective. The findings state that the majority of students claim that online learning is stressful and that online classes have a decreased level of discipline.

Moreover, teachers and learners may experience several technical and internet connection problems, which may impede or delay the teaching and learning process. Coman et al. (2020) explored learners' perspectives on online education during the COVID-19 lockdown. The researchers state that technical issues are the most crucial problem encountered, followed by teachers' lack of technical experience. The current study was guided through the following research questions.

IV. Methodology

A. Research Questions

- What are the insights from the teachers' evaluation of the learners' academic performance before and during the coronavirus lockdown?
- Are there significant differences in the learners' grades between the two modes of teaching in the speaking course?
- Are there significant differences in absent, deprived, and withdrawn students between on-campus and online classes?

B. Data for the Study

The data was gathered from the final grades of the 80 undergraduate students of both genders who studied language skill courses before and during the COVID-19 pandemic.

C. Research Instrument

The final test scores of undergraduate students are utilized as the study's tool to assess their academic performance.

D. Participants

The researchers categorized the participants as 40 males: 20 students who took on-campus speaking courses in the academic year 2018-2019 before the coronavirus lockdown, and 20 of them who were enrolled in the online speaking course during the academic year 2020-2021 during the lockdown period. Similarly, other 40 samples were taken from females (20 students who were taught through the on-campus mode of teaching in the academic year 2018-2019 before the Covid-19 lockdown and other 20 samples who received the online mode of teaching in 2020-2021, during the coronavirus lockdown. This study used a qualitative approach to achieve its objectives.

E. Linguistic Background of Participants

These students were studying for a BA degree in the English Language. Their English proficiency can be described as intermediate. The students in both on-campus and online modes were taught the same contents by the same instructor and had the same learning objectives.

F. Limitation of the Study

Like other research studies, the present research also has some limitations. The investigation examined only one language skill—the "speaking skill"—at each of the three undergraduate levels. To limit the scope of the study, other skills like "listening, reading, and writing" were deliberately not included.

G. Demographic Analysis

The students' final grades in speaking courses in both on-campus and online teaching are compared to find out the academic performance of the students. The division of the participants according to the levels of their speaking courses is given below in a tabulated format.

Table 1
Distribution of Female Students from Level I-III On-Campus Mode

Level	Course Type	Section No.	No. of students
Level I	On campus	4	04
Level II	On campus	17	07
Level III	On campus	28	09
Total			20

Distribution of Female Students from Level I-III Online Mode

Level	Course Type	Section No.	No. of students
Level I	Online	3	04
Level II	Online	9	11
Level III	Online	18	05
Total			20
Grand Total			40

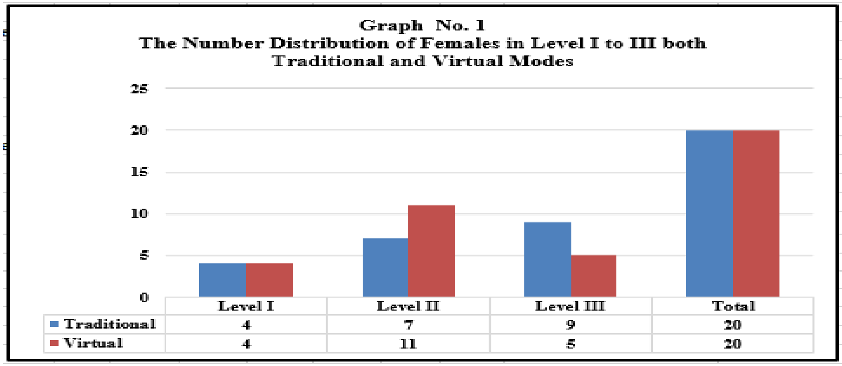
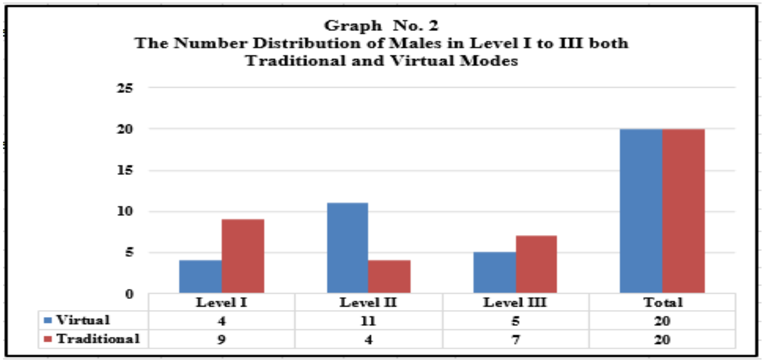


TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF MALE STUDENTS FROM LEVEL I-III ON-CAMPUS MODE

Level	Course Type	Section No.	No. of students
Level I	On campus	99	09
Level II	On campus	163	04
Level III	On campus	113	07
Total			20

DISTRIBUTION OF MALE STUDENTS FROM LEVEL I-III ONLINE MODE

Level	Course Type	Section No.	No. of students
Level I	Online	64	04
Level II	Online	91	11
Level III	Online	93	05
Total			20
Grand Total			40



According to the above tables and graphs No. 1 and 2, scores of 80 students (40 females and 40 males) were selected by the researchers for the analysis of the study. The evaluations were taken from different levels of speaking courses and ranged as follows: Level 1 (25.25%), Level 2 (41.25%), and Level 3 (32.5%).

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

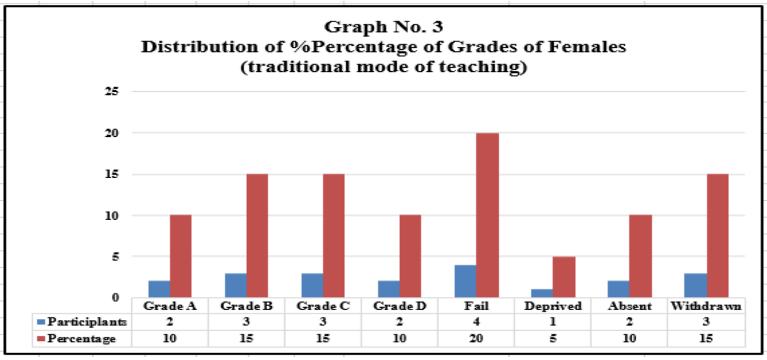
This research compared the academic performance of the students who took speaking courses at all three levels through on-campus teaching modes to the students who were enrolled in online teaching modes during the coronavirus lockdown. We recognized the differences and similarities between the two modes of teaching. The data were analysed, interpreted, and tabulated in tables, graphs, and charts to find out the accurate academic performance of both teaching modes. The data of the study were divided into four sections (Section A, B, C, and Section D) to analyze the academic performance of the students in both online and on-campus modes. The details of the sections are given below:

*Section A***:** A consolidated grade of the female students, including deprived, absentees, and withdrawn, who took the on-campus mode of teaching in the academic session 2018-2019, before the coronavirus lockdown, is shown below.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADES OF FEMALES
(ON-CAMPUS MODE OF TEACHING)

Grades	N	Percentage
Grade A	02	10.00%
Grade B	03	15.00%
Grade C	03	15.00%
Grade D	02	10.00%
Fail	04	20.00%
Deprived	01	5.00%
Absent	02	10.00%
Withdrawn	03	15.00%
Total No. no of Samples	20	100.00%
Mean	2.42	12.14%
Standard Deviation	0.86	04.33

Table 3 displays the grades of the total number of female students who enrolled in on-campus speaking courses. Out of 20 students, 2 students secured grade A, 3 students grade B, 3 students grade C, and 2 of them obtained grade D, whereas 4 students failed, 1 of them was deprived, 2 students were absent, and 3 students withdrew from the course. The highest percentage was achieved by failed students with 20% of the overall results, whereas the smallest percentage was obtained by deprived students with 5%. The mean (average) was 2.42, and the standard deviation was 0.86.



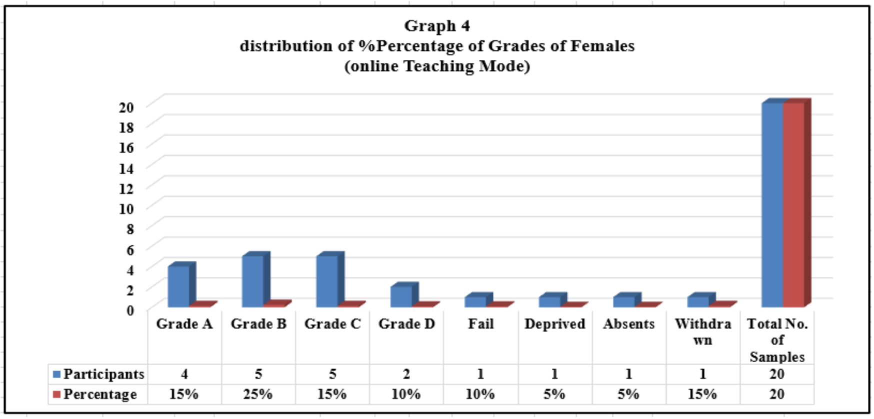
The above graph displays the percentage of female students' grades who took on-campus speaking courses. 10% of the students secured an A, 15% of them got a B, 15% obtained a C, and 10% got a D, while 20% of them failed; 5% of the students were deprived, 10% were absent, and 15% of the students withdrew from the course.

(Section B): A consolidated grade of the female students including deprived, absentees, and withdrawn who received online mode of teaching in the academic session 2020-2021 in the course of the coronavirus lockdown is given below:

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADES OF FEMALES
(ONLINE MODE OF TEACHING)

Grades	N	Percentage%
Grade A	04	20%
Grade B	05	25%
Grade C	05	25%
Grade D	02	10%
Fail	01	5%
Deprived	01	5%
Absents	01	5%
Withdrawn	01	5%
Total No. of Samples	20	100%
Mean	2.5	13%
Standard Deviation	1.22	9%

Table 4 presents the results of section B, the grades of the total number of female students enrolled in online English-speaking courses. Out of 20 students 4 students, secured grade A, 5 students grade B, 5 students grade C, and 2 of them obtained a grade D, whereas 1 student each failed, deprived, absent, and withdrew from the course. The highest percentage was occupied by grades B and C with 25% of the overall results, while the smallest percentage was achieved by absentee, failed, deprived, and withdrawn students with 5% each. The mean (average) was 2.5, and the standard deviation was 1.73.



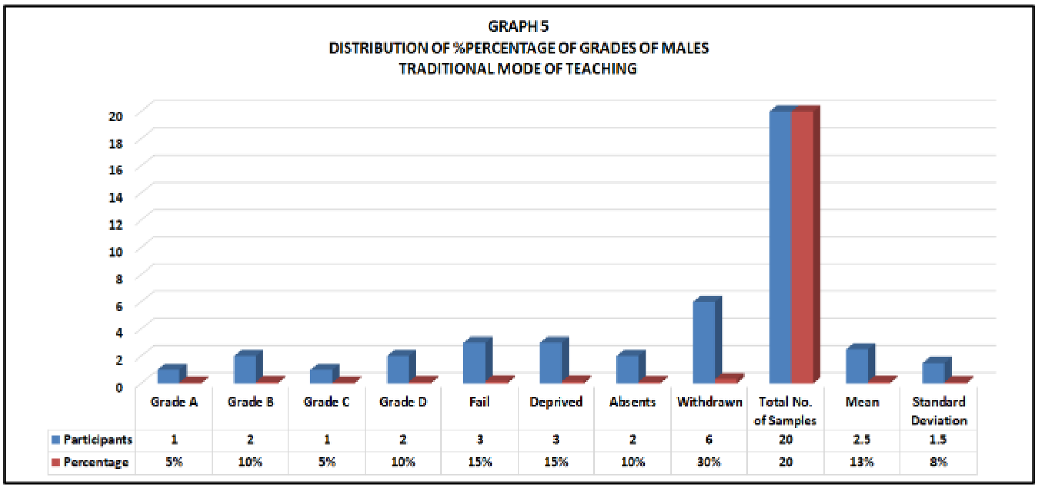
Graph 4 states the percentage of female students' grades who took online English-speaking courses. 15% of the students' secured grades A, 25% each obtained grades B and C, 10% got D grades while failed, deprived, absentee, and withdrew students got 5% each.

Section C: A consolidated grade of the male students, including deprived, absentees, and withdrawn, who were taught through the on-campus teaching mode in the academic session 2018-2019, before the coronavirus lockdown, is shown below:

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADES OF MALES
(ON-CAMPUS MODE OF TEACHING)

Grades	N	Percentage%
Grade A	01	5%
Grade B	02	10%
Grade C	01	5%
Grade D	02	10%
Fail	03	15%
Deprived	03	15%
Absents	02	5%
Withdrawn	06	30%
Total No. of Samples	20	100%
Mean	2.5	13%
Standard Deviation	1.5	8%

Table 5 explores the grades of the total number of male students who took on-campus speaking courses. Out of 20 students, 1 student secured a grade A, 2 students a grade B, 1 student a grade C, and 2 of them obtained a grade D, whereas 3 of them failed, 3 students were deprived, 1 of them was absent, and 6 students withdrew from the course. The maximum percentage was achieved by withdrawn students with 30% of the overall results, while the smallest percentage was achieved by students in grade C with 5%. The mean (average) and standard deviation were 2.5 and 1.5, respectively.



Graph 5 shows the percentage of male students grades who were enrolled in the on-campus mode of speaking course. According to the findings, 5% of the students secured an A, 10% of them got a B, 5% obtained a C, and 10% got a D, while 15% of them failed and 15% of the males were deprived 10% of them were absent from the examination; and 30% of the students withdrew from the course.

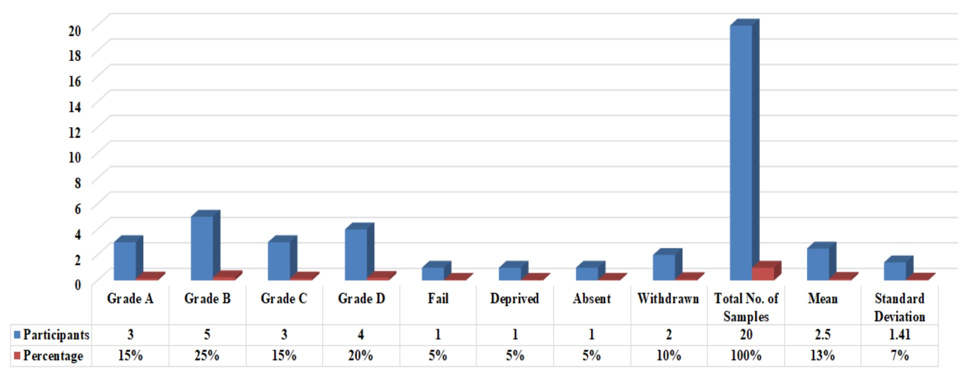
Section D: A consolidated grade of the male students, including deprived, absentees, and withdrawn, who were enrolled in online teaching mode in the academic session 2020-2021 in the course of the coronavirus lockdown is given below.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADES OF MALES
(ONLINE MODE OF TEACHING)

Grades	N	Parentage%
Grade A	03	15%
Grade B	05	25%
Grade C	03	15%
Grade D	04	20%
Fail	01	5%
Deprived	01	5%
Absent	01	5%
Withdrawn	02	10%
Total No. of Samples	20	100%
Mean	2.5	13%
Standard Deviation	0.70	7%

Section D of the analysis throws light on the grades of the total number of male students who received online speaking courses. Out of 20 students, 3 students secured grade A, 5 students grade B, 3 students grade C, and 4 of them obtained a grade D, whereas 1 of them failed, 1 was deprived, 1 of them was absent from the examination, and 2 students withdrew from the course. The highest percentage was achieved by the students who secured grades B with 25% of the overall results, while the lowest percentage was achieved by failed, deprived, and absent students with 5%. The mean (average) and standard deviation were 2.5 and 0.70, respectively.

GRAPH 6
DISTRIBUTION OF %PERCENTAGE OF GRADES OF MALES
(ONLINE TEACHING MODE)



Graph 6 states the percentage of male students' grades who took the online speaking course. 15% of the students secured an A, 25% of them got a B, 15% obtained C, and 20% got D grades, whereas 5% of them failed, 5% of the males were deprived, 5% of them were absent in the exams, and 10% withdrew from the course.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

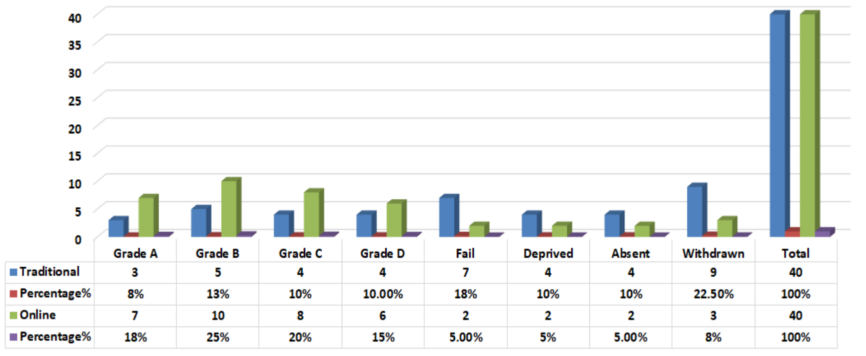
The present study aimed to investigate the impact of online vs. on-campus classes the academic performance of EFL learners' speaking skills. Next, the study made an effort to report on how Najran University students perceived the amalgamation of online classrooms into the learning process for a speaking course. 80 students from the English department are involved in this study to accomplish these goals. For the analysis of the consolidated results, researchers selected an equal number of students from both modes of teaching to compare the academic performance of the students. The variability in both modes of teaching was very small. In other words, grades in the on-campus mode of teaching did vary too much from grades in the online teaching mode. The findings of this study are aligned with those of McBrien et al. (2009), who obtained similar results. According to the findings of the study, the synchronous online system provided a variety of communication channels that boosted interaction and communication. However, the current research witnessed scores of both modes of teaching varied into A, B, C, D, and failed, deprived, absentees, and withdrawn students.

The study's findings also explained that the students who took online programs significantly outperformed those who took on-campus classes in speaking skills courses. These findings are partially aligned with Cakiroglu's (2014) study, which evaluated students' perspectives on online classrooms. The findings of the study discovered that Saudi English students improved significantly in fluency and pronunciation in addition to developing other areas like information organization, grammar, and vocabulary in online classes. In other words, the online classes were more effective at teaching speaking skills than the on-campus classes. The results also showed that the participants had a favorable opinion of the use of online classes, particularly in terms of accessibility, an extension of the class period, a sense of connection with the teacher, and the development of target language abilities. The online classes also provided students with fun, enjoyment, satisfaction, and experience, which were essential sources for active participation. The study's findings also point to the possibility that online courses can help students develop their speaking skills. It has been found that the majority of the students performed better in the online teaching mode than the on-campus one. See the following table and graph:

TABLE 7
PERCENTAGE OF CONSOLIDATED SCORES OF BOTH THE MODES OF TEACHING

Mode/ Percentage	Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Grade D	Failed	Deprived	Absent	Withdrawn	Total
On-campus	03	05	04	04	07	04	04	09	40
Percentage	7.5%	12.5%	10%	10%	17.5%	10%	10%	22.5%	100%
Online	07	10	08	06	02	02	02	03	40
Percentage	17.5%	25%	20%	15%	5%	5%	5%	7.5%	100%

Graph 7
Percentage of Consolidated Scores of both the Modes of Teaching



According to the above table, out of 40 students, 40% of the students who took on-campus classes secured passing grades, while 77.5% of the students who took online classes, obtained passing grades in all A, B, C, and D. As far as absentees and deprived students were concerned, there was not a big difference between them in both modes, but there was a variance between the students who failed and withdrew from the on-campus mode of teaching, i.e., 17% and 22.5%, respectively. The above percentage illustrates that the highest percentage of students withdrew, and a large number of students failed the final examinations in the on-campus mode of teaching in comparison to the online one.

The finding of this investigation shows that using new techniques while maintaining the good aspects of previous strategies positively affects students' academic performance. On-campus or on-campus methods had their strong points, like the stability, the security, and in particular roles of the instructors. Instructors most certainly and unquestionably play a crucial part in online teaching. They work with individual and group discussions, reply to students' questions, plan course tasks, and assess students' learning.

The evaluation reports of the students and the analysis of the data showed some reasons to clarify the significant differences in the academic performance of the students in on-campus classes. Some of the reasons are given below:

- ❖ Some students were not regular, and they were absent from many exams as they lived far away from the university campus.
- ❖ In some sections, such as Section 99, a very large number of students were deprived because they were irregular in their classes and their attendance did not reach the required percentage of the university, i.e., 75%, so students were deprived and could not appear in the examination.

Reasons for the good academic performance of the students in speaking in online classes are:

- ❖ Hundreds of students who belong to different parts of Saudi Arabia are sometimes unable to come to the campus to attend on-campus classes. But online lectures are easily accessible countrywide. Students can join classes from any part of the country.
- ❖ Some students feel hesitant while speaking in English; they can easily communicate online as they are better speaking online than in on-campus communication.
- ❖ Online courses are easier for students to take than on-campus courses.

Online teaching methods have their shortcomings too. For example, learning through online mode is limited to bookish knowledge, text assignments, and quizzes. It does not include live and real learning interaction. At the point when the power is out or when the network speed is low, it is hard to get to online courses. Web-based teaching likewise needs a powerful internet connection all the time. Moreover, when the students attempt an internet-based test, the instructor cannot feel completely sure if the actual students are attempting the test. In any case, it does not imply that web-based teaching and learning do not have advantages. Although online teaching methods do not appear to be earnestly acknowledged by a few researchers, the benefits may bring significant innovation to the field of teaching globally.

The findings of the present study will help course designers and curriculum developers for both online and on-campus teaching programs to re-manage and re-design the methods and curriculum according to the needs of the hour.

Recommendation for future research:

This type of exhaustive research should be carried out in all educational institutions and universities worldwide. The results of these studies and data will help all educators and administrators of the institutions regulate the weak and strong points of their online and on-campus modes of education. They should review and restructure their online education system according to the needs of the learners. Universities and educational institutions can provide solutions to ease their glitches in both modes of teaching and achieve excellence in education, which can be beneficial for all students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The article was made possible through Fund No. NU/RG/SEHRC/11/1 by the deanship of scientific research, Najran University, Najran, Saudi Arabia.

REFERENCES

[1] Arias, J.J., Swinton, J., & Anderson, K. (2018). On-line vs. face-to-face: A comparison of student outcomes with random assignment. *e-Journal of Business Education and Scholarship of Teaching*, *12*(2), 1–23.

[2] Bourelle, A., Bourelle, T., Knutson, A. V., & Spong, S. (2016). Sites of multimodal literacy: Comparing student learning in online and on-campus environments. Computers and Composition: *An International Journal for Teachers of Writing, 39,* 55-70. ODI:10.1016/j.compcom.2015.11.003

[3] Bygate, M. (2001). Speaking. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 14–20). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[4] Cakiroglu, U. (2014). Evaluating Students' Perspective about Online Classrooms with regard to Seven Principles of Good Practice. *South Africa Journal of Education, 34*(2), 1-18.

[5] Cole, J. S., & Spence, S. W. (2012). Using continuous assessment to promote student engagement in a large class. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, *37*(5), 508-525.

[6] Coman. C., Țîru, L.G., Meseșan-Schmitz. L., Stanciu. C., and Bularca. M.C. (2020). *Online Teaching and Learning in Higher Education during the Coronavirus Pandemic: Students' Perspective Sustainability, 12*(24). *10367.* https://doi.org/10.3390/su122410367

[7] Dudeney, G., Hockly, N., & Pegrum, M. (2013). *Digital literacies*. London: Pearson.

[8] Fakhruddin, A. (2019). Using Google Meet in Teaching Speaking. *Journal of English Language Learning (JELL), 2*(2), 43-46.

[9] Firmansyah, H., & Minandar, F. (2021). The Use of Madarsah E-Learning for Online Learning During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Al-Ishlah: Jurnal Pendidikan, 13*(1), 530-542. DOI: 10.35445/alishlah. V13i1.503.

[10] Harunasari, S.Y., Dwigustini, R., Halim, N., & Susilawati. (2021). University Students' Acceptance of Online Learning During the Pandemic in Indonesia. *Al-Ishlah@ Jurnal Pendidikan, 13*(1), 396-406. DOI:10.35445/alishlah.v1.491.

[11] Manon, S. A. (2019). Designing Online Materials for Blended Learning: Optimizing on Book Widgets. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Translation, 2*(3), 166-174.

[12] Mauranen, A. (2004). Speech corpora in the classroom. In G. Aston, S. Bernardini, & D. Stewart (Eds.), *Corpora and language learners* (pp. 195–212). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[13] McBrien, L., Jones, P., & Cheng, R. (2009). Online Spaces: Employing a Synchronous Online Classroom to Facilitate Student Engagement in Online Learning. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning, 10*(3), 1-11.

[14] Mottram, G. (Ed.) (2013). *Innovations in language learning technologies for English language teaching.* London: The British Council.

[15] Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

[16] Rodrigues, P. D., & Vethamani, M. E. (2015). The Impact of Online Learning in the Development of Speaking Skills. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Research in Education (JIRE), 5*(1), 43–67.

[17] Sagheb-Tehrani, M. (2008). Distance learning: a case study. *International Journal of Management in Education, 2*(4), 445-466.

[18] Vijay. R. (2020). Comparative evaluation of COVID-19 pandemic enforced online teaching versus face-to-face teaching from the point of view of medical students. *International Journal of Basic & Clinical Pharmacology. 10*(1), 36-43. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.18203/2319-2003.ijbcp20205535.

[19] Yang, S.C., & Chen, J.J. (2014). Fostering foreign language learning through technology-enhanced intercultural projects. *Language Learning & Technology, 18*(1), 57–75.

[20] Zhang, D., Zhao, J.L., Zhou, L., & Nunamaker, J. (2004). Can e-learning replace classroom learning? *Commun. ACM, 47,* 75-79. DOI:10.1145/986213.986216.

Mariam Yousef Abduh is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics (ELT), currently working at the College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. Before that, she worked as an assistant professor and a trainer for pre-service teachers at Hodeidah University, Yemen, and was also an internal examiner for some master's students' dissertations.

Mohammad Owais Khan has been teaching as an Associate Professor at the Department of English, College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Najran, KSA. He is a member of the Department and Research Council, College of Languages, Najran University. He received his B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees in English from Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, India. He has done the PGCTE (Post Graduate Certificate Course in Teaching English) from EFLU (the English and Foreign Languages University) Hyderabad, India. Dr. Khan started his teaching career as a lecturer at the Department of English, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, U.P., India. His field of specialization is ELT (English Language Teaching) particularly (ESL/EFL) Second/Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics. His areas of interest are Applied Linguistics, Teaching Language through Literature, Phonetics and Phonology, Curriculum, and Syllabus Design.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1048-1056, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.27

Investigating Second Language Request Strategies by a Chinese Undergraduate Student Majoring in Business English

Qiudong Li
Department of Liberal Arts, Foshan Open University, Foshan, China

***Abstract*—Making requests is one of the most commonplace pragmatic behaviors in daily interactions. This present paper attempts to specifically examine the use of second language (L2) request strategies by a single English major in China. By providing four different role-play scenarios in which relative power (+/–P) and social distance (+/–D) were deliberately designed as the contextual constraints, while low ranking of imposition (–R) was kept constant, this case study elicited and audio-recorded the participant's conversational data via WeChat. Drawing upon the coding scheme developed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), the study showcased that the participant was inclined to chiefly employ conventionally indirect requests and more external modification devices than internal ones in all the role-plays. In addition, the participant's inappropriate adoption of direct requests in the first and third role-plays and written responses to the follow-up survey questions suggested that he was not conscious of the contextual variables at all when performing requests. In conclusion, some pedagogical recommendations are proposed to enhance L2 learners' pragmatic competence by integrating pragmatic instruction into English language classes.**

***Index Terms*—request strategies, an English major in China, role-play, WeChat, case study**

I. Introduction

In the field of second language (L2) pragmatics, pragmatic competence has gained more and more attention from researchers, teachers, and material developers, especially with the growing development of L2 speech act theory in recent years. One of the commonest ways of assessing L2 learners' pragmatic competence depends, to a large extent, on if they can adopt effective strategies to realize a speech act in varying situational contexts.

Request is the most widely investigated speech act in literature (Ren, 2022), which may be defined as "attempts on the part of a speaker to get a hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action" (Ellis, 2008, p. 172), and falls under a type of directives based on Searle's (1976) classification of speech acts. To put it tersely, making a request is asking the hearer to do something for the speaker. In nature, request is a face-threatening act. As such, the requester needs to employ polite strategies to minimize imposition on the hearer. According to Brown et al. (1987), speech act strategies are constrained by three contextual variables: relative power (P), social distance (D), and ranking of imposition (R). It should be noted that L2 requesting strategies are also influenced by cultural contexts. For instance, Chinese culture attaches much importance to face, particularly positive face to boost community solidarity (Lee-Wong, 1994), whereas British culture has its unique request strategies to save an individual's face. Therefore, it is of necessity to study how an English request is made by Chinese students in different situational contexts.

Inspired by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) seminal project of *A Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns* (CCSARP), in which they developed an analytic framework of realizing requests and apologies in terms of directness level and modification devices, a large body of request research has been conducted on how non-native speakers converge on or diverge from native speakers in producing English requests as regards specific modification strategies, the comparisons among different data elicitation methods, and so forth. However, few studies have shed an in-depth insight into the pragmatic competence of a specific learner of English. Accordingly, by dint of open role-plays in conjunction with survey questions, the present empirical study intends to explore how a Chinese undergraduate student majoring in Business English performed requests in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) contexts.

II. Literature Review

A. Previous Studies on EFL Requests

Even though English is used extensively worldwide, cross-cultural miscommunication still exists, which used to be attributed to learners' insufficient linguistic knowledge. But speakers' pragmatic failure can possibly lead to miscommunication either due to pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic factors (LoCastro, 2011). In order to compare the differences of request and apology realization strategies between Hebrew native speakers and non-native speakers, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) launched a cross-cultural project to investigate speech act realization patterns. Using a discourse completion test (DCT), they established influential patterns of speech act strategies with respect to directness level, speaker- or hearer-oriented perspectives, and modifications.

Subsequently, their project spurred a boom in comparative studies regarding how differently English native speakers and non-native speakers make requests in EFL contexts. For instance, Yang (2009) compared request realization strategies between 21 Chinese and 55 American graduate students through a modified DCT with 14 situations. A chi-square test found that these participants differed significantly at the level of directness use and scenarios with great imposition, but no significant differences were identified in scenarios with relative power. In like manner, using a written DCT consisting of scenarios with unequal social status, Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) scrutinized the way 89 advanced learners of English and 87 English native speakers performed requests. Results of chi-square analysis indicated significant differences between the two groups with reference to perspectives, external, and internal modifications. The follow-up interview and verbal report also corroborated these findings. Wang (2011) compared 32 high-proficient Chinese learners of English, 41 intermediate Chinese EFL learners in a business program, and 32 Australian students in ten request situations. The DCT data revealed that both learner groups differed significantly from native speakers only in the use of non-conventionally and conventionally indirect requests. Furthermore, learner groups made use of more address terms and external modifications, as well as limited internal modifications caused by syntactic and lexical incompetence.

Some researchers dealt focally with specific mitigating devices. For example, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2009) canvassed Greek EFL university students' lexical downgrades and external supportive motives to mitigate requests. In comparison with native speakers of English, she found that Greek students underused lexical downgrades like *please*, *possible* and overused such external modification strategies as *really need*, *could*, *was/were wondering if*. These findings also substantiated Wang's (2011) research outcomes. Lin (2009) probed into the preparatory modals under the conventionally indirect requests by 180 college students, including Chinese learners of English, English native speakers, and Chinese native speakers. It was found that EFL learners and native speakers displayed the same preference order of three modal verbs: *can/could*, *will/would*, *may*, indicating that Chinese EFL learners acquired the target-like requesting in preparatory modals.

To recapitulate, these aforementioned comparative studies dominated by quantitative methods aim at exploring to what extent non-native speakers approximate or diverge from native speakers and improve target-like use of English by focusing primarily on the linguistic and cultural norms of L2, but neglecting L1 norms. In this sense, it can be interpreted as linguistic imperialism. On the other hand, there are fewer opportunities for learners to communicate with native speakers in EFL contexts. However they are taught in class and compared with native speakers, significant differences in request strategies can be more to less detected. Comparative studies on speech acts do generally offer the degree to which learners have acquired native-like pragmatic competence, but fail to tell us exactly the language choices and pragmatic behaviors of a learner when performing English requests.

B. Data Elicitation Methods of Requests

To collect data about making requests, there is a wide range of elicitation methods, including DCTs, role-plays, naturally occurring speech, and verbal reports, to name just a few (Ishihara & Cohen, 2021). But different data elicitation measures would generate different responses. As an example, Sasaki (1998) compared two groups of data gathered from open role-plays and questionnaires (namely, traditional DCTs), respectively. According to the results, role-plays induced longer responses with more informative strategies. On the other hand, the written responses to scenarios in the questionnaires were not naturally occurring, so they just represented respondents' pragmatic knowledge rather than performance. On the contrary, particularly open role-plays "provide more space for participants to interact with each other and talk more freely" (Lee, 2018, p. 22), although it is time-consuming to transcribe spoken data.

Most early studies adopted cross-sectional DCTs as the main research instrument. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2013) argues that compared to natural occurring speech, written DCT has the advantages of controlling situational variables of power, distance, and ranking of imposition, thus eliciting a great amount of information within a short time, but it is often criticized for "inability to capture the features of spoken language and natural interaction" (p. 22). Instead, the inability of DCT can be offset by role-plays and verbal reports to enhance the reliability and validity of data elicitation methods (Bella, 2012).

III. Rationale of This Study

Unlike prior works that mostly compare the request realization strategies by large samples of non-native speakers and English native speakers, this present study, using a qualitative data analysis, addresses.

How a single learner of English makes requests with the help of role-plays, as a case study "offers rich and in-depth insights that no other method can yield" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 155). Two-fold rationales underlie the study: (a) to examine whether the learner realizes the situational variations embedded in the role-play scenarios before making requests and (b) to provide English teachers with some pedagogical implications, particularly to raise their awareness of pragmatic instruction in classroom teaching. Toward this end, a research question is proposed as follows:

What kinds of strategies does an English major in China adopt to realize the speech act of requesting in different situations?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participant

A Cantonese native speaker (male, 20 years old) was selected as the case participant. At present, he is a freshman majoring in Business English at a university located in South China, who scored full marks of 5 in oral performance when taking Level 2 of Public English Test System (PETS-2, equivalent to that of students entering university in China). So far, he has learned English as a foreign language for about 10 years. Although he has no experience of studying and living abroad, the open-minded participant is keen on chatting and making friends with international people online and offline. Prior to taking part in the role-plays, he signed an informed consent form to confirm his voluntary participation in this study.

B. Data Collection Instruments

In order to elicit the participant's data about making requests, four open role-plays were employed as the primary research instrumentation coupled with three survey questions.

(a). Role-Play Scenarios

The four role-play scenarios were carefully adapted from previously published studies with relative power (+/–P) and social distance (+/–D) as the contextual constraints. Ranking of imposition (R) was not discussed in the study, but low ranking of imposition (–R) in all the scenarios was kept constant inasmuch as low-imposition requests rendered the topics insensitive and facilitated the participant to carry out the oral tasks. By doing so, conversational data could be gathered as many as possible. The purpose of the four situationally different role-plays was to examine if the participant could be cognizant of the contextual constraints and plan appropriate mitigation strategies before producing requests.

Closely germane to college student life, the four scenarios included borrowing a book from a professor (adapted from Pan, 2012), borrowing a computer from a familiar roommate (adapted from Byon, 2004), asking for leave from a boss (adapted from Morkus, 2014), and asking for permission to join in a study group from a strange student (adapted from Najafabadi & Paramasivam, 2012). The participant had no difficulty in understanding the situations, because he was quite familiar with such situations in his real life as either a students or a part-time waiter. Moreover, both speakers' responsibilities and obligations were clearly explained in the situations. In order to ensure that he strictly followed the instructions to perform the speech act, an extra situation was presented to the participant in a pilot study, i.e., borrowing money from an intimate friend (adapted from Bella, 2012). Table 1 briefly summarizes the five scenarios used in this current study. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the role-plays were conducted via WeChat, which can automatically audio-record the whole real-time conversations. Specific instructions, descriptions, and transcripts of the role-plays have been provided in Appendix.

TABLE 1
VARIABLE DISTRIBUTION IN THE ROLE-PLAY SCENARIOS

Situation	Power	Distance	Imposition	Topic
Situation for a pilot study	–	–	+	borrowing money
Situation 1	+	+	–	borrowing a book
Situation 2	–	–	–	borrowing a computer
Situation 3	+	–	–	asking for leave
Situation 4	–	+	–	asking for joining in a study group

Note: +: high; –: low.

(b). Survey Questions

In order to further confirm if the participant noticed the contextual differences in the role-play scenarios, three survey questions concerning metacognition were modified from Ericsson and Simon (1993; as cited in Woodfield, 2010):

1. What differences did you notice in the four situations?
2. What were you paying attention to before speaking?
3. How did you feel about your performance?

C. Research Procedure

With the participant's consent, the researcher firstly explained the instructions and told him that the role-plays were not oral tests but casual conversations in English, so there were no right or wrong answers. To check the participant's understanding of the tasks, a pilot study was conducted prior to the actual role-plays. Next, the role-play scenarios were sent to the participant through WeChat one by one. Meanwhile, he was reminded of his roles and goals in each scenario and given three minutes to prepare for each role-play. If there were any new words, he was allowed to ask for clarification. Immediately after the four role-plays were finished, the closed-ended survey questions were sent to the participant on WeChat. Finally, the written responses were sent back to the researcher.

D. Data Coding and Analysis

In this study, the coding scheme of the CCSARP project by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) was adopted as the main analytical framework. In accordance with the project, a typical semantic sequence of request was analyzed by address term(s), head act, external, and internal modifications.

To be more specific, head act is the primary sequential part which serves to independently realize the speech act. It is mainly evaluated by the direct/indirect continuum, ranging from "the most direct, explicit level" (e.g., imperative, performative, and want statement), "the conventionally indirect level" (suggestory and preparatory), to "the non-conventionally indirect level" (i.e., hints) (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 201).

External modification or supportive motive embedded in the context is used to modify the speaker's illocutionary power indirectly. It covers the following categories: checking on availability, getting commitment, grounder, disarmer, sweetener, and cost minimizer.

Internal modification consists of downgraders and upgraders. The former means mitigating requests by syntactic downgraders (interrogative, negation, past tense, and embedded *if* clause) and lexical downgrades (consultative devices, understaters, hedges, and downtoner). The latter aims to aggravate requests by means of intensifiers and expletives.

V. Results

After the 25-minute audio-recorded conversations were transcribed (see Appendix), the written data produced by the participant were analyzed drawing on the analytical framework of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) request realization strategies. This section presents the analyses of the participant's request strategies in each role-play and his responses to the three survey questions.

A. An Analysis of Role-Play 1 (+P, +D, –R)

What the participant said:

- Address term: (01) "Professor" (showing respect)
- First head act: (01) "... can I borrow your book?"
  - ➢ Directness level: conventionally indirect request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: query preparatory (asking for feasibility)
- Second head act: (03) "I need it badly, ..."
  - ➢ Semantic formula: want statement (directly expressing his need)
- Modifications:
  - ➢ External:
    - ● Checking on availability: (01) "Is it available?" (appearing after the head act)
    - ● Grounder: (03) "... there is no copy on (at) the library" (appearing after the head act); (07) "... that book is very important for me, because I'm writing an essay." (explaining the reasons)
    - ● Cost minimizer: (11) "... I'll be there *soon*." (decreasing Professor's waiting time)
    - ● Thanking: (09) "Thanks. I'll appreciate that."
  - ➢ Internal:
    - ● Interrogative: (01) "... can I borrow you book?"
    - ● Intensifier: (03) "badly"; (07) "very important"; (11) "very urgent"

This role-play was an asymmetrical talk between a student and his professor. In order to realize the speech act of requesting a book from his professor, the participant first used conventionally indirect strategy "can I ...?" followed by checking on availability "Is it available?". Here he asked two consecutive questions, which seemed somewhat offensive and rude before Professor responded. Then the participant turned to direct strategy of want statement with an intensifier "badly". After the professor declined his request precipitously, the participant gave a grounder "... that book is very important for me, because I'm writing an essay." with an intensifier "very" to explain why he was in urgent need of the book.

B. An Analysis of Role-Play 2 (–P, –D, –R)

What the participant said:

- Address term: (12) "dude" (showing intimacy)
- First head act: (12) "Can I have it?"
  - ➢ Directness level: conventionally indirect request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: query preparatory (asking for feasibility)
- Second head act: (15) "... could you lend it to me?"
  - ➢ Directness level: conventionally indirect request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: query preparatory (asking for feasibility)
- Modifications:
  - ➢ External:

- Checking on availability: (12) "Where is your laptop?" (appearing before the head act)
- Grounder: (14) "It's out of order because of the goddam virus, and I need to have a paper due tomorrow."; (17) "The work is important." (explaining the reasons)
- Cost minimizer: (19) "*Four hour*(s) is OK." (reducing the time of keeping the computer)
- Disarmer: (21) "I will keep my eyes on it." (promising to protect the computer)

➢ Internal:
- Interrogative: (12) "Can I have it?"; (15) "... could you lend it to me? "
- Past tense: (15) "... could you ...?"

The second role-play transpired between two close roommates, which can be clearly perceived from the address term "dude" for solidarity. The participant repeated conventionally indirect requests, i.e., preparatory modals. Interestingly, he first used "Can I have it?" to indicate a bit politeness, but the verb "have" suggests that he might often use his roommate's computer as if he were the computer owner. Afterward, when his roommate impatiently hinted to him "Why not use your own computer?", he changed from speaker-oriented to hearer-oriented perspective and used past tense "... could you..." to mitigate the request. Aside from explaining the reasons to his roommate, the participant promised to return the computer quickly and keep an eye on it to alleviate his dude's worry. Obviously, he had realized that he would cause some inconvenience to the computer owner. At the end of this role-play, the participant even did not express gratitude to his roommate in virtue of their intimate friendship.

C. An Analysis of Role-Play 3 (+P, –D, –R)

What the participant said:

- Address term: (22) "boss" (recognizing employer-employee relationship)
- First head act: (22) "..., could I?" (tag question showing tentativeness)
  - ➢ Directness level: conventionally indirect request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: query preparatory (asking for feasibility)
- Second head act: (22) "I want to ask (for) a day off, ..."
  - ➢ Directness level: direct request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: want statement (directly expressing his need)
- Third head act: (28) "... so you'd better have a day off for me, please."
  - ➢ Directness level: direct request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: statement of obligation (directly expressing his need)
- Modifications:
  - ➢ External:
    - Checking on availability: (22) "Are you busy right now?" ("right now" indicating an important matter)
    - Grounder: (24) "... I'm exhausted of this"; (27) "Look, I'm nearly going crazy." (explaining the reasons)
    - Disarmer: (24) "I know that, boss." (acknowledging the current busy situation)
    - Cost minimizer: (22) "I want to ask (for) *a day* off, ..."; (28) "... have *a day* off for me, please"
    - Thanking: (34) "Thanks, boss. I'll appreciate that."
  - ➢ Internal:
    - Interrogative: (22) "... could I?" (tag question showing tentativeness)
    - Hedge: (25) "... I need to have *some time* to rest ..."
    - Intensifier: (27) "Look, I'm nearly going *crazy*." (intensifying the fatigue)
    - Politeness marker: (28) "... please"

The third role-play involved a student doing a part-time job and his familiar boss. Basically, he made direct requests to ask for leave during the Spring Festival due to job tiredness. At the outset, he employed a tag question "I want to ask (for) a day off, could I?" to show tentativeness. Then he offered grounders, disarmer as well as hedges to acknowledge the inconvenience caused to the restaurant. After negotiating for a while, he aggravated his fatigue with "crazy" to urge his boss. Overall, the participant as a part-time waiter succeeded in persuading his boss to approve leave request by shifting from indirectness to directness in strategy choices. But when he articulated the phrase "... you'd better ...", it was inappropriate for an inferior to say that to his superior notwithstanding their familiarity with each other.

D. An Analysis of Role-Play 4 (–P, +D, –R)

What the participant said:

- Head act: (39) "Can I join in?"
  - ➢ Directness level: conventionally indirect request
  - ➢ Semantic formula: query preparatory (asking for feasibility)
- Modifications:
  - ➢ External:
    - Checking on availability: (37) "Is there any study group which is prepared for the midterm examination?" (inquiring about the availability)

- Grounder: (41) "I have some problems on (with) these things." (explaining the need to join in the study group of math)
- Thanking: (47) "... thanks."; "I'll appreciate that."

➢ Internal:

- Interrogative: (39) "Can I join in?"
- Hedge: (41) "I have *some* problems on (with) these things."

In the last role-play, the participant palpably leveraged much fewer modification strategies. Perhaps it was concerned with two strange students. First, he did not use any address terms instead of asking "What is your name?" to initiate the conversation. Then after confirming the availability of the study group focused on math, he politely made a conventional indirect request of joining in the group. In addition, when stating his need to improve math, he utilized a hedge "some problems" to soften his weakness at math. Finally, he expressed gratitude for help.

E. The Survey Results

About 15 minutes after the four role-plays, the participant sent back his written responses originally in English to the following closed-ended survey questions:

1. What differences did you notice in the four situations?
   Those questions are all about make (making) *a request.*
2. What were you paying attention to before speaking?
   Well, I was planning to greeting (greet) *first. Then, I will tell them my problems and I need help, so that I can achieve my purposes.*
3. How did you feel about your performance?
   I *think it's not good all, cuz I was nervous. Maybe next time I would try to be relax*(ed) *and go on.*

VI. Discussion and Conclusion

In light of strategy use patterns of requesting, the participant tended to start the conversations with address terms like "Professor", "dude", and "boss", except in the fourth role-play where he asked the stranger's name, instead. This finding closely aligns with Chinese culture, not least because Chinese people highlight the family and social hierarchy, and the proper use of honorifics plays an important role in showing politeness (Lee-Wong, 1994). Then he proceeded to check on availability of requests, explained the reasons for making requests, capitalized on some mitigating or intensifying devices to accomplish his purposes, and concluded by expressing gratitude to the requestees. In a nutshell, the procedures also echo the participant's response to the second survey question about planning prior to speaking.

As regards directness level, the participant exhibited a restricted repertoire of request strategies, because conventionally indirect requests (preparatory modals) were employed in all the role-plays and direct requests (want statement) in the first and third ones. It is noteworthy that non-conventionally indirect requests were not found in this study. In English language and culture, "directness is often equated to impoliteness because it shows a lack of consideration for face" (Nguyen & Ho, 2013, p. 686). In the first and third role-plays, however, the participant misused direct requests (including "need it badly" and "you'd better") to the hearers (i.e., professor and boss) with higher social power, which posed a potential threat to their negative face.

Similar to the request research done by Bella (2012) and Wang (2011), external modifications were used more frequently in this study, such as grounder, disarmer, and cost minimizer, contributing to longer and more informative utterances. On the other hand, internal modifications were limited to interrogative, intensifier, and hedge. Perhaps these strategies can be attributed to the participant's insufficient linguistic knowledge, in that internal modifications are more closely related to lexical and syntactic knowledge.

As to whether or not the participant was sensitive to the contextual variables of power, distance, and imposition ranking, the written responses to survey questions implied that he failed to notice them, even though he knew that the role-plays were about making requests. Furthermore, the answer to the third question suggested that he was unsatisfied with his own performance due to nervousness. Obviously, he made requests by relying on intuition.

As discussed above, this qualitative study, by means of role-plays and survey questions, has found that the participant: (a) used address terms to express good manners under influence of the positive transfer of Chinese cultural norms; (b) preferred conventionally indirect requests out of politeness, but his unvaried repertoire of external and internal modifications to realize requests needs to be broadened; and (c) failed to notice the contextual variables about social power and distance prior to making requests, which could account for his misuse of two direct requests in the first and third role-plays.

Taken together, it is concluded that notwithstanding he manifested good linguistic competence with few grammatical mistakes in his speech, the participant's pragmatic competence necessitates further enhancement. More importantly, this case study has provided English teachers with some pedagogical implications and recommendations. In particular, China is a typical EFL context where learners have limited exposure to the target language, but nowadays cross-cultural communication increasingly occurs in the era of globalization. In order to avoid miscommunication and improve learners' speech act perceptions and performances, pragmatic competence needs to be viewed as important as linguistic competence in EFL courses and curriculum. Hence, English teachers should incorporate formal pragmatic instruction into classroom teaching by placing an emphasis on raising students' awareness of the power, distance, and imposition ranking between speakers and hearers, guiding students to notice the differences between Chinese and English language forms as well as cultural norms when producing speech acts. In addition, students' repertoire of speech acts realization strategies needs to be broadened through metapragmatic instruction especially at the tertiary level. Another approach to refine teachers' pedagogical interventions is to develop teaching materials with abundant pragmatic input and output activities.

Nevertheless, this case study is not without limitations. First, the participant was well acquainted with the researcher. As a result, it was inevitable for him to use direct requests intentionally or unintentionally when chatting with the latter on WeChat. Moreover, as he admitted in the response to the third survey question, he was nervous in the performance, which would, to some degree, affect data elicitation. Last but not the least, this study only touches on the speech act of request with power and distance as the contextual variables, resulting in limited generalizations to other situations and populations. For these reasons, the focus should be extended to other speech acts (e.g., refusal, apology, and complaint) by engaging larger samples in role-plays with varied contextual factors including P, D, and R in future studies.

APPENDIX. ROLE-PLAY SCENARIOS AND TRANSCRIPTS

Instructions: Please read carefully the following four different situations one at a time. In each situation, you will be required to initiate a conversation with the interlocutor as you do in actual life. Meanwhile, you will be given three minutes to prepare and figure out how to perform the tasks successfully. The conversations will be audio-recorded via WeChat.

A. Situation for a Pilot Study (–P, –D, +R): Borrowing Money

You are out to lunch with a close friend of yours. You have already ordered when you discover that you have left your wallet at home. You ask your friend to pay for your meal. You already borrowed money from him once. What would you say to borrow his money? (Adapted from Bella, 2012)

B. Situation 1 (+P, +D, –R): Borrowing a Book

You are writing an essay and in great need of a particular reference book. However, there is not a copy of it in the library. You know your professor has one. You are not sure if he may be using it but you come up with an idea of borrowing it from your professor. What would you say to ask for your professor's help? (Adapted from Pan, 2012)

Transcript 1:

P (Participant: a student) borrows a book from I (Interlocutor: a professor)

(01) P: Hello, Professor, can I borrow (#) your book? Is it available?
(02) I: What is the name of the book? (2.2) Do you mean (#), do you mean the book *Pragmatics*?
(03) P: Ah, yes, it is. I need it *badly*, because there is, um, there is no copy on (at) the library. I hear there is one on (in) your hand.
(04) I: That's true. And I would like to lend it to you, but now I am reading this book.
(05) P: When will you finish reading it?
(06) I: In two days. But why do you, um, want this book so badly?
(07) P: Oh, that book is very important for me, because I'm writing an *essay*.
(08) I: No problem. In two days, I will go to Beijing. So I can lend this book to you.
(09) P: OK. Thanks. I'll appreciate that.
(10) I: Can you come to my office the day after tomorrow? That day I can give the book to you.
(11) P: Oh, yes, of course. Um, because it is very (#) urgent, and I'll be there soon.

C. Situation 2 (–P, –D, –R): Borrowing a Computer

Your roommate is your best friend's younger brother, who is your high school junior. Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your roommate if you can borrow his computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favour for you? (Adapted from Byon, 2004)

Transcript 2:

P (Participant: a student) borrows a computer from I (Interlocutor: a familiar roommate)

(12) P: Hey, dude. Where is your laptop? Can I have it?
(13) I: Why? You have your own computer.
(14) P: Well, here is the bad news. It's out of *order* because of the goddam virus, and I need to have a paper due tomorrow.
(15) So could you, um, could you lend it to me?
(16) I: But can't you see I'm watching NBA? The game is so exciting.
(17) P: I am f*reaking out* about the game, man. The work is *important*. Um, you can see the *repeat* tomorrow. Don't worry about it.
(18) I: Then how long will you keep my computer?
(19) P: Four hour(s) is OK, man. I'll return it to you. Don't worry.
(20) I: All right. I will go to the gym to watch NBA. Now use it.

(21) P: No problem. I will keep my eyes on it. Don't worry.

D. Situation 3 (+P, –D, –R): Asking for Leave

You have been working part-time at a restaurant recently, and you have a good relationship with your 45-year-old boss who is pleased with your work. Your work shift is Monday through Friday from 2:00 p.m. to 6:00 p.m. This week is a very busy one for the restaurant because of the Spring Festival. But you want to have a break in that week and cannot work extra hours. What would you say if you asked for leave? (Adapted from Morkus, 2014)

Transcript 3:

P (Participant: a student working part-time) asks for leave from I (Interlocutor: a close boss)

(22) P: Hey, boss. Are you busy right now? I want to ask (for) a day off, could I?
(23) I: Look, Evans! Our business is very busy now, because it's on the Spring Festival. And it's a good chance for us to make money.
(24) P: I know that, boss. But look, I'm *exhausted* of this.
(25) I need to have, I need to have some time to rest, then I could do a *better* job.
(26) I: Um, I know you work very hard. Can you have a, have a (#) rest after the holiday?
(27) P: Not really, boss. Look, I'm nearly going *crazy*.
(28) Uh-huh, so you'd better (#) have a day off for me, please.
(29) I: No problem. Can you ask another guy to replace you?
(30) P: Oh, look. Jamie, Jamie would like to do this. OK?
(31) I: OK then, Evans. If you fill in these leave forms today, I will sign them so we can get them in.
(32) P: OK, no problem. I'll, sir.
(33) I: Have a good day!
(34) P: Thanks, boss. I'll appreciate that.

E. Situation 4 (–P, +D, –R): Asking for Joining in a Study Group

You are having trouble understanding your (Mathematics) course. You hear that some of the course students have formed a study group to prepare for the midterm exam. You have never spoken with those students before, but you decide to talk to them about joining in the study group. What would you say to the strange students? (Adapted from Najafabadi & Paramasivam, 2012)

Transcript 4:

P (Participant: a student) asks for joining in a study group from I (Interlocutor: a strange student)

(35) P: Hello. What's your name?
(36) I: Hi! Good morning. My name is Lister. What can I do for you?
(37) P: OK, Lister. Is there any study group which is prepared for the midterm (#) examination?
(38) I: Yes. We have formed a study group about mathematics.
(39) P: Oh, cool. Can I join in?
(40) I: By the way, how is your math?
(41) P: Oh, man. You got the point. I have some problems (#) on (with) these things.
(42) I: If so, the group, the study group is very good for you. But if you want to join in the group, you have to show me your student card.
(43) P: Oh, I see. Here you are.
(44) I: Thank you. You know, there will be a class this afternoon at Room 313. (#) Will you come?
(45) P: Of course. Room 313, right?
(46) I: Yes. Room 313 at two o'clock.
(47) P: OK, thanks. I will be there. (#) I'll appreciate that.

Transcription conventions

- (#): a brief pause
- (2.2): a timed pause lasting for about 2.2 seconds
- *word*: italic word indicating high pitch
- (word): the correct word within parentheses replacing the ungrammatical one

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to express his gratitude to the anonymous reviewers for their invaluable feedback and comments. This work was supported in part by the Department of Education of Guangdong Province, China [grant number JXJYGC2021KY0600] and Guangdong Open University, China [grant number JG201703].

REFERENCES

[1] Bella, S. (2012). Pragmatic development in a foreign language: A study of Greek FL requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *44*(13), 1917–1947. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.08.014

[2] Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied Linguistics*, *5*(3), 196–213. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/5.3.196
[3] Brown, P., Levinson, S., & Gumperz, J. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511813085
[4] Byon, A. S. (2004). Sociopragmatic analysis of Korean requests: Pedagogical settings. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *36*(9), 1673–1704. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2004.05.003
[5] Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
[6] Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2009). Interlanguage request modification: The use of lexical/phrasal downgraders and mitigating supportive moves. *Multilingua*, *28*(1), 79–111. https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.2009.004
[7] Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2013). Strategies, modification and perspective in native speakers' requests: A comparison of WDCT and naturally occurring requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *53*, 21–38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.03.014
[8] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
[9] Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2021). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003168188
[10] Lee, C. (2018). *Researching and teaching second language speech acts in the Chinese contexts*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-8980-0
[11] Lee-Wong, S. M. (1994). Imperatives in requests: Direct or impolite-observations from Chinese. *Pragmatics*, *4*(4), 491–515. https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.4.4.01lee
[12] Lin, Y. H. (2009). Query preparatory modals: Cross-linguistic and cross-situational variations in request modification. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *41*(8), 1636–1656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.12.007
[13] LoCastro, V. (2011). *Pragmatics for language educators: A sociolinguistic perspective.* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203850947
[14] Morkus, N. (2014). Refusals in Egyptian Arabic and American English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *70*, 86–107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2014.06.001
[15] Najafabadi, S. A., & Paramasivam, S. (2012). Iranian EFL learners' interlanguage request modifications: Use of external and internal supportive moves. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(7), 1387–1396. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.7.1387-1396
[16] Nguyen, T. T. M., & Ho, G. A. L. (2013). Requests and politeness in Vietnamese as a native language. *Pragmatics*, *23*(4), 685–714. https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.23.4.05ngu
[17] Pan, P. C. (2012). Interlanguage requests in institutional e-mail discourse: A study in Hong Kong. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 119–162). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.217.05cat
[18] Ren, W. (2022). *Second language pragmatics*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009082709
[19] Sasaki, M. (1998). Investigating EFL students' production of speech acts: A comparison of production questionnaires and role plays. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *30*(4), 457–484. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(98)00013-7
[20] Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society*, *5*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500006837
[21] Wang, V. X. (2011). *Making requests by Chinese EFL learners*. John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.207
[22] Woodfield, H. (2010). What lies beneath?: Verbal report in interlanguage requests in English. *Multilingua*, *29*(1), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.2010.001
[23] Woodfield, H., & Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2010). 'I just need more time': A study of native and non-native students' requests to faculty for an extension. *Multilingua*, *29*(1), 77–118. https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.2010.004
[24] Yang, L. (2009). *The speech act of request: A comparative study of Chinese and American graduate students at an American university* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Bowling Green State University.

Qiudong Li was born in Dianbai County, Gunagdong Province, China in 1986. He holds a Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics from Jinan University, China and a Postgraduate Diploma in English Language Teaching from Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. Currently Mr. Li is working as a Lecturer of English in the Department of Liberal Arts at Foshan Open University, China. Additionally, he holds a qualification certificate of Translator Level II approved and authorized by Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security of the People's Republic of China. As an English-as-a-foreign-language teacher and researcher, he has worked with adult learners for more than 10 years, with particular academic interests in second language pragmatics, mobile-assisted language learning, and second language vocabulary acquisition. Some of his recent publications appearing in ESCI-/SSCI-indexed journals include: *Teaching and learning writing in ESL/EFL* (2022), *Vocabulary and second language writing* (2022), and *Pedagogical translanguaging* (2022). More details about his academic works can be found via his ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6609-6891.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1057-1064, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.28

The Depiction of Arab Women in Fadia Faqir's *My Name Is Salma* and Diana Abu Jaber's *Crescent*

Shireen I. Alhalholi
English Language and Literature Department, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

Nasaybah W. Awajan
English Language and Literature Department, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

***Abstract*—The study aims to compare and contrast how diasporic Arab writers, Fadia Faqir and Diana Abu-Jaber, both present Arab women in their respective novels, *My Name is Salma* and *Crescent*. This study was conducted using the theories of post colonialism. Hence, the researcher relies on Edward Said's views on Orientalism in analyzing both novels. The study concludes with how both Faqir and Abu Jaber represent Arab women characters in different ways in their works, *My Name is Salma* and *Crescent,* respectively. Abu Jaber tries to negate the stereotypical images known in the West about Arab women through representing independent, confident, educated Arab women characters *in Crescent*, this depiction contrasts with Fadia Faqir's representation of Arab women in her novel *My Name is Salma* in which she reflects the stereotypical images of the oppressed, submissive, and dependent Arab woman.**

***Index Terms*—Arab women, feminism, Faqir, Abu Jaber**

I. Introduction

The current study attempts to explore how Arab women are presented in both Fadia Faqir's *My Name Is Salma* and Diana Abu Jaber's *Crescent*. Though both authors are of Arab origins, they each represent Arab women quite differently. Whereas Faqir reaffirms the stereotypical images presented by the West in her novel *My Name Is Salma*, Abu Jaber, on the contrary, negates the stereotypical images and presents confident, strong Arab women characters in her novel *Crescent*. However, this is really nothing new as Arab writers in diaspora often differ in their depiction of Arab women. While some diasporic Arab writers, such as Faqir, exploit the stereotypes that highlight the misrepresentation of Arab women in the West, many other diasporic Arab writers, such as Abu Jaber, object to the stereotypical images in their works by presenting a positive image of Arab women. Though most of the studies conducted on the current literary works discuss each work separately, this study explores the depiction of Arab women in both novels together. Added to that, both novels are set in different regions, which affects how each author presents Arab women in their respective works. The depiction of Arab women by diasporic Arab writers has been a controversial topic discussed in literature and propagated through the media. Indeed, literature and the media play a great role in spreading disinformation related to Arabs, and specifically Arab women. Hansson and Henriksson (2013) state that Middle Eastern women are often presented as victims of their family systems, their male-dominated societies, and their religious restrictions. Literature and media play a crucial role in spreading the stereotypical images of Arab women without being objective. Certainly, the history between East and West is full of contradictory images about Arabs and Westerners. Arabs are condemned for being violent, uncivilized, and intolerant. This was the image of Arabs and Muslims before the 9/11 attacks which only served to negatively enhance these stereotypes about Arabs being violent, uncivilized terrorists. In its aftermath, the Western media condemned all Arabs as terrorists. In fact, CNN reported that the anti-Islamic sentiment following 9/11 spread around the world. As a result, the spread of Islamophobia in the West is at least the responsibility of distorted and imbalanced media coverage (Abdulla, 2007). Clearly, the propagation of Arab stereotypes by Western media does have a negative effect on the general public's perception of Arabs and Muslims (Ridouani, 2011).

Arab culture is defined by the West as exotic, mystified and backward, and a culture that limits women's freedom. Due to this image created by the West, Arab women are presented as obedient, oppressed and suffering in their male-dominated societies. Awad and Ludwig (2017) state that studies on how Arab women are presented in Western media have focused on examining their image in terms of economy, politics, society, education, and religion. According to the studies presented over the past couple of decades, Arab women are typically portrayed as victims of their cultures and their male partners. Arab women are often presented as passive, uncivilized, dependent, uneducated and other negative stereotypical images. El-Ouardi and Sandy (2019) show that Arab women in particular, have long been misrepresented as the Other in Western Orientalist discourse. The goal of this misrepresentation is to maintain Western superiority over the East on all cultural, political, and economic levels. The presentation of Arab women in a passive way could be justified by the fact that Arabs belong to a different culture and religion. These ideas and the stereotypical images of Arabs were created by the West, as Lughod (2002) suggests, because Arabs belong to a different culture. Still, the West is supposed to respect Arab culture and traditions without judging them for being different.

In his book *Orientalism*, Said (1978) clarifies all of the issues related to the East and the stereotypical images represented about the Orient/Arabs. Said's theory paved the way for post-colonial literary theory, which is manifested in the works of many post-colonial writers. Said argues that previous studies on the Orient (East) were based on political intellectualism bent on self-affirmation rather than objective studies. Therefore, he shows what the Westerners know about the East is not true, and as such, these misrepresentations are only based on the West's perspective. Said (1978) also discusses the binary oppositions created in terms of the West as superior versus the East as inferior. The idea here is that the West imposes its superiority upon the East and regards the complex cultures and histories that exist in the East as inferior. To sum up, the West, according to Said, created stereotypical images about Arabs and Arab women. According to Said (1978), the relationship between the East and the West has been dominated by the West. Therefore, according to what Said indicates in his book *Orientalism,* how the West depicts women in the East could be considered as a continuously endless attempt. However, this wrong assumption is derived from colonial history when the West imposed its authority over the East. The West acclaims its superiority and visualizes Arabs and Arab women especially in specific as weak, obedient, and oppressed, ignoring the Arabic traditions and culture. Arab society is a diverse society where a part of limits the freedom of women while others give women all the freedom in the world. However, there is no scale we can use to measure all Arabs in a negative way as some traditions that are acceptable in one area may be forbidden in another. According to the Center for Feminist Foreign Policy (2017), the stereotypical images promoted by the media not only ignore the social, economic, and cultural diversity of Arab women, but also hide the reality that the Arab world is made up of various countries, societies, cultures, languages, and, obviously, an infinite number of experiences. One example of what the West regards as a symbol of Arabic traditions and religious restrictions is the veil which they say represses the freedom of Arab women. In fact, considering it a sign of terrorism, many Western countries prohibit Arab Muslim women from wearing the veil. As a result, the West ignores the Arab Muslim woman's right to wear the veil, claiming they want to free Arab Muslim women from such oppression. The Center for Feminist Foreign Policy (2017) state that British newspapers promote stereotypes of Muslim wives and mothers as passive, subordinate victims. Moreover, the West claims they want to save the rights and freedoms of Arab women through their interventions. Ironically, Lughod (2002) notes that the "U.S. government announced the fight against terrorism is also a fight for the rights and dignity of Eastern women" (p. 784). The West presents Arab women as victims who need help in freeing themselves from their culture and religious restrictions. This idea is presented in Fadia Faqir's novel, *My Name Is Salma* (2007) when Salma is helped to leave Jordan for the West by the Christian nun Khairiyah to protect Salma from being killed by her family. Faqir, who is a diasporic Arab writer, illustrates the stereotypical images about Arab women as passive, uneducated, dependent victims.

On the other hand, Western women are presented differently. They are depicted as confident, independent women, free from any restrictions. Indeed, as Lughod (2002) states, "the West attempts to divide the world into separate spheres; the West as superior versus the East as inferior" (Lughod, 2002, p.784). To enhance these stereotypical images, the West presents their women as educated, civilized, strong women who give speeches while Arab women are obedient, dependent, and weak women who shuffle around silently in burqas (Lughod, 2002). In other words, the West presents the Arab woman as voiceless and dependent unlike the Western women who have a strong and confident personality and are given a voice to talk and express themselves. Some diasporic Arab writers like Diana Abu Jaber ignore these stereotypical images of Arab women and they represent a confidant, independent image of the Arab women. On the other hand, there are those diasporic Arab writers like Fadia Faqir who depict the awkward, dependent and weak images of Arab women. This study will discuss how Faqir promulgates the stereotypical images of Arab women in her novel *My Name Is Salma*. In contrast, Abu Jaber negates the stereotypical images of Arab women and presents them as confident, independent, and strong characters in her novel *Crescent*.

II. Literature Review

A. The Depiction of Arabs and Arab Women by Fadia Faqir and Diana Abu Jaber in Their Literary Works

Faqir's Depiction of Arab Women in her Novel *My Name Is Salma*.

El-Miniawi (2016), declares that Salma is presented by Faqir as struggling between two identities - the old Salma and the new Sally - in trying to create a new identity for herself. Salma is presented as a passive, weak victim and a dependent Arab woman, while her alter-ego Sally represents an independent and strong woman because she gained British nationality upon being adopted. While Salma requires assistance and suffers as a result of patriarchal Arab society, Sally finds freedom and works two jobs. In resemblance, Aziz (2018) declares that, due to her insecure personality, Salma reaches a stage where she changes her outwardly appearance, but it is notable that she is not able to change inwardly. According to Aziz (2018), Faqir embodies a character who is hostile towards the Islamic religion and Arabic traditions. Salma's skin color prevents her from fitting into Western culture due to the whiteness of Europeans in comparison to her dark skin. She looks up at them and feels that she is less than they are. In this way, Faqir depicts the conflict between the East and the West in a cultural and religious context. Nevertheless, Faqir shows the suffering of

Arab immigrants from the discriminatory view of Western society. This resulted in Salma's sense of alienation as an Arab and the removing of her headscarf to find a job in Britain. The author indicates that the *hijab* is considered a tool of oppression for Arab woman. Hence, Faqir shows the importance of education through Salma, who represents the power behind women's salvation. This study shows Faqir's portrayal of Arabic society as a backward, patriarchal society that restricts a woman's freedom in order to save her honor.

Zubair et al. (2019) show the cultural, ideological, and identity formations in the novel. Using Edward Said's concept of Orientalism and Homi K. Bhabha's theories of hybridity to analyze this novel, this study sheds light on the cultural clashes between the East and the West. Zubair et al. (2019) declare that Faqir enhances the stereotypical images represented by the West by depicting passive, subordinate Arab women characters. Arab women, according to Faqir, suffer from living in a patriarchal society that imposes restrictions on women. As a result, Salma escapes her country to save her life with the help of a nun. This shows the Arab culture's oppressive culture against women. Akkawi and Nashwan (2019) investigate the audience's perception of the subject of honor killing in the novel *My Name Is Salma*, as well as their attitudes toward the stigmatized protagonist, Salma. After watching the novel as a play on stage and knowing the circumstances of Salma, a majority of university students sympathized with Salma and agreed that she should have stayed in England and never returned to her homeland. In another published report from the Institute of Criminology at Cambridge University found on the Al-Jazeera website, teenage high school students in Jordan are targeted. They agree with killing a wife, sister, or daughter, in the name of family honor. The researchers find that mature university students are more aware, experienced, and able to make their own decisions, so they condemn such behavior. On the contrary, the high school students are dependent, inexperienced, and emotionally biased toward their cultural context

B. Abu Jaber's Depiction of Arab Women in Her Novel Crescent

Mehta (2009) adds that Sirine and Nadia represent independent Arab women who establish their own businesses, thereby negating the common stereotypical images of oppressed Arab women who are dependent and passive. Taking into consideration the study above, Mehta (2009) provides clues to Abu Jaber's depiction of Arab women as independent and confident, thus negating the stereotypical image presented by the West. Alamares (2013) shows Abu Jaber's attempt to enhance the depiction of Arab characters in *Crescent* in a positive way. Sirine represents a strong character, and she is a supporter of other characters in the novel. Nadia is an independent and caring character, and together, Sirine and Nadia make a place feel like home. Nurcahyo (2013) discusses how Sirine does not feel ashamed or embarrassed about her Arabic identity and uses her Arabic cuisine to show her unabashed by her Arabness. Sirine even tries to learn more about the Middle East from her uncle and Han, an Iraqi Arab professor who captivates her interest. In *Crescent*, Abu Jaber continues to depict its Arabic-American characters in *Crescent* as the opposite of the Western stereotypes of Arab women. Further, Abu Jaber portrays Um Nadia and Sirine as strong Arab women. Yousef (2010) says that, in *Crescent*, Abu Jaber portrays different characters from different cultures to reflect the harmony in this society. Sirine, the heroine, is a 39-year-old single Arab American female character who works as a chef in Nadia's café. Sirine's relationship with Han, an Iraqi professor, awakens her curiosity to learn more about her culture and origin. Sirine represents a confident Arab female character who lives in a free manner and is reconciled with her hybrid identity. The current study is different from previous studies because it provides a detailed depiction of Arab women characters in *Crescent* and *My Name Is Salma*. Previous studies focus mostly on the heroines' characterization without giving importance to minor Arab female characters. This study discusses the depiction of Arab women in the assigned novels through the lenses of post-colonialism and feminism. It also provides Arab women's representation based on Edward Said's ideas and his depiction of the East-West relationship. Hence, it shows the political reflection behind both Arab diasporic women writers' portrayals of Arab women in *My Name Is Salma* and *Crescent.*

III. Analysis

A. The Depiction of Arab Women in Abu Jaber's Crescent

Starting with the main character in *Crescent*, Sirine, as an Iraqi American woman whose memories of her parents inspired her to become a cook. After working at many restaurants, she begins working as a chef at Nadia Café where she finally feels at home. Her small kitchen becomes her small space where she discovers who she is and where she belongs. Djohar (2019) describes Sirine as a girl, who finds herself in cooking and really believes in it as more than a job. This becomes apparent when a "restaurant reviewer for *L.A. Times* once described Serine's cooking as brilliant; she remembers the suffused glow of satisfaction she felt, looking at that single word" (Jaber, 2003, p. 61). Sirine's food represents her Arab heritage as well as her longing for her parents. Thus, Sirine plays a significant role at Nadia Café in alleviating Han's and other Arabic students' feelings of isolation and exile. Madany (2020) states that Sirine's character and the Middle Eastern food she prepares serve as key bridges throughout the story. Moreover, cooking represents unity for Sirine; she remembers when she and her parents cooked together. She reflects on their harmony as they prepared food, as if they were developing a language of love. Through these recollections, she learns what love is and how each one completes the other. Her love for others is inspired from knowing how her parents loved one another (Jaber, 2003).

Furthermore, Sirine is aware of what she desires and what she lacks in her life. Her confidence and calm personality endear her to everyone, so any student may set aside time to observe her cooking and converse with her. Despite the fact that she is a human being, with all of the ups and downs that come with being human, she keeps herself busy by working. She uses her sense of loss as a result of her parent's death as a tool to fight. She was nine years old when she lost her parents, but she understands that no one and no words could ever make up for her loss. Even at her worst moments, she knows that nothing can console her or remove her anguish, so she feels that remaining silent is the best thing to do. As a result, after learning that she lost her parents, she did not act like a child; instead, she looked after herself and her uncle. Furthermore, Abu Jaber depicts Sirine's path of self-discovery until she finally reconciles with herself. Apart from the fact that Sirine betrayed Han, she became conscious of her sin as well as her sentiments. In addition, despite the fact that Sirine is half Arab and speaks a few words in Arabic, she tells Han that she would like to study Arabic. Her uncle's Arabian fictitious tales, as well as her friendship with Han, compel her to learn more about her origins and the Arabic language. Despite the fact that she appears to be American as she adjusts to Western culture, she is aware of her Arabic roots on a deeper level. Furthermore, she tries to learn everything she does not know about her homeland, Iraq, by asking her uncle and Han about it (Jaber, 2003). As a result, the Arabic language reminds Sirine of her father, and there appears to be a link between her Arabic side and her father. Throughout the story, Sirine takes an interest in learning about her Iraqi ancestors and the circumstances there. Madany (2020) says that "Sirine lives the life of an independent American woman, and yet she cannot overlook the bond she feels towards her Iraqi heritage" (p. 32). Furthermore, anybody who sees Sirine assumes she is American based on her appearance, yet she always claims to be of Arabic heritage. Abu Jaber portrays marriage as an option rather than an obligation in *Crescent*. Sirine is an Arab woman who is self-sufficient and mature. She is also financially self-reliant, and makes her own decisions. She discovers that her sole interest was her profession before meeting Han. She abandons any desire to be in a relationship with a man who would rush her into marriage; she prefers to rely solely on herself and not on anyone else. In this context, Abu Jaber presents Arab women who are educated, powerful, self-assured, and employed. Abu Jaber's image exemplifies how women may wield power through their jobs and education. As a result, by portraying these Arab female characters, Abu Jaber challenges stereotypes about Arab women. Furthermore, Sirine is a strong, independent, confident Arab female heroine, and her look demonstrates that Arab women may be beautiful and white, with "...the bluish cast of skim milk, her wild blond head of hair, and her sea-green blue eyes" (Jaber, 2003, p. 20). This quotation exemplifies Abu Jaber's attempt to paint a different picture of Arab women through Sirine's depiction. Because white skin is associated with beautiful Western ladies, Abu Jaber depicts Arab women with Western traits in order to demonstrate equality. Ghouaiel (2015) has the same opinion as he says "Abu-Jaber points out that relying on skin color to identify a subject's race or ethnicity can lead to erroneous assumptions. Here, she compares Sirine's whiteness with the supposed darkness commonly associated with Arab features" (p. 249). In *Crescent*, there is no room for the stigmas attached to Arab women; there is no difference between Arab and Western women, and in fact, the more the world thinks of the difference, the more it appears that we are the same. Yousef (2010), in fact, states that Abu Jaber's novel defies any idea of stereotyping or categorizing people. Thus, even her hair could be related to her strong and confident personality.

Nonetheless, Sirine usually draws the attention of the students; they used to stare at her when she was cooking food. Nathan even says to her, "Damn. Does everyone do this? Come right up to you and start saying unbelievably weird things?" (Jaber, 2003, p. 62). Sirine provides a sensation of peace, comfort, and ease to the person, allowing them to share their secrets. Nathan and Hanif used to confide in her about their inner sentiments because she seemed to understand everything and everyone. "I thought there was something about you," Nathan says to Sirine. "Like that. Self–possessed. You've never let it run away with you" (Jaber, 2003, p. 98). As a result, the significance of Sirine and Han's connection is that he values her as a lover, mother, sister, and companion. All of these depictions show Abu Jaber's aim to elevate Arab women to a more significant and appreciated status and quite possibly equal to males. Furthermore, because Sirine represents Han's refuge and home in exile, we can see how Arab women should be valued by their male spouses. Sirine has always wanted someone to see her inner self rather than just her physical attractiveness. In this light, Han sees her as more than just a lover, but also as a friend. Sirine is a deep character in this environment; she moves with confidence and tenacity. Even though they have just recently met, she gets a strong, inexplicable feeling that when he looks anywhere, he sees her. Sirine's personality leads Han to appeal to what is in his mind, past, and present. She is his family, the one to whom he belongs, and he confides in her. As a result, he sees her as his home (Jaber, 2003), the one with whom he wants to share everything, including his innermost secrets and feelings.

Um Nadia, the owner of Nadia's Café, is the second Arab woman character in Abu Jaber's *Crescent*. She is an independent and strong woman and with Sirine working as a cook in Nadia's café, they established a place that feels like home (Jaber, 2003). Many students visit the café to enjoy their meals and to accompany other students in sharing their sentiments and loneliness. Furthermore, Um Nadia represents the mother figure in *Crescent*; her presence resembles any mother's existence in connecting each one together and creating a home for the Arab immigrant students. To Sena (2011), "the café is a sort of re-creation of home for those immigrants caught in an alien culture" (p. 12). Furthermore, Um Nadia is a strong Arab woman who supports both Mireille and Sirine. She always advises and encourages Sirine as a mother (Jaber, 2003). She is the mother of all the immigrants and students who long for their homelands. She opens the café to make people feel at home and to serve meals from their own nations. Nadia's café is a place where everyone feels comfortable and calm at the same time. Um Nadia's presence near the students helps them feel at home since she shares their everyday lives with them. In this way, she creates a home for everyone.

Nevertheless, after Um Nadia loses her daughter Nadia, she becomes stronger - a woman who can face life on her own. Hence, she stands in the middle of the tragedies and supports others including Sirine. Her words for Sirine and everyone reflect the wisdom of a well-experienced woman and Sirine can easily see the strength in Um Nadia's personality (Jaber, 2003). Since Sirine does not have a mother, Um Nadia is considered to be a mother for Sirine. In this context, Abu Jaber in *Crescent* not only represents strong and independent Arab women characters, but she also creates a womanhood in which all these Arab female characters support each other. Throughout the novel, Um Nadia and Merilee support Sirine as a real family. Through this perspective, Hassiba (2017) states that about Um Nadia depiction, "...The female characters presented in *Crescent* defied the stereotypes normally associated with Muslim or Arab women. Um-Nadia was unmarried, and runs her own business" (p. 64). Furthermore, Rana reflects another strong Arabic woman character; she is Muslim and wears a hijab. Though she is an Arab-American and wears a headscarf, Abu Jaber perfectly describes Rana as strong, educated, and self-sufficient. As a result, she exudes a vibrant and commanding presence. She is curious about everything and frequently asks probing questions. She has a voice and expresses herself. Moreover, she can also be thought of as an activist who gives her opinions about what is going on around her and easily attracts attention through her presence. Hassiba (2017) has the same opinion about Rana's characterization, saying Rana resembles feminists who demand their rights. As a result, she has no difficulty contradicting anyone who disagrees with her (as she did when she flung a pen at her professor, Aziz) (Jaber, 2003).

Furthermore, Rana is a member of a group that discusses current Middle Eastern affairs. She invites Sirine to her group meeting and addresses political concerns including American actions in Arab countries and their implications (Jaber, 2003). The reader can see that she is fearless in discussing these political topics, and her fiery mind permits her to discuss crucial political issues that are not associated with female interests. Thus, it is here that Abu Jaber wishes to blur the lines between what is typically connected with males and what is found in *Crescent* in relation to an Arab woman. As a result, Rana is not just a strong and rebellious figure, but she is also an activist who speaks about political issue without fear, as Yousef (2010) points out. As a result, Rana portrays a powerful Arab female figure that inspires others to take note of her presence. Rana also frees herself from her unsuccessful marriage and runs away from her spouse. She is brave for attempting to prevent her life and personality from being shattered by her husband, who regarded her as property and imprisoned her in their home. Furthermore, through Rana, Abu Jaber challenges the popular perception of veiled Arab and Muslim women. Ghouaiel (2015) discusses Abu Jaber's attempt in *Crescent* to deconstruct the previous perception about Arab and Arab Americans through representing Rana as "the active veiled Saudi American student who, in a 'Women in Islam' meeting" discusses political issues which defies the common perception about Arab veiled women. In this context, Abu Jaber shows Rana as a powerful and well-educated Arab woman. On the other hand, she is not compelled to wear the *hijab*; rather, she wears her headscarf as a symbol of her faith and heritage (Jaber, 2003). As a result, she opposes Western stereotypes of Arab women, particularly those who are veiled. Therefore, Abu Jaber, according to Yousef (2010), defies the stereotypes associate with Arab women in her novel *Crescent*. Mireille is Um Nadia's daughter. Despite being 42, she still hasn't married, but does so at the end of the story.

B. The Depiction of Arab Women in Fadia Faqir's My Name Is Salma

The following discussion offers Faqir's depictions of Arab women that, from a postcolonial standpoint, promulgate the clichéd pictures presented by the West. It could be said, from a feminist perspective, that Faqir may unintentionally represent Arab women in this way to highlight their suffering. Onyango (2016) states that Faqir is concerned with raising awareness of the situation of women in Muslim societies through Salma, who represents all Muslim women, in order to liberate them from oppressive males. The section starts with Salma, then moves on to Salma's mother, grandma Shahla, Hima ladies, Madam Lamaa, and finally Noura. In Faqir's novel, Arab women are portrayed as obedient, abused, docile, mute, reliant, and even threatened with death by the males in their lives. Through this novel, Faqir depicts the East as a grave for Arab women and women are forced to obey men in their society. When Salma becomes pregnant out of wedlock, her clan divides her blood among themselves, and her brother Mahmoud threatens to shoot her. Moreover, her mother says "If your father or brother find out they will kill you" (Faqir, 2007, p. 42). Furthermore, many scholars argue that, through the character of Salma, Faqir expresses her hatred for Arabic customs and Islamic roles. Majed (2012), for example, claims that the image of Islam depicted in Faqir's literary works is affected by her own experience with her father which she discusses in two of her essays. As a result, Faqir mirrors her own experience through Salma when her father compels her to wear the veil and forces her to pray five times a day – both of which Faqir believes to be a kind as oppression. Faqir's harsh portrayal of oppressed Arab women increases the conventional pictures represented by the West. According to Majed (2012), "Such writers represent the Western imagined Arab and Muslim culture rather than the culture itself" (p. 44). Thus, he continues to claim that diasporic Arab writers, such as Faqir, embrace the conventional images of Arab women portrayed by the West in depicting downtrodden, weak, and suppressed Arab women.

Many experts say that Faqir is a feminist who demands and highlights the suffering of Arab women though their male-dominated society's oppression of them; therefore, Islamic duties such as guarding their chastity and the wearing the headscarf are forced on them. The reader notices Faqir's unfavorable portrayal of Arab women - a contentious issue in the current study. In this way, Faqir portrays a negative image of Arab women for Western readers who are unfamiliar with the Islamic world or the Arabic culture, away from literature and the Western media, which distort the facts and manipulates the Arab women's depiction as solely perceived via the Western assumptions and preconceptions. This story begins with the protagonist, Salma, living in Hima. She then moves on to the UK where she becomes the British "Sally" after a British nun adopts her. She is a naive shepherdess, a Bedouin girl, uneducated and reliant. When she becomes pregnant out of wedlock, her community plans to divide her blood and kill her. This depiction shows her weak nature - incapable of defending herself against the oppression she endures in Hima at the hands of the patriarchal society in which she resided. Faqir, in this view, portrays repressed Arab female characters who are subjugated by their culture and male family members. Furthermore, Salma is subordinate to her society; she is forced to clean the horse, milk the goats, and feed the cows as her mother always requested her to do, and her hands are rough from working all the time. Furthermore, Faqir depicts Salma as meek, naive, and weak, since Salma allows Hamdan to exploit her sexually because she believes he loves her. As a result, she is useless to him, and she accepts being referred to in lower terms by him (Faqir, 2002). As a result, her tribe planned to murder her, and her brother and father agreed. As a result, Salma accepts responsibility for her pregnancy and is threatened with death in order to restore the family's honor. Hamdan also threatens Salma with death if she dares divulge his identity and abandons her (Aziz, 2018). As a result, Salma lacks a voice to defend herself against the tyranny she encountered from her community. She also lacks the courage to prevent herself from becoming a victim of Hamdan's exploitation.

Miss Naila, and Salma's mother assist her in escaping and save her life by keeping her in protective care after she becomes pregnant. Then Salma gives birth to a baby girl, Layla, who is taken away from her. As a result, a Christian nun assists her in fleeing Jordan. According to this viewpoint, Faqir victimizes Arab women because they require assistance to save them from honor crimes committed by their family members (Faqir, 2007). In fact, while honor crimes exist in the Arab world, they are not a widespread occurrence in Arabic society. Faqir exaggerates the subject of violence against Arab women by depicting it through Salma and other women in Hima. As a result, Faqir demonstrates that honor crimes are unending and ongoing in Hima by mentioning a girl who is immediately killed by her brother after the authorities released her. Faqir demonstrates through Salma that Arab women are oppressed from birth; when Salma's father learns that he had a girl, he exclaims, "'The burden of girls is from cot to coffin', said my father" (Faqir, 2007, p. 123). In this light, Al-Majarha (2016) states that "A Bedouin girl is generally brought up to be voiceless, submissive, and obedient. Consequently, she becomes unable to think for herself and make her decisions independently. Others should think and decide for her and she has to follow their orders" (p. 30). Al-Majarha (2016) also adds that "This issue that Faqir presents in her novel will be discussed through a feminist perspective in order to investigate how women are oppressed by their cultural and patriarchal society in the name of honour" (p. 49).

Thus, Faqir exemplifies the importance of women in Arab society, as they are valued less than men. Besides that, having a female in an Arab family is considered bad luck, exemplifying the oppressed image of Arab women. As a result, Faqir paints Arab women as victims who are oppressed by their patriarchal society and religious restraints. According to Onyango (2016), Faqir portrays Arab female characters as victims of patriarchal dominance. From this vantage point, this portrayal recalls Western clichés of downtrodden and stifled Arab women who are victims of their society. Continuing on, after she acquires British nationality, Salma gains confidence and strength (Faqir, 2007). Salma has become self-sufficient in England, working two jobs as a seamstress and a nightclub waitress to make ends meet. Furthermore, when Salma changes her name to Sally, she constantly reminds herself of the difference between the obedient Salma and the confident Sally; however, this change in nationality did not change Salma's inner feelings of confidence. She continues to blame herself and believes that she does not deserve to live. Many quotations demonstrate Salma's lack of confidence since Faqir portrays her as weak and insecure. Salma's inert personality stops her from moving on with her new life, despite the fact that she is liberated. Despite the fact that she begins to rely on herself and enrolls in university, she is still unable to feel at ease, and she continues to blame herself for the past. Furthermore, Salma accepts to shed her veil when her friend Parvin advises her to do so in order to seek a job because the veil is a marker for her Islamic identity and it is difficult to find a work while wearing it. As a result, Salma adopts the Western culture in the way she dresses and lives her life in attempt to fit in with the new surroundings, neglecting her customs and origins. Salma, from this vantage point, is divided between two identities: the submissive Salma and the free, autonomous Sally. As a result, the reader will quickly perceive that Salma is weak and insecure.

Many Western readers may have incorrect notions about Arab women as a result of Salma's constant denigration of herself as inferior, alien, and different. As a result, the use of the words "alien" and "other" repeatedly demonstrates how odd Arab civilization and culture appear to the West. As Aziz (2018) states that "Faqir shows how the Arab society is portrayed and seen by the eyes of Westerners. It is depicted as an "other" which is opposed to the European people or "Occidentals" (Aziz, 2018). Through this lens, Faqir equates negative depictions of Arab women with the clichéd images portrayed by the West. While Salma constantly belittles herself by referring to herself as an "alien" and "other," an awkward Arab Muslim lady, Sally Asher, who has British identity, is a British rose. In contrast to her hometown, Salma only finds freedom and safety when she becomes Sally. Ironically, after boosting her confidence by repeating her British identity, Salma drops the pen and forms on the librarian's shoes as a sign of the of the Arab Salma's inferiority. Furthermore, Salma's appearance symbolizes how she differs from the attractive Western ladies; Faqir identifies the color black with the Arab Salma and white with the gorgeous Western woman. As it is associated with death and negative sentiments, the repetition of black ankles, black skin, and black Salma may refer to the gloomy and subservient Arab women. As a result, black denotes a terrible, bleak future and the oppression of Arab women, whereas white represents freedom, optimism, peace, and beautiful Western women. On the one hand, Salma is portrayed as inferior, insecure, and weak. She always expresses self-insecurity and always does what is told to her without thinking. On the other hand, she gains confidence and strength when she transforms into Sally the British rose. Furthermore, Salma constantly refers to Liz as a queen, and when Liz hits Salma, she does not say anything because Liz is a superior native British while she is an inferior refugee. Furthermore, Liz's language when speaking to Salma carries racist and discriminatory terms. Salma and Liz's relationship is divided into superior and inferior, as in colonizer and colonized, as Liz comments to Salma as they are watching television. As a result, in letters to her companion Noura, she expresses how Arabs vary from foreigners, saying, "The Westerners read so much, not like us. They are also nice and humble, not like us" (Faqir, 2007, p. 49). As a result, this quotation reflects the binary opposition in which the West regards differences between themselves as superior, and any nation that does not belong to them as inferior. This idea is in accordance with Majed (2012) who claims that *My Name Is Salma* is full of stereotypical images of Islam and Arabs. Furthermore, because of Salma's lack of confidence and sense of inferiority, she always lies about her Arabic ancestry. She conceals her genuine Arab identity; alternatively, she lies about her origin. Salma's lack of confidence and sense of inferiority as an Arab and Muslim is reflected in this. As a result, by exposing these prejudices in her novel, Faqir may unwittingly be propagating the stereotypical views of Arab women presented by the West by emphasizing Salma's sense of inferiority and concealing her Arabic heritage.

Salma removes her veil and begins dressing like a western woman, wearing short skirts and revealing clothing. Salma is aware of what she is doing; she always demonstrates that this appearance is not acceptable in her family, but she does it in order to obtain a job and feel accepted in England rather than being seen as an alien. From this vantage point, Salma is unable to preserve her Arab ancestry or feel at ease with her genuine identity. This exposes her weak personality in trying to change for the sake of others, and the reader can sense her lack of confidence as a result of her masking who she really is. Salma, on the other hand, was unable to adjust to her new culture until she resolved to break free from the old Arab Salma. According to Majed (2012), "In fact, this opposition seems to prove, in Faqir's perspective, the superiority of modern western civilization over the Muslim traditional one" (p. 170). Salma's mother is helpless and voiceless; she symbolizes a passive, subordinate figure, unable to protect or defend her daughter. Salma's mother, as much as she despises Mahmoud, is powerless to protect her daughter from her brother. As a result, near the end of the story, Mahmoud murders Salma despite his mother's pleas not to. Salma's mother is subdued and passive, and her relationship with her son reflects this. As a result, despite the fact that she is his mother, he treats her with contempt. As a result, she does not contact Salma when she is in protective custody, and she does not protect Salma from being murdered. She justifies this by saying, "I cannot visit you because your father haj Ibrahim and your brother forbade me to come" she explains (Faqir, 2007, p. 53). Shahla, Salma's grandmother, is another woman character in Hima who dies of sadness when her husband takes on a second wife. Furthermore, Salma states that neither her mother nor her grandmother, Shahla, own anything. As Faqir points out, women in Hima do not own anything, indicating male dominance over Arab women. From this vantage point, Salma's mother and grandmother are reliant, weak, and obedient, despite the fact that they are not permitted to own anything. As a result, Faqir depicts Arab women as mute, submissive, and repressed. Otherwise, their society will abandon them, threaten them with death, or replace them with other women.

IV. CONCLUSION

Given the above debate, the reader can see how each diasporic Arab writer portrays Arab women differently. Abu Jaber attempts to paint a favorable picture of Arab women in her novel *Crescent* by portraying Arab women who are powerful, independent, and self-assured. Sirine, Um Nadia, Rana, and Mireille are attractively represented in a new way to counteract the stereotyped pictures portrayed by the West. As a result, Abu Jaber, as a diasporic Arab writer, challenges Western views of Arab women while portraying a favorable image of them. In contrast, Fadia Faqir's *My Name Is Salma* portrays Arab women in a negative light by depicting servile, dependent, and obedient Arab female characters. Furthermore, Faqir may unwittingly represent Arab women in this fashion in order to highlight their suffering, but in doing so, she reinforces conventional ideas of Arab women in the West. As a result, Faqir, as a diasporic Arab writer, symbolizes what Western readers think they know about Arab women.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank the Middle East University in Amman, Jordan, for their financial support granted to cover the publication fee of this research article.

REFERENCES

[1] Abdulla, R. (2007). Islam, Jihad, and Terrorism in Post-9/11 Arabic Discussion Boards. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *12*(3), 1063-1081.

[2] Abu-Lughod, L. (2002). Do Muslim Women Really Need Saving? Anthropological Reflections on Cultural Relativism and Its Others. *American Anthropologist*, *104*(3), 783–790.
[3] Akkawi, A & Nashwan, A. (2019). *My Name is Salma* and I am a Victim of Honor Crimes: (Re) conceptualizing Honor Killing and Stigma against Women. *Dirasat: Human and Social Sciences*, *Volume 46*, No. 1.
[4] Alamares, C. (2013). *Bharati Mukherjee's Jasmine and Diana Abu-Jaber's Crescent: Metaphoric Representations of Hybrid Identities.*
[5] Al-Majarha, F. (2016). *Honour Crime in Fadia Faqir's My Name Is Salma A Feminist Perspective*. MA thesis. Middle East University.
[6] Alqahtani, S. (2017). Western Feminism or Return to Authentic Islam? Jordanian Women in Faqir's *Pillars of Salt* and *My Name is Salma*. *Arab World English Journal for Translation & Literary Studies*, *2*(7), 77-91.
[7] Awad, Z. & Ludwig, M. (2017). Arab women in news headlines during the Arab Spring: Image and perception in Germany. *Discourse & Communication, 11*(5), 515–538.
[8] Aziz, A. (2018). A Woman's Struggle for Identity and Existence: A Critical Study of Fadia Faqir's *My Name is Salma, Lark Journal Philosophy, Linguistics & Social Sciences. 4*(31). DOI: https://doi.org/10.31185/lark.Vol4.Iss31.201.
[9] CFFP, Centre for Feminist Foreign Policy. (2017). *Representations of Muslim Women in Western Media.*
[10] Djohar, H. (2019). Making Homes in Diana Abu-Jaber's Crescent. In *Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on English Language Teaching, Linguistics and Literature (ELITE 2019) - Promoting Global Diversity, Partnership and Prosperity through English Development*, pages 83-89
[11] El-Miniawi, N. (2016). *The Crisis of Identity in My Name is Salma*, Fikr Wa Ibda', 33-45.
[12] El- Ouardi, F., & Sandy, K. (2019). Third World Women Representation in Western Feminist Discourse: A Critical Study. *Arab World English Journal for Translation & Literary Studies, 3*(1) 127-135.
[13] Faqir, F. (2007). *My Name is Salma*. London: Transworld Publishers.
[14] Ghouaiel, I. (2015). *Negotiating the Third Space in the Arab American Fiction of Diana Abu-Jaber and Laila Halaby*. PHD.
[15] Hansson, J., & Henriksson, M. (2013). *Western NGOs representation of 'Third World women': A comparative study of Kvinna till Kvinna (Sweden) and Women for Women International (USA)* (Dissertation).
[16] Hassiba, N. (2017). *Arab American Identity in Exile: Case Study of Diana Abu Jaber Crescent*. MA thesis. University of 8 MAI 1945. GUELMA.
[17] Madany, O. (2020). Collision or Coalition: Cultural In/Determinacy in Diana Abu Jaber's *Arabian Jazz* (1993) and *Crescent* (2003).*الخدمة للاستشارات البحثية واللغات* , *22*(62), 1-48. doi: 10.21608/jocr.2020.114960
[18] Majed, H. (2012). *Islam and Muslim Identities in Four Contemporary British Novels*. Doctoral thesis, University of Sunderland. Doctoral thesis, University of Sunderland.
[19] Mehta, B J. (2009). The Semiosis of Food in Diana Abu Jaber's Crescent. In: Al Maleh (ed.) *Arab voices in diaspora: critical perspectives on Anglophone Arab literature*. Amsterdam & New York: Rodopi, 203-235.
[20] Nurcahyo, R. (2013). *Rhetoric of Significance and Transformation in Diana Abu Jaber's Crescent.*
[21] Onyango, A. (2016). *Identity Formation in Fadia Faqir's Novel My Name is Salma.* MA thesis.
[22] Ridouani, D. (2011). The Representation of Arabs and Muslims in Western Media. *RUTA*, *3*, 1-15
[23] Said, E. W. (1978). *Orientalism*. New York: Pantheon Books.
[24] Sena, M. (2011). *The Politics of Food and Memory in Diana Abu Jaber's Crescent*. MA thesis.
[25] Tawfiq, Y. (2010). The Goals and Discourses of Diana Abu-Jaber's *Crescent* and John Updike's' Terrorist. *The Arab Journal for Arts*. *7*(2), 205-222.
[26] Tawfiq, Y. (2010). Diana Abu Jaber *Crescent* as a postmodernist Novel. *Dirasat, Human and Social Sciences*. *37*(1), 228-244.
[27] Zubair, H., Farida, P. & Mirjat, A. (2019). Exploring the Representation of Feminist Reinventions, Cultural *A. The Women, Research Journal, 11*, 116-138.

Shireen Ismael Alhalholi is an MA Holder from Middle East University.

Nasyabah W. Awajan is an assistant professor at the English Language and Literature Department at Middle East University. She earned her PhD from The University of Jordan in English Literature. She has taught as a part time lecturer in The Arab Open University and The University of Jordan. She has also worked as a teacher educator for English Language students and the Academic Reading and Writing Lead at Queen Rania Teacher Academy.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1065-1075, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.29

Lexicon Distinctiveness Used in 'Awig-Awig' Text in Tenganan Village Bali: An Ecolinguistics Study

Mirsa Umiyati*
Master of Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia

***Abstract*—This article aims to describe the function of the Awig-awig (AA) of Tenganan Village as the primary basis for regulating the activities of the people of Tenganan Village, especially in nature conservation. Several research questions are the main focus of this research, namely 1) what are the unique lexicons contained in AA, especially the rules regarding nature conservation? 2) are these regulations still applicable in Tenganan Village? 3) How high does the younger generation master those lexicons? 4) What efforts have been made by Tengan residents to preserve the lexicon so the younger generation can still understand it? The methodological approach taken is field research using the deep interview method to collect data. The eesearcher also distributed questionnaires to measure the level of understanding of the younger generation. There are 100 respondents involved in this process. Then, the data was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. Based on the research results, there are two significant results. First, it was found 17 unique lexicons regulate nature conservation that residents of Tenganan Village must understand. Second, mastery of the lexicon varies based on age, gender, education level, and region of origin. In addition, these rules are still applicable until now. It is evidenced by the natural state, which is still well preserved. Unfortunately, the residents' efforts to encourage the younger generation to understand this lexicon are still lacking. If this condition is not resolved immediately, the AA of Tenganan Village will only be sustainable among the elders and will become extinct when the elders are gone.**

***Index Terms*—lexicon, *Awig-awig*, Tenganan village, ecolinguistics approach**

I. Introduction

The island of Bali has a distinctive and unique culture. One of the distinctions is the result of Balinese expression and interaction with their physical and social environment. The expression of the interaction between the Balinese and the social environment gave birth to Balinese languages (*Basa Bali*), norms, regulations, laws (*sima, dresta, awig-awig*), social institutions such as kinship institutions (*nyama, braya, dadia, soroh*), society institutions (*sekeha, banjar, village, gumi*) and so on. Meanwhile, the expression of Balinese interaction with the physical environment creates a system of knowledge about nature (such as the *Sasih* calendar, *pawukon, pramatamangsa*), the *subak* (paddy irrigation) system, and so on. Besides that, the Balinese people are also familiar with various equipment and technology used to adapt to the physical environment (Pujaastawa & Suwena, 2013). The Bali Aga Tenganan, known as the Tenganan Pegringsingan Traditional Village, Manggis District, Karangasem Regency, is among several existing traditional villages in the Bali Province. Until now, it maintained and preserved the area and its environment while uniting with the people bound in a system of rules called *Tri Hita Karana* (THK). With the THK, all regulations are managed, followed, and adhered to properly so that the area and environment in the Tenganan Pegringsingan Traditional Village are always sustainable (Sumunar et al., 2017).

Bali Aga is one of the tribes of the Balinese people who consider them to be the original inhabitants of Bali. Bali Aga is also called *Bali Mula*, where the people of the Bali Aga tribe usually live in mountainous areas. One example is the Bali Aga community in Tenganan Peringsingan Village. Bali Aga refers to ignorant mountain people who live in a mountainous area still inland and untouched by technology (Aridiantari et al., 2020).

One of the uniqueness of Tenganan Village is Awig-awig. Awig-awig (AA) is a norm that regulates the life of the people of the Tenganan Pegringsingan traditional village (Kristiono, 2017). Why is it so unique? Because the Awig-awig contains special rules to preserve the trees there. The people of Tenganan Pegringsingan village are very obedient to the Awig-awig that they make and agree on together, even more than other regulations.

Uniquely, the AA of Tenganan Village also regulates the village's natural preservation. Not only does it regulate how to preserve village nature in general, but in its articles, the AA specifically also regulates the types of trees that can be cut down, under what conditions trees can be cut down, the types of punishment given to violators of the rules, and other regulations that agreed for the sake of culture and natural preservation. Of course, the application of these rules is in line with the times.

* Corresponding author. Email: mirsa.umiyati2@gmail.com

Based on the description above, this research focuses on analyzing the public understanding of the lexicon distinctiveness in Awig-awig and finding out their persistence in society. The basic theory used in studying this problem is ecolinguistics. According to Stibbe (2015), ecolinguistics analyzes language to reveal the stories we live by, judges those stories according to an ecosophy, resists stories that oppose the ecosophy, and contributes to the search for new stories to live by (p. 183). In other words, ecolinguistics seeks to explore linguistic phenomena found in inter-language, inter-human, and human-nature relationships from the perspective of ecological philosophy. In contrast to other subfields of linguistics, ecolinguistics adopts “ecosophy” as its principle normative framework. Central to ecosophy is the commitment to ecological equilibrium. Unlike positivist worldviews, rejects the separation between human beings and nature under Cartesian dualism and proposes that ecological crises require scientific solutions and moral introspections of anthropocentric activities (Chen, 2016). More than that, it was also explained that by accepting Haugen’s concept of language ecology, ecolinguists bypass the question of the nature of the system to which the concept of ecology is applied. The ecological approach to language takes into consideration the complex network of relations occurring between the environment, languages, and people speaking these languages (Wendel, 2005, p. 51). While the relationship between people as populations of organisms falls under the notion of ecology, it is hard to fit into the ecological system languages as separate entities: in Wendel’s definition, they are neither environment nor organisms (Kravchenko, 2016). The results of this study not only contribute to the preservation of those special terms for the younger generation particularly and for the community outside Tenganan village generally.

II. Literature Review

Many previous researchers have carried out research with an ecolinguistics approach. However, most of these studies only identify a number of lexicons within a community with different methods, as was done by Feng and Fan (2012) to analyze the reasons of appearing the lettered words and the influence may have on to modern Chinese form of ecolinguistics view and focus only analyzed the lettered words from the perspective of ecolinguistics. Similar to Norton and Hulme (2019), the partisan divide on climate change between politically ‘left’ and ‘right’ broadsheets are much less in 2015 when compared with 2001. It identifies the salience of the Ecomodernist story across a broad political spectrum of print media in 2015. The ecomodernist story emphasizes technology and energy innovation responses to climate change while recognizing that adaptation to extreme weather events is necessary. These two-story elements are presented across different climate change stories, thereby highlighting investment in climate adaptation and energy R&D as responses to climate change that are less exposed to ideological contention. Meanwhile, from the point of view of linguistic studies conducted by Luardini et al. (2019) that there are three essential elements of the relationship between the ethnic culture and the language of ethnobotany in Dayak Ngaju were identified: (1) the names of thirty-six ethnomedicinal plants along with their components and medicinal functions; (2) the terminology used for the plants, which is based on their ecology: their color, the places in which they grow, their shape, and their sex; (3) the social and cultural values expressed in local wisdom and their implications for the use and preservation of plant life in the locality.

In addition to the explanation above, several studies examine Awig-awig in Tenganan Village, but what differentiates this research from previous studies? First, research on AA of Tenganan Village is more in the law field, e.g., Suwitra et al. (2021) studied “Strengthening Balinese Customary Laws through Awig-Awig Writing in Pekutatan Negara Traditional Village.” Then, Awig-awig as Traditional Law Written in Traditional Law Perspective in Indonesia was conducted by Yulianingsih et al. (2021). Furthermore, Pinatih and Rahman (2020) analyzed the Awig and Legal Awareness of the Community: How Does Customary Law Provide Security for Local People and foreigner. Likewise, Srilaksmi et al. (2021) investigate Awig-Awig as a Support for National Law in Preventing Land Conversion in Buleleng Regency. The last, Widyastini and Dharmawan (2013) studied the Awig-awig Effectiveness in Setting the Life of the Fisherman Community on Kedonganan Beach, Bali. In conclusion, all the above research described is more focused on analyzing the functions of Awig-awig in the legal realm. Simply, no research leads to investigating the Awig-awig lexicon as a linguistic feature, let alone using an ecolinguistic approach specifically.

Aside from studies on awig-awig in the legal fields, several works focus on culture and architecture (see Dharmika, 1992; Fadli et al., 2022; Gharata et al., 2022; Kristiono, 2017; Maria et al., 2007; Nyoman & Nursanti, 2017; Pertiwi & Mardiana, 2020; Setiawan et al., 2020; Setijanti et al., 2015; Sumarjo, 2018; Suyadnya, 2021; Widyastini & Dharmawan, 2013; Wijana et al., 2020; Yulianingsih et al., 2021). However, in all the research above, no one combines cultural analysis and its relation to the language phenomenon of the Awig-awig of Tenganan as formulated in this current research. The only study that examines AA of Tenganan Village was done by Umiyati (2020), entitled “The existence of Natural Lexicons in ‘Awig-Awig’ Tenganan Pegringsingan Bali: An Ecolinguistic Approach. In this study, nine lexicon categories were found, namely fruit, tree, leaf, bulb, rhizome, seed, root, animal, and flower. Each numbered seven fruits, eleven trees, two leaves, five tubers, one rhizome, one seed, one root, nine animals, and two flowers. In other words, the researcher is still limited to expressing the Awig-awig eco-lexicon. Compared to this current study, the researcher prioritizes searching for a unique lexicon for the Awig-awig of Tenganan village and its meaning. These unique lexicons have the power to regulate all the actions of the people of Tenganan Peringsingan village, especially in the area of nature conservation. Therefore, the discovery of this unique lexicon is expected to help readers understand and implement it. Not only that, the researcher also presents quantitative data on the level of understanding of the people of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village regarding a number of the lexicons in question. So, the results of this research can be a guideline for Tenganan Village to design an effort and activity to increase the understanding of its residents on the contents of AA.

III. Concepts

A. Lexicon

A lexicon is a list of words found in a language. As the list of existing items in one language, a lexicon can be in the form of idioms and affixes (Aronoff & Anshen, 2007). They are used daily and have their units in specific and daily activities of a particular language (Katamba, 1993; Solonchak & Pesina, 2015) Lexicon also has its word class: noun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, numeral, article, pronoun, conjunction, and interjection (Rijkhoff & Lier, 2013). Each class has its function in forming sentences. The lexicon of a language is transmitted or passed down from one generation to the next through human actions, often in the form of face-to-face interaction, through linguistic communication (Budasi & Satyawati, 2021; Duranti, 2001).

B. Endangered Languages and Language Shift

An endangered language is a language that is in danger of extinction, and the phenomenon is called language endangerment (Tsunoda, 2006; Sallabank, 2010). Language endangerment happens when the language speakers abandon their indigenous language and prefer to use another language, which is more dominant socially or economically, instead (Grenoble & Whaley, 2006). That process of acquiring a new language by a community that replaces the community's first language is known as a language shift (Richards et al., 1986).

C. Language Maintenance and Language Death

The attempts to counter language shift is called language maintenance (Brenzinger, 2019). Abdelhadi (2018) mentions that language maintenance is the condition where people maintain the language by using it in their daily life, regardless of the cultural pressures from other languages (see Saputra et al., 2022). Language death happens because native speakers no longer exist. Once a language becomes a dead language, it will be tough to revive it from extinction (Crystal, 2000; Holmes, 2013).

D. Awig-Awig

In general, *Awig-awig* (AA) in Bali are rules or laws that apply in a village to be obeyed by every community member. Usually, AA manages governmental affairs. Majelis Desa Adat Provinsi Bali (2021) stipulates, judging from the sources of Balinese Customary Law above, one form of Balinese customary law is Awig-Awig traditional village. In Article 1 of the Regional Regulation on Traditional Villages in Bali 2019, Awig-Awig is a rule made by a traditional village or *banjar* that applies to *krama desa adat, krama tamiu,* and to all residents who live in their respective traditional village areas.

Currently, there are 1,493 traditional villages in Bali, and each of these traditional villages has its own Awig-Awig, which is not necessarily the same between one traditional village and another. Putri et al. (2019) says that Awig-awig comes from the word "wig" which means damaged, while "awig" means undamaged. So, Awig-awig is interpreted as something that becomes good. Literally, Awig-awig means a provision that regulates the etiquette of social life in society and creates a stable order of life. This concept is stipulated into rules, both written and unwritten, so as to make a sense that Awig-awig is ruled for living together for *krama* (villagers) in their traditional village, to create a safe, peaceful, orderly, and prosperous life in a traditional village.

In the awig-awig, there are basic rules relating to customary territory, *krama desa adat*, religion, and sanctions. Awig-awig in traditional villages is customary law that regulates and controls the behavior of community members in their social life so that public order and peace can be achieved (Putri et al., 2019). Furthermore, Widyastini and Dharmawan (2013) explained that Awig-awig is a set of local's rules made based on a mutual agreement to regulate the behavior of local people. In other words, Awig-awig is a form of a local institution created by customary chiefs (*bendesa adat*) and customary village administrators, which can change over time and according to a mutual agreement. Srilaksmi et al. (2021) added, related to the function of Awig-awig, it can support national law in preventing land conversion, one of which is in Buleleng Regency. Pinatih and Rahman (2020) also emphasized that Awig-awig is a unified set of customary laws that grow and are made by the community in the Pakraman Village (custom) to regulate the order of daily life accompanied by sanctions and implementing rules and are used by the Prajuru (organizer) of the Pakraman Village to maintain harmony and protect the residents of the Pakraman Village which apply to the residents of the Pakraman Village which are binding and must be obeyed (Fletcher, 2007). Furthermore, Suwitra et al. (2021) stated that coexistence is the operation of customary laws and State laws in harmony and direction to achieve the same goals, namely certainty, justice, and benefits. It includes the functioning of institutions according to their functions without denying each other the awareness of their respective positions in the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia by avoiding duplication of authority (Suwitra et al., 2021).

IV. Research Method

This study was a mixed-method study followed by a sequential explanatory method. It started with a quantitative approach to identify the status of the lexicon used in the AA of Tenganan village. In addition, this study also uses a survey sample method (cross-sectional study) where data is collected once in a certain period. The population of this study is the village of Tenganan Pegringsingan Bali, aged 15-70 years, totaling 349 residents. The number of samples was determined to be as many as 94 using Slovin's formula; the selection was carried out using a systematic random sampling method by first determining the random start and interval. The random start is determined with the help of a random table. The research variables consist of age, type of work, the origin of residents, level of education, and level of understanding of the 22 unique lexicons contained in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village. In identifying variables, the level of knowledge acts as the dependent variable, while age, type of work, the origin of residents, and level of education are independent variables.

Data were collected using direct interview techniques based on standardized questionnaires. The interviewer is the researcher herself, who four students assist as field officers who have received training beforehand. The collected data is then processed on a computer using SPSS software version 2.1. The data that has been cleaned is then analyzed descriptively and analytically using statistical analysis such as one-way ANOVA for ordinal independent variables and dependent scale variables, student t-test for nominal independent variables, and scale-dependent variables.

V. RESULTS

The unique or distinctive lexicon of AA of Tenganan Village is determined based on several parameters. First, look at all the words given additional information in the form of open and closed brackets (..) in the text of Tenganan Village's AA. Those lexicons were then offered to speakers of Balinese outside of Tenganan Village to ensure that the lexicons on the list were correct in the typical lexicons of Tenganan Village and not in the Balinese vocabulary in general. Apart from that, the unique lexicons of AA of Tenganan Village were also obtained by conducting in-depth interviews with residents who still master and understand the AA language of Tenganan Village. Next, the list of lexicons is grouped by type. The results of the interview process are summarized in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
THE UNIQUE LEXICON FOUND IN THE TEXT AA OF TENGANAN PEGRINGSINGAN VILLAGE

Code	Category	Code	Unique Lexicon	Function
LI	Position/level in village government	LI.1	*Luanan (n)*	Community Servant in preserving nature
		LI.2	*Tambal Apu (n)*	
		LI.3	*Pengluduhan (n)*	
		LI.4	*Lakusambah (n)*	
LII	Tree-cutting rights	LII.1	*Pengapih (n)*	Manage and protect trees from extinction
		LII.2	*Penaho (n)*	
		LII.3	*Tumapung (n)*	
LIII	Punishment levels	LIII.1	*Sumabe (n)*	Encouraging villagers to protect nature
		LIII.2	*Penging (n)*	
		LIII.3	*Sikang (n)*	
LIV	Villagers' activities	LIV.1	*Ngrampag (v)*	Actions to support nature conservation
		LIV.2	*Ngalang (v)*	
		LIV.3	*Ngambeng (v)*	
		LIV.4	*Ngrambang (v)*	
LV	Equipments	LV.1	*Salaran (n)*	Practical rules for preserving nature
		LV.2	*Kawos (n)*	
		LV.3	*Cacamputan (n)*	
		LV.4	*Kisa (n)*	
		LV.5	*Towasin (n)*	
LVI	Doer/Conservationists	LVI.1	*Camput (n)*	Nature conservationist
		LVI.2	*Daha Taruna (n)*	
		LVI.3	*Gumi Pulangan (n)*	

Based on Table 1 above, there are six lexicon groups, namely 1) positions/levels in village government, 2) tree-cutting rights, 3) levels of punishment, 4) villagers' activities, 5) equipment, and 6) doer/conservationists. To fully understand the AA of Tenganan Village, each type of lexicon category contributes significantly to the reader's understanding of the content of AA. Thus, the ultimate goal of preserving the village's nature can be achieved. Additionally, the functions of each of the lexicon categories above are connected to one another. If one lexicon category does not carry out its primary function, it will interfere with the performance of other categories. For example, the village government category as actors and community servants will not be able to maximally implement the existing rules in the AA of Tenganan Village if the categories of rights and punishments are not clearly spelled out and are not used as the main rule.

Interrelation of Functions and Forms of the Awig-Awig Lexicon of Tenganan Village

A. Villagers' Activities Category (v)

These lexicon groups are categorized as verbs (v). These lexicons refer to activities, especially to preserve nature. However, each lexicon in this group appears in a different entity, form, and allotment. The difference is as follows.

All types of lexicons: *ngalang* (v), *ngrampag* (v), *ngambeng* (v), and *ngambang* (v), refer to the village's right to collect natural produce in the forest or garden (*tegal*), but the designation and form, as well as provisions, are different. The lexicon of *ngalang* (v) means taking forest products only for ceremonial purposes on a plot of land (*petak abian*). In contrast, the lexicon of *Ngrampag* (v) means taking building materials belonging to the village or shared property. The lexicon of *ngambeng* (v) and *ngambang* (v) are explicitly allocated for ceremonial purposes.

Then, not only the difference in an allotment, but also the four lexicons are different in the form of objects (n) that may be used. The differences are as follows. Forest products that may be taken from the *ngalang* activity (v) are seven coconuts, five banana bunches, one bunch (*ijeng*) of areca nut, fruits such as mango, *wani*, *kepundung*, *ceroring* as much as one *kise roras* (One *kise* consists of 12 strands), one jackfruit, 9 of pineapple, and three pieces of betel nut. Meanwhile, *ngrampag* (v) is only allowed to take the form of objects such as wood and palm fiber (*duk*) as forest products (tegal) on private land for building materials belonging to the village or collectively. The forest products in question are *lakar kayu* (wood for house material), *duk* (palm fiber): 5 *kakab* per tree, areca nut tree: one tree per *petak abian* (a plot of land), bamboo: 1 stick per *a lingseh* (clump), and coconut trees. Unlike the two lexicons above, the *ngambeng* lexicon (v) only refers to two objects (n): *tuak* (palm wine) and *durian*, with the condition that the village has the right to notify residents to use the wine. In addition, the required durian should not be picked from the tree but picked up after it has fallen from the tree. For this reason, residents usually wait in the shack (*rerompok*) until the durian falls from the tree. This *ngambeng* activity is also carried out by village youths (*taruna*) by asking permission from the village. As for the lexicon, *ngambang* (v) is only followed by objects (n), such as chicken, for ceremonial purposes. As additional information, in the past, a requirement for doing *ngambang* was a chicken (*pitik*) that was still with a hen; it could not be a single chick. Due to only a few people raising chickens, the chicken must be purchased for ceremonial purposes.

B. Villager Rights Category (n)

Similar to the previous category, this category also has a different entity, form, and designation. The lexicon of *penaho* (n) means the residents' permission to cut down a tree in the garden (*tegal*) because the tree is too big and makes the small plants underneath not get light, so it needs to be cut down. The prohibited trees that may not be cut down include the durian tree, *tingkih* tree (candlenut tree), *kluwak* or *pangi* tree, and *tehep* tree. Permit to cut building materials (*lakar kayu*) in *tegal nyuh* (coconut plantation) with the condition of handing over 50% of the net timber to the village after deducting work fees or costs. For wood in *tegal jaka* (palm plantation), the trees must first be reported to obtain information (80% dead) through the mechanism of *Nunas Pemerikse* (checking process).

Meanwhile, the lexicon of *pengapih* (v) is the right to cut down trees in *tegal* (plantation). Then, after cutting down, the roots were revoked (*dibet*). Logging is carried out when three similar trees are lined up close together, or their branches touch each other, and the trees are cut down to provide distance between trees. Logging must be done if there is a confirmation from the traditional village through a field inspection mechanism. In other words, the tree may be cut down after a verification team checks and measures the distance between the trees. In addition, the lexicon of tumapung (n) is the right to cut down the surviving *lakar wood* as a building material for new families on their own land. Also, the tree was cut down for the needs of the construction of a Bale Tengah.

C. Government Level Category (n)

Lexicon of *pengluduhan* (n) is the lowest level in Tenganan Pegringsingan village. There are six levels of positions in Tenganan Pegringsingan village, namely *luanan*, *keliang desa*, *bahan tebenan*, *tambalapu*, *tambalapu tebenan*, and *pengluduhan*. The first tier of position is called the *luanan*, consisting of five pairs. The second position level is called *keliang desa*, consisting of six teams. The third position level is called the *bahan tebenan*, consisting of six teams. The fourth position level is called *tambalapu*, divided into *tambalapu duluan* and *apu tebenan*, consisting of six pairs each. Finally, the lowest level of position is called *pengluduhan.*

D. Objects Category (n)

(a). Kawos (n)

The lexicon of *kawos* is categorized as a noun. This lexicon consists of two syllables, namely /ka/ and /wos/. *Kawos* is the right of residents to get a distribution of offerings or food from *sawas* to individuals in the village, which are differentiated based on their organization.

(b). Acatu (n)

The lexicon of *acatu* is categorized as a noun. The lexicon acatu consists of two syllables, namely /aca/ and /tu/. *Acatu* is a measure of rice that amounts to 2.5 kg of rice. *Acatu* is made from a large coconut shell.

(c). Domas (n)

The lexicon of *domas* is included in the category of nouns. It is a unique lexicon consisting of two syllables, namely /do/ and /mas/. The lexicon of *domas* is a unit for the currency of *kepeng* or *pis bolong* (a type of money) worth eight hundred.

(d). Kise (n)

Syntactically, the lexicon of *kise* is included in the noun category. *Kise* consists of two syllables, namely /ki/ and /se/. *Kise* is a bag made of woven coconut leaves which is useful for carrying mangoes. There are two types of *kise* in Tenganan Pegringsingan village: *kise roras* and *kise tenganan*. *Kise roras* is a matting consisting of twelve coconut leaves, while *kise tenganan* is woven coconut leaves made by gentlemen in the village of Tenganan Pegringsingan for chickens.

(e). Towasin (n)

Syntactically, the lexicon of *towasin* is included in the noun category, which consists of three syllables, namely /to/, /wa/, and /sin/. *Towasin* is a wage from *krama desa* for residents who have helped do the ceremony.

(f). Cecamputan (n)

The lexicon of *cecamputan* is categorized as a noun. The *cecamputan* lexicon consists of four syllables, namely /ce/, /cam/, /pu/, and /tan/. *Cecamputan* is an inheritance in the form of treasure, land, and household properties given or taken by the village because the property owner has died and has no children to inherit.

E. Punishment Category (n)

(a). Sikang (n)

The lexicon of *sikang* is included in a unique lexicon which is a noun category. The *sikang* lexicon consists of two syllables, namely /si/ and /kang/. The *sikang* lexicon is the level of punishment in Tenganan Pegringsingan village for violating customary law. The type of *sikang* punishment is not allowing guilty villagers to enter temples or holy houses and may not issue ceremonial materials and be exiled. This punishment is imposed on people who do not pay their debts.

(b). Penging (n)

The lexicon of *penging* is included in the category of nouns. The *penging* lexicon consists of two syllables, namely /pe/ and /nging/. *Penging* is also a type of punishment in Tenganan Pegringsingan village. This *penging* punishment does not allow guilty citizens to pass through sacred houses, other residents' yards, Banjar, or public places. This punishment was also imposed on people who did not pay their debts.

(c). Sumabe (n)

The lexicon of *sumabe* is categorized as a noun. The *sumabe* lexicon consists of three syllables or syllables, namely /su/, /ma/, and /be/. *Sumabe* is a level of sanction for guilty citizens by being exiled from the village.

VI. DISCUSSION

Villagers' understanding of the unique lexicons of Tenganan village

The following are unique lexicons found in the awig-awig of Tenganan Pegringsingan village. The distinctive lexicon is categorized into two categories. First, the verb categories such as *ngalang, ngrampag, ngambeng* and *ngambang*. Second, noun categories such as *penaho, pengapih, tumapung, pengluduhan, sikang, kawos, acatu, domas, kise, towasin, penging, sumabe, timbal apu,* and *cecamputan*. The leader informant explained the meaning of the distinctive lexicon in Tenganan village. The following is a frequency table that contains the lexicon name and the level of understanding of the respondents, which consists of very understand, understand, less understand, and do not understand.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS'S UNDERSTANDING BASED ON THE TYPE OF LEXICON

No	Lexicon Type	Respondent's Answer				Total
		Very Understand (%)	Understand (%)	Less Understand (%)	Do not Understand (%)	
1	*Ngalang*	51 (54.3)	19 (20.2)	15 (16.0)	9 (9.6)	94 (100%)
2	*Ngrampag*	35 (37.2)	25 (26.6)	14 (14.9)	20 (21.3)	94 (100%)
3	*Ngambeng*	48 (51.1)	24 (25.5)	7 (7.4)	15 (16.0)	94 (100%)
4	*Ngambang*	22 (23.4)	9 (9.6)	22 (23.4)	41 (43.6)	94 (100%)
5	*Penaho*	37 (39.4)	19 (20.2)	11 (11.7)	27 (28.7)	94 (100%)
6	*Pengapih*	42 (44.7)	13 (13.8)	9 (9.6)	30 (31.9)	94 (100%)
7	*Tumapung*	33 (35.1)	15 (16.0)	11 (11.7)	35 (37.2)	94 (100%)
8	*Luanan*	49 (52.1)	24 (25.5)	7 (7.4)	14 (14.9)	94 (100%)
9	*Tambal apu*	35 (37.2)	15 (16.0)	6 (6.4)	38 (40.4)	94 (100%)
10	*Lakusambah*	49 (52.1)	22 (23.1)	9 (9.6)	14 (14.9)	94 (100%)
11	*Gumi pulangan*	52 (55.3)	12 (12.8)	13 (13.8)	17 (18.1)	94 (100%)
12	*Sumabe*	17 (18.1)	6 (6.4)	9 (9.6)	62 (66.0)	94 (100%)
13	*Penging*	18 (19.1)	9 (9.6)	7 (7.4)	60 (63.8)	94 (100%)
14	*Sikang*	41 (43.6)	12 (12.8)	7 (7.4)	34 (36.2)	94 (100%)
15	*Salaran*	24 (25.5)	14 (14.9)	5 (5.3)	51 (54.3)	94 (100%)
16	*Kisa*	58 (61.7)	22 (23.4)	4 (4.3)	10 (10.6)	94 (100%)
17	*Towasin*	14 (14.9)	7 (7.4)	10 (10.6)	63 (67.0)	94 (100%)

Respondents' understanding level of the lexicons that have special meanings above varies from each level of understanding to very understand, understand, less understand, and do not understand—assuming that the lexicon that is well understood by more than 50% of the respondents is said to be the popular lexicon. In comparison, those below 50% are said to be the less popular lexicon. Thus, it can be concluded that the popular lexicons are as follows: (1) the lexicon of *ngalang* is 54.3%, (2) *ngambeng* is 51.1%, (3) *acatu* is 63.8%, (4) *domas* is 74.5% (5) *kise* is 61.7%, (6) *gumi pulangan* is 55.3%, (7) *lukasambah* is 52.1 % and *luanan* 52.1%. The less popular lexicons are as follows: (1) *towasin* is 10.6%, (2) *sumabe* is 9.6%, (3) *penging* is 63.8%, and *salaran* is 54.3%.

The relationship between gender, age, education level and resident origin and the level of understanding of the unique lexicon found in the Awig-awig of Tenganan village

Before the relationship between variables is analyzed, the first 29 variables of the level of understanding are quantified by giving a value of 100 to the respondent's answer with a number of 1.75, a value of 3 for the respondent's answer with a number of 2.50, and a value of 1 for the respondent's answer with a number of 25. The sum of the values of each variable becomes the total value of the level of understanding of the specific terms of the Awig-awig lexicon of Tenganan Village. This way, the average value range for the level of understanding is obtained as much as 1.500 – 1.100.

The relationship between gender and the level of understanding of the unique lexicon of Awig-awig of Tenganan village

The level of understanding of the unique lexicon of the Awig-awig of Tenganan village based on gender is demonstrated in the following table.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF THE LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE DISTINCTIVE LEXICON OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE BY GENDER

	Group Statistics				
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Knowledge Total	Male	60	1536.25	444.396	57.371
	Female	34	1336.03	325.040	55.744

$t = 2.299$, $p < 0.05$

Table 3 above shows that the average male knowledge of the unique lexicon found in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village is 1536.25, while that of women is 1336.03, where $t = 2.299$ and $p < 0.05$. It means that the knowledge level of men is significantly better than women.

The relationship between age and the level of understanding of the Awig-awig lexicon of Tenganan Village

The Pearson correlation analysis is suitable to find out the relationship between age and level of understanding of distinctive lexicons in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village, considering that both variables are continuous variables. The two tables below are the output of the execution results of the Pearson correlation analysis in SPSS.

TABLE 4
STATISTICAL DATA ON THE CORRELATION OF AGE WITH THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF RESPONDENTS TO THE AWIG-AWIG LEXICON OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AGE	44.27	15.909	94
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL	1463.83	414.888	94

Furthermore, the following Table 5 shows the correlation between age and the level of knowledge of the respondents about the distinctive lexicon found in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village.

TABEL 5
CORRELATION BETWEEN AGE AND RESPONDENT'S LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE ABOUT DISTINCTIVE LEXICON OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

Correlations			
		AGE	KNOWLEDGE TOTAL
AGE	Pearson Correlation	1	.453**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	23538.351	277779.255
	Covariance	253.101	2986.874
	N	94	94
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	.453**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	277779.255	16008271.280
	Covariance	2986.874	172131.949
	N	94	94

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

Tables 4 and 5 above are the output of the Pearson correlation analysis, which correlates the respondent's age with the level of understanding of the distinctive lexicon found in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis found that the average age of the respondents was 44.27 years, and the average knowledge was 1463.83. The study also found a correlation coefficient (r) of 0.453 with sig. (2-tailed) of 0.000, which means the p-value is less than 0.01. Thus, there is a very significant positive correlation between the respondent's age and the level of knowledge of this particular lexicon. In other words, the older the respondent, the better his level of knowledge.

The relationship between the origin of the resident and the level of understanding of the unique lexicon of Awig-awig of Tenganan Village

The following table shows statistical data on the relationship between the residents' origin and the respondents' level of knowledge regarding the distinctive lexicons in the awig-awig text of Tenganan Village, as shown in Table 6 and Table 7 below.

TABLE 6
STATISTICAL DATA ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RESIDENT ORIGIN AND THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF THE RESPONDENTS ABOUT THE DISTINCTIVE LEXICONS OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

Group Statistics					
	RESIDENT ORIGIN	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL	ASLI	80	1526.88	408.838	45.709
	BUKAN ASLI	14	1103.57	226.779	60.609

TABLE 7
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE RESIDENT ORIGIN AND THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF THE RESPONDENTS RELATED TO THE DISTINCTIVE LEXICONS OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL	Equal variances assumed	11.442	.001	3.763	92	.000	423.304	112.500	199.870	646.737
	Equal variances not assumed			5.576	30.376	.000	423.304	75.913	268.349	578.259

Based on the origin of the respondents, as shown in Table 7, respondents who were born natively in Tenganan Pegringsingan had an average level of understanding of these distinctive lexicons of 1526.88. In contrast, respondents who were not native to Tenganan Pegringsingan had an average level of understanding of 1103.57. The statistical analysis (independent t-test) found that the t-value was 3,763, and a significant (2-tailed) value was 0,000. It means that the p-value <0.01. It can be concluded that the difference in the level of understanding based on the origin of the residences is very significant. In other words, there is a relationship between the resident origin and knowledge level.

The relationship between the level of education and the level of understanding of the distinctive lexicon of the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village

To explain the relationship between the level of education and understanding of unique lexicons used in Awig-awig of Tenganan Village needs one-way ANOVA statistical analysis. It is done considering that the education variable is ordinal while the knowledge level variable is a scale variable. The analysis results show that the average level of knowledge of respondents whose education level was elementary school was 1441.00, junior high school level had a knowledge level of 1311.11. High school level had a knowledge level of 1448.75. In contrast, university graduates (college) had a knowledge level of 1591.25, which is the F value of 1,081 and a significance of 0.361, which means that p> 0.05. So, the difference in the average knowledge of respondents who graduated from elementary school, junior high school, high school, and the university is not significantly different. In other words, there is no relationship between the level of education and people's understanding of the distinctive lexicons used in Awig-awig of Tenganan Pegringsingan village. The following are the results of the ANOVA analysis (see Tables 8 and 9 below).

TABLE 8
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND THE LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE DISTINCTIVE LEXICON OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

Descriptives								
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementry	25	1441.00	385.673	77.135	1281.80	1600.20	750	2150
Junior high	9	1311.11	280.933	93.644	1095.17	1527.06	900	1825
Senior High	40	1448.75	431.156	68.172	1310.86	1586.64	575	2150
College	20	1591.25	458.851	102.602	1376.50	1806.00	800	2125
Total	94	1463.83	414.888	42.792	1378.85	1548.81	575	2150

TABLE 9
THE RESULTS OF THE ANNOVA ANALYSIS AT THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION WITH THE LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE DISTINCTIVE LEXICON OF THE AWIG-AWIG OF TENGANAN VILLAGE

ANOVA					
KNOWLEDGE TOTAL					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	556751.138	3	185583.713	1.081	.361
Within Groups	15451520.140	90	171683.557		
Total	16008271.280	93			

VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the lexicon used in the Awig-awig of Tenganan Village is classified as threatened. All generations still use the lexicon, but only a few transmit its meaning to their children or younger generations (see Brenzinger, 2006; Sallabank, 2010). Some specific lexicons are not commonly used in daily communication because many villagers need to learn and understand the meaning of those terms (lexicon distinctiveness). The reasons that trigger the lexicon to be in threatened status are: (1) the overconfidence of the villagers that the young generation will learn the lexicon in the environment; (2) the negative attitude of the villagers towards the lexicon because the lexicon is identical to cockfighting gambling; and (3) the villagers believe that the lexicon is intended for masculine. Such situations lead to the villagers' ignorance of the lexicon's existence resulting in some of the terms in the lexicon disappearing or rarely being used by the villagers in daily communication. (4) Lexicons that are popular namely *ngalang (v), ngambeng (v), acatu (n), domas (n), kise (n), gumi pulangan (n), lakusambah (n),* and *luanan (n)*. Then, those less popular lexicons, such as *towasin (n), sumabe (n), penging (n),* and *salaran (n)*. There is a significant relationship between gender, age, and resident origin with the level of understanding of the unique lexicons of Awig-awig of Tenganan village; however, the level of education is not significantly related to the level of understanding of the distinctive lexicons of Awig-awig of Tenganan village.

REFERENCES

[1] Abdelhadi, M. (2018). Language Maintenance Factors: Reflections on the Arabic Langauge. *Asia Pacific Journal of Advanced Business and Social Studies*, *4*(1), 340–351. https://doi.org/10.25275/apjabssv4i1ss9

[2] Aridiantari, P., Lasmawan, I. W., & Suastika, I. N. (2020). Eksistensi Tradisi dan Budaya Masyarakat Bali Aga pad Era Globalisasi di Desa Trunyan. *Ganesha Civic Education*, *2*(2), 67–80.

[3] Aronoff, M., & Anshen, F. (2007). Morphology and the Lexicon: Lexicalization and Productivity. In A. Spencer & A. M. Zwicky (Eds.), *The Handbook of Morphology*. Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1111/b.9780631226949.2001.00003.x

[4] Brenzinger, M. (2006). Language Maintenance and Shift. *Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics*, *March*, 542–549. https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/01289-X

[5] Brenzinger, M. (2019). Language Maintenance. In J. Darquennes, J. C. Salmons, & W. Vandenbussche (Eds.), *Language Contact: An International Handbook Volume 1*. De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/doi.org/10.1515/9783110435351

[6] Budasi, I. G., & Satyawati, M. S. (2021). An Ethnolinguistic Perspective on Lexicons of Traditional House in Menyali Village, North Bali. *Jurnal Kajian Bali*, *11*(1), 115–130.

[7] Chen, S. (2016). Language and Ecology: A content Analysis of Ecolinguistics as an Emerging Research Field. *Ampersand*, *3*(June), 108–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amper.2016.06.002

[8] Crystal, D. (2000). *Language Death*. Cambridge University Press.

[9] Dharmika, I. B. (1992). *Awig-awig Desa Adat Tenganan Pegringsingan dan Kelestarian Lingkungan: Sebuah Kajian tentang Tradisi dan Perubahan*. Universitas Indonesia.

[10] Duranti, A. (2001). *Linguistic Antropology*. Cambridge University Press.

[11] Fadli, M., Maharani, D. P., Sholehudin, M., Liemanto, A., Senastri, N. M. J., & Ardhanariswari, R. (2022). Tribal Public Health Law in Tenganan Pegringsingan-Bali: An Emergency Preparedness and Response to Covid 19 Pandemic. *Journal of Hunan University Natural Sciences*, *49*(6), 74–86. https://doi.org/10.55463/issn.1674-2974.49.6.8

[12] Feng, R., & Fan, A. (2012). A Brief Analysis on the Lettered Words in Chinese-From the Perspective of Ecolinguistics. *IERI Procedia*, *2*, 194–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ieri.2012.06.074

[13] Fletcher, M. L. M. (2007). Rethinking Customary Law In Tribal Court Jurisprudence. *Michigan Journal of Race & Law*, *13*(57–97).

[14] Gharata, V. D., Satria, W. D., & Kamaruddin, M. (2022). Pengaruh Perubahan Sosio-Ekonomi Masyarakat terhadap Nilai dan Wajah Rumah Desa Adat (Studi Kasus : Desa Tenganan, Kabupaten Karangasem, Provinsi Bali). *Jurnal Arsitektur*, *12*(1), 01. https://doi.org/10.36448/ja.v12i1.2043

[15] Grenoble, L. A., & Whaley, L. J. (2006). *Saving Languages: An Introduction to Language Revitalization*. Cambridge University Press.

[16] Holmes, J. (2013). An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. In *Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling* (4th ed., *Vol. 53*, Issue 9). Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

[17] Katamba, F. (1993). *Mophology*. St. Martin’s Press, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-22851-5

[18] Kravchenko, A. V. (2016). Two Views on Language Ecology and Ecolinguistics. *Language & Communication*, *54*(December), 102–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2015.12.002

[19] Kristiono, N. (2017). Pola Kehidupan Masyarakat Adat Desa Tenganan Pegringsingan Bali. *Integralistik*, *5*(2), 158–175. Retrieved January 08, 2022, from https://journal.unnes.ac.id/nju/index.php/integralistik/article/download/13734/7527

[20] Luardini, M. A., Asi, N., & Garner, M. (2019). Ecolinguistics of ethno-medicinal plants of the Dayak Ngaju community. *Language Sciences*, *74*(April), 77–84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2019.04.003

[21] Majelis Desa Adat Provinsi Bali. (2021). *Pedoman Penyuratan Awig-Awig Desa Adat*. Majelis Desa Adat (MDA). [Guidelines for Writing Awig-Awig of Traditional Villages. Traditional Village Council (MDA)].

[22] Maria, S., Rupa, I. wayan, & Rahmiati, L. (2007). *Desa adat Tenganan Pegringsingan, Kabupaten Karangasem, Provinsi Bali* (L. Rahmiati (ed.); I). Departemen Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Direktorat Jenderal Nilai Budaya Seni dan Film Direktorat Kepercayaan Terhadap Tuhan Yang Maha Esa. [Tenganan Pegringsingan Traditional Village, Karangasem Regency, Bali Province (L. Rahmiati (ed.); I). Ministry of Culture and Tourism Directorate General of Cultural Values Arts and Film Directorate of Belief in God Almighty].

[23] Norton, C., & Hulme, M. (2019). Telling One Story, or Many? An Ecolinguistic Analysis of Climate Change Stories in UK National Newspaper Editorials. *Geoforum*, *104*(January), 114–136. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2019.01.017

[24] Nyoman, N., & Nursanti, P. (2017). *Impact of Endogam Marriage on Government of Tenganan Pegringsingan Traditional Village, Bali*. 14697–14705.

[25] Pertiwi, P. R., & Mardiana, R. (2020). Dinamika Awig-Awig dan Pengaruhnya terhadap Keberlanjutan Tanah Adat. *Jurnal Sains Komunikasi Dan Pengembangan Masyarakat* [JSKPM], *4*(1), 125–136. https://doi.org/10.29244/jskpm.4.1.125-136

[26] Pinatih, D. A. A. I., & Rahman, M. A. M. (2020). Awig-Awig and Legal Awareness of Community: How Does Customary Law Provide Security for Local People and Aliens? *The Indonesian Journal of International Clinical Legal Education*, *2*(4), 491–502. https://doi.org/doi.org/10.15294/ijicle.v2i3.39436

[27] Pujaastawa, I. B. ., & Suwena, I. W. (2013). Kearifan Lokal di Balik Mitos Lembu Putih di Desa Taro, Gianyar. *Jurnal Bumi Lestari*, *13*(2), 430–440.

[28] Putri, K. A. M. P., Puspitasari, N. W. F., Dewi, N. K. K., Ekarini, N. W., Dewi, I. A. P. P., & Mertadana, D. P. K. (2019). Pengaruh Hukum Adat Atau Awig-Awig Terhadap Pengelolaan Dana Desa Di Desa Banjar Kecamatan Banjar Kabupaten Buleleng Provinsi Bali. *Jurnal Ilmiah Akuntansi Dan Humanika*, *8*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.23887/jinah.v8i1.19856

[29] Richards, J., Platt, J., Weber, H., & Inman, P. (1986). Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics. *RELC Journal*, *17*(2), 105–110. https://doi.org/10.1177/003368828601700208

[30] Rijkhoff, J., & Lier, E. Van. (2013). *Flexible Word Classes: Typological Studies of Underspecified Parts of Speech*. Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199668441.003.0007

[31] Sallabank, J. (2010). Language Endangerment: Problems and Solutions. *A Technological World*, *Special Issue*, 50–87. Retrieved January 08, 2022, from http://www.gla.ac.uk/esharp

[32] Saputra, G. W. A., Mbete, A. M., & Muliana, I. N. (2022). Humor Discourse in Art Performances of Shadow Puppets Cenk Blonk. *Austronesian: Journal of Language Science & Literature*, *1*(2), 56–73. Retrieved January 08, 2022, from https://www.ojs.wahanapublikasi.com/index.php/austronesian/article/view/6/11

[33] Setiawan, L. D., Salura, P., & Fauzy, B. (2020). The relationship between traditional activities and the mass-space pattern in Bali Aga Customary Village society-Tenganan Pegringsingan. *ARTEKS: Jurnal Teknik Arsitektur*, *5*(3), 373–390. https://doi.org/10.30822/arteks.v5i3.536

[34] Setijanti, P., Defiana, I., Setyawan, W., Silas, J., Firmaningtyas, S., & Ernawati, R. (2015). Traditional Settlement Livability in Creating Sustainable Living. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *179*, 204–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.423

[35] Solonchak, T., & Pesina, S. (2015). Language Ability and Word Functioning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *192*(3519), 447–452. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.067

[36] Srilaksmi, N. T., Ningrum, P. A. P., Kemenuh, I. A. A., & Suseni, K. A. (2021). Awig-Awig Sebagai Penunjang Hukum Nasional Dalam Pencegahan Alih Fungsi Lahan Di Kabupaten Buleleng. *Tampung Penyang: Jurnal Ilmu Agama Dan Budaya*

Hindu, *19*(2), 119–132.
[37] Stibbe, A. (2015). *Ecolinguistics: Language, Ecology and the Stories We Live By*. Routledge.
[38] Sumarjo, S. (2018). Eksistensi Awig-Awig dalam Menjaga Harmonisasi Desa Adat Tenganan Pegringsingan, Kabupaten Karangasem, Bali. *Habitus: Jurnal Pendidikan, Sosiologi, & Antropologi*, *2*(1), 27–39. https://doi.org/10.20961/habitus.v2i1.20222
[39] Sumunar, D. R. S., Suparmini, & Setyawati, S. (2017). Masyarakat Desa Adat Tenganan Pegringsingan. *Jurnal Penelitian Humaniora*, *22*(2), 111–124.
[40] Suwitra, I. M., Astara, I. W. W., Wijaya, I. K. K. A., & Arthanaya, I. W. (2021). Strengthening Balinese Customary Laws through Awig-Awig Writing in Pekutatan Negara Traditional Village. *International Seminar on Social Science, Humanities and Education* (ISSHE), *3*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.25-11-2020.2306661
[41] Suyadnya, I. W. (2021). Reaffirmation of Identity through Ritual Practices in Tenganan Balinese Old Village, Bali. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Technology and Educational Science (ICTES 2020)*, *540*(Ictes 2020), 66–71. https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210407.215
[42] Tsunoda, T. (2006). *Language Endangerment and Language Death: An Introduction*. Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315687391-4
[43] Umiyati, M. (2020). The Existence of Natural Lexicons in 'Awig-Awig' Tenganan Pegringsingan Bali: An Ecolinguistic Approach. *Jurnal Kajian Bali*, *10*(1), 191–216. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.24843/JKB.2020.v10.i01.p09
[44] Wendel, J. N. (2005). *Notes on the Ecology of Language* (Issue 5). Bunkyo Gakuin University.
[45] Widyastini, T., & Dharmawan, A. H. (2013). Efektivitas Awig-Awig Dalam Pengaturan Kehidupan Masyarakat Nelayan di Pantai Kedonganan Bali. *Sodality: Jurnal Sosiologi Pedesaan*, *1*(1), 37–51. https://doi.org/10.22500/sodality.v1i1.9389
[46] Wijana, N., Setiawan, I. G. A. N., Mulyadiharja, S., Wesnawa, I. G. A., & Rahmawati, P. I. (2020). Environmental Conservation Through Study Value of Bali Aga Tenganan Pegringsingan Community Culture. *Media Komunikasi Geografi*, *21*(1), 27–39. https://doi.org/10.23887/mkg.v20i2.21903
[47] Yulianingsih, W., Indawati, Y., & Kartika, A. W. (2021). "Awig-Awig As Traditional Law Written in Traditional Law Perspective in Indonesia." *5th International Seminar of Research Month 2020. NST Proceedings*, *2021*, 189–194. https://doi.org/10.11594/nstp.2021.0929

Mirsa Umiyati is a lecturer at Warmadewa University and the Head of Master of Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia. She actively conducts research in the fields of Syntax, Morphology, Ecolinguistics, Computational Linguistics, Research Methodology, Corpus Linguistics Linguistic Typology, Forensic Linguistics and others. Her several published works such as Linguistic Typology: Morphology and Syntax, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, Jae Jung Song (2020) [Translated by Mirsa Umiyati], Udayana University Press, and Excessive Lexical Borrowing: Restraining the Absorption of English Vocabulary into Indonesian through Translation (2018) published in Proceeding Scitepress, SCOPUS Indexing. In 2017, she served as deputy chairman of the Indonesian Journal Volunteer (RJI). At present, she is an editor-in-chief editor of Rhetoric: Journal of Language Studies.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 1076-1086, April 2023
DOI: https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1304.30

Pragmatic Competence in Learner English: The Case of Jordanian EFL Learners

Dina M. Hammouri
College of Foreign Languages, University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Rajai R. Al-Khanji
College of Foreign Languages, University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—**The study investigates the Jordanian EFL learners' pragmatic competence through their production of the speech acts of responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells. The sample of the study consists of 130 Jordanian EFL learners and native speakers. 2600 responses were collected through a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The findings of the study revealed that the tested students showed similarities and differences in performing the strategies of four speech acts. Differences in the students' performances led to pragmatic failure instances. The pragmatic failure committed by students refers to lack of linguistic competence (i.e., pragmalinguistic failure), sociocultural differences and pragmatic transfer (i.e., sociopragmatic failure). EFL learners employed many mechanisms to maintain their communicative competence; the analysis of the test on speech acts showed learners' tendency towards using particular strategies, resorting to one strategy related to their grammatical competence, prefabrication, performing long forms, buffing and transfer. The results were also suggestive of the learners' lack of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. The implications of this study are for language teachers to teach interlanguage pragmatics explicitly in EFL contexts to draw learners' attention to both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features, pay more attention to these areas and allocate more time and practice to solve learners' problems in these areas. The implication of this study is also for pedagogical material designers to provide sufficient and well-organized pragmatic input.**

Index Terms—**pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure, Jordanian EFL learner, sociopragmatic competence, pragmalinguistic competence**

I. Introduction

It is understood that one of the main aims of learning a language is to empower the learners in their communications. In actuality, learning the grammatical forms and rules may not be enough to equip the learners with the desired level of communication, specifically when communicating with native speakers. Hymes (1994) reports that it is customary that members of different speech communities participate in communication, but then again, they tend to be confronted by misunderstandings. Therefore, being unaware of the pragmatic systems of the foreign language as Muir (2011) asserts, may result in breakdowns or discomfort in cross-cultural communication.

Many scholars took forward definitions of pragmatics. Pragmatics is understood to be language in use. Hence, language may be used in various ways in different contexts yet it may convey dissimilar meanings. It is concerned with one's ability to use language meaningfully. Crystal (1997) asserts that "pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication". The obvious issue in learning a second language is learning its pragmatics. Schmidt (1995) assures that learning the pragmatics is linked to text organization; implicature, presupposition, and the handling of conversations.

This study is basically concerned with pragmatic competence. Hymes (1971) who proposed the term competence, referred to communicative competence as an aspect of one's competence which enables the speaker to convey and interpret messages within specific contexts. Social and cultural knowledge are as essential to communicative competence as syntactic knowledge, morphology and phonology are. Thomas (1983) proposes that both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence feed into pragmatic competence. The pragmalinguistic competence refers to the multiplicity of choices that are available to perform a speech act. Hinkel (1996) asserts that sociopragmatic competence refers to the knowledge of accuracy of time and manner of selecting, namely, the occasions. Leech (1983) mentions the term 'general pragmatics' which he defines as a fairly abstract study. He addresses the need for more specific and detailed studies such as the fields of sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. He illustrates that general pragmatics branches into sociopragmatics, which is related to sociology and pragmalinguistics, which is more related to grammar. Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to sociopragmatic competence as native cultural competence, whereas pragmalinguistics is language specific.

Insufficient pragmatic competence impels second language (L2) learners to transfer their language competences from their first language (L1) to L2 and when this transfer happens, whether linguistically or pragmatically, failure or miscommunication ensues. Thomas (1983) defines pragmatic failure as the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. Blum-Kulka and Olhstain (1986) highlight that pragmatic failure might carry serious social implications. For example, O'Keeffe et al. (2011) note that the impact of differing pragmatic norms leads to cultural misconceptions and misunderstanding. Pragmatic failure happens when language is in actual use, specifically, when non-native speakers perform various arrays of speech acts. Thomas (1983) clarifies that pragmatic failure branches into two major categories namely, pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Thomas (1983) clarifies sociopragmatic failure is much more difficult to deal with than pragmalinguistics, since sociopragmatic involves the learner's system of beliefs. Thus far, Pragmalinguistic failure may be considered at the explicit level and the transfer at this level is inappropriate due to the problems of transfer of referential expressions. The current paper is primarily aimed at investigating the pragmatic competence of the Jordanian EFL learners through their production of the speech acts of responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells. For example, what strategy would the EFL learner employ to respond to his/her aunt who is asking for help? What strategy would the Jordanian EFL learner employ to threaten a stranger who is following him/ her? Are the strategies employed by the Jordanian EFL learner, in making farewells to the uninvited attendee, similar to the strategies employed by the native speakers? (see Appendix A)

II. Literature Review

Since researchers believed that misunderstanding may arise in cross-cultural communication, they conducted many researches which were confined to study pragmatic competence teaching. Hassan (2018) explored the challenges of raising the awareness of pragmatic competence in EFL classes. The study concluded that students are being deprived of some conditions which cannot be completely provided in the classrooms.

Many studies investigated cross-cultural pragmatic competence in the context of EFL learners. Therefore, a number of studies focused on examining the pragmatic ability in various speech acts aiming to reveal the intercultural language. Yu (2011) who investigates the interlanguage behavior of Chinese learners of American English, focused on how they offer compliments in L2. The native Chinese speakers and native English speakers used very different linguistic strategies and options, suggesting that socio-cultural strategies from the L1 were translated into L2 behavior. Pishghadam and Sharafadini (2011) investigated how Iranian EFL learners employ suggestion speech acts. In their study, 150 Iranian English learners took part in a DCT which consisted of 6 situations. The results of the study were conferred in the context of language learning and teaching. They related this finding to the pedagogical materials employed in Iran and justified it that English teaching books teach these strategies directly.

In the Jordanian context, Al-Ali and Alawneh (2010) investigated the Jordanian learners' request-making in English. Their study aimed at comparing the devices with those used by the native speakers of American English in order to find out the potential pragmatic failure instances between the two languages. They found that Jordanians commit pragmatic errors when making requests because of three factors: (1) nonnative speakers' choices, which is the language ability, (2) L1 pragmatic knowledge and (3) L1 cultural norms transfer. Huwari and Al-Shboul (2015) investigated the perception of Jordanian EFL learners' pragmatic competence through assessing their refusal strategies in terms of contextual and cultural factors. They collected data by two methods; a DCT and a scaled response questionnaire which aimed to elicit perception data from the participants. The results revealed that Jordanian's production of making refusals is politer than American refusals. They attributed it to the deeply rooted cultural values that Americans possess of their own culture.

Al-Khaza'leh (2018) explored the influence of social power on the perception of the speech act of apology by Jordanian EFL learners. The study concluded with some pedagogical implications that could benefit EFL course designers and teachers to develop EFL curricula in Jordan. They believed that it might remedy the lack of pragmatic knowledge of the target language and reduce pragmatic failure across cultures. Al Kayed and Al-Ghoweri (2019) conducted a sociopragmatic study of speech acts of criticism in Jordanian Arabic. The data were collected from 120 undergraduate Jordanian students living in Jordan by means of DCT. It contained 10 scenarios. The results of the study showed that Jordanians adopted more indirect strategies than direct strategies to perform criticism. Almahameed and Ajalein (2019) investigated instances of pragmatic failure committed by Jordanian learners of English when producing some language functions. They focused on four functions; accepting compliments, asking for permission, expressing congratulations and expressing condolences. The results revealed that pragmatic failure committed by students refer to lack of both linguistic competence and socio-cultural differences. Shboul (2010) conducted a cross-cultural investigation of linguistic realizations of the speech act of threatening which was performed by native speakers of Jordanian Arabic and American English. The data of the study were elicited by using DCT in which situations were drawn from real life situations. The study revealed five strategies of making threats namely, telling authority, committing harm, introducing options, warning and promise of vague consequence.

III. Methodology

This study is quantitative in nature. To answer the research questions, the researchers rely on percentages and frequencies to inform the pragmatic competence of the Jordanian EFL learner. Following that, the researchers comment briefly on these percentages and frequencies to come up with the reasons that probably stand behind the pragmatic competence-level. This was done through a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) and an Oral Discourse Completion Test (ODCT) (see Appendix A).

A. Instrument

The data for the present study were collected through a DCT which includes four speech acts (responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells), with five situations for each. The twenty scenarios were prepared by the researchers to lead the participants to respond appropriately using the four speech acts. The main reason for using the DCT in this study is so that the participants have sufficient time to think about their responses and make use of different strategies compared to other tasks (see Appendix A).

With regard to the ODCT, the researchers met each Jordanian EFL learner in an individual session and the responses given on the twenty situations by the participants were recorded. The researchers excluded the students who reported that they lived in an English-speaking country. With regard to the WDCT, each native speaker was requested to read twenty situations and then write down his/ her response in a natural way as s/he talks to a real person. The participants were selected randomly regardless of gender and the sample was taken upon convenience and availability.

B. Sample of the Study

The sample of the study is composed of 130 aged 15 to 17 of male and female who gave 2600 responses. They were Jordanian students who are learning English in a private school in Jordan and native speaker students of English language who are in a school in England.

IV. Results and Discussion

This part of the study answers and discusses the results in terms of the two research questions of this study.

Q1-What strategies do Jordanian EFL learners and English native speakers use most often in responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells?

Q2- How different or similar are the speech acts of responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells between Jordanian EFL speakers and English native speakers?

As mentioned above, the researchers used a DCT to investigate the competence of Jordanian EFL learners in the production of four speech acts responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells.

A. Responding to Requests

The overall number of native speaker’s responses to requests was 100, henceforth (N=100), and Jordanian EFL learners (N=550). The responding to requests data fell into three main categories; both group students accepted, refused and mitigated in responding to requests while no one refused to answer. Table 1 presents the Frequency distribution of request response types and strategies of native speakers and Jordanian EFL learners in percentage.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF REQUEST RESPONSE TYPES AND STRATEGIES OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND JORDANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN PERCENTAGE

	Native speakers	**Jordanian EFL learners**
Response types	**%**	**%**
Accept	55%	63%
Acceptance + formula	87%	51%
Conditional acceptance	9%	28%
Request returning	4%	4%
Acceptance + explanation	0%	16%
Total =	**100%**	**100%**
Refuse	40%	35%
Refusal + formula	18	5%
Refusal + showing obstacles	55	47%
Refusal with question	13	9%
Refusal + suggestion/ promise	15	38%
Total =	**100**	**100%**
Mitigate	5%	2%
Deflecting informative comments	80%	82
Reassurance or repetition request	20%	18
Total=	**100**	**100**
No response	0%	0%
Total=	0%	0%
Overall total=	**100%**	**100%**

Table 1 illustrates that, in both groups, the acceptance category was the most frequent response type, the second frequent response type was refusal and the least was mitigating. First, with regard to the acceptance category, it is obvious in Table 1 that accepting requests in the native speaker's data opted for three of the four subcategories (strategies), namely, (A) acceptance + formula, (B) conditional acceptance and (C) request returning. The fourth strategy 'acceptance with explanation' was not found in the native speakers' data, hence, it was only found in the Jordanian EFL learner's data. Below is a presentation of each acceptance strategy followed by illustrative examples. In order to save space, each example (response) is presented alongside its situation title (see Appendix A).

First: Native speakers' response types.

(a). Acceptance + Formula

(1) [Response] Okay. (Aunt asking for help)

(2) [Response] I'll show you how to do it as well. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

(3) [Response] Yes, sure. (Professor asking for assistance)

Apparently, acceptance + formula was the most commonly used strategy in accepting requests (see Table 1). This strategy, which was employed in (P=87%) of the acceptance responses, was also frequent in the Jordanian EFL learner's data (P=51%). It was observed that native speakers tended to accept requests in simple sentence forms i.e., their sentences consisted of one part. The native speakers fulfilled the one-part response by performing either of the two patterns. First, they accepted by applying a device as in example (1) Okay. Second (the formula), when it did not contain a device that showed acceptance, they accepted the request mostly by confirming as in example (2) I'll show you how to do it as well. It was also noticed that very few responses consisted of a mixture of devices as in example (3) Yes, sure.

(b). Conditional Acceptance

(4) I will only help you; I won't do it for you. (Classmate asking for homework)

This strategy was performed by (P=9%) of the native speakers when accepting requests. Although it is conditional, it was observed that native speakers were capable of performing this strategy in default of using a conditional device such as, *if*, *unless*, *provided*, etc. Subsequently, native speakers were able to signify their conditioned acceptance by confirming the pattern as in example (4). It was noticed that native speakers did not use acceptance devices in this strategy.

(c). Request Returning

(5) What do you need my friend? (Classmate asking for homework)

This strategy was performed by (P=4%) of the native speakers when accepting requests. It was observed in this strategy that native speakers did not use acceptance devices. Instead, they performed this strategy by signifying the acceptance as in example (5).

Second: Jordanian EFL Learners response types:

(a). Acceptance + Formula

(6) [Response] Of course, I will since you need helping. (Aunt asking for help)

(7) [Response] I'll help you. (Professor asking for assistance)

(8) [Response] Yes, sure. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

This strategy acceptance + formula which was the most commonly used strategy in accepting requests in both groups, was not identical in the forms. While native speakers performed their acceptance in one part-sentences, it was observed in most of the Jordanian EFL learner's data that this strategy was performed in two parts. The first part contained a device that showed acceptance and the second part (the formula) showed emphasis. This prominent way in accepting request responses can be witnessed in (6) Of course [the acceptance device] then (the formula) I will since you need helping [the emphasis]. It is worth to highlight that an insignificant number of responses consisted of only one part (the formula) and which can be witnessed (7) I'll help you. Dissimilar to the native speakers' responses, it was common for the Jordanian EFL learners to mix devices as in example (8). Remarkably, the most frequent device in both groups was *yes*.

(b). Conditional Acceptance

(9) [Response] Of course I will help you with the homework, but I will need you to help me too facing the same difficulties in the same homework. (Classmate asking for homework)

(10) [Response] Yes, I would be. Yes, I would be very happy to help you if you can give me extra marks for that. (Professor asking for assistance)

(11) [Response] Okay, but you will pay more. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

This strategy was performed by (P=28%) of the Jordanian EFL learners when accepting requests. Although they applied acceptance devices, they proceeded by adding a condition that the requester had to fulfill. In (9), the classmate accepted to help but only if s/he received help back. In (10), the student accepted to help the professor, but only if he granted him extra marks. In (11), the mechanic agreed to fix the car but only if the requester paid him more.

To perform this strategy, it was observed that the majority of the Jordanian EFL learners used conditional devices such as, *if, unless, but, if, just, let me first*/*first let me, it depends, only,* etc. as is (9) but, (10) if and (11) but. This observation is unlike the native speakers who signified their conditioned acceptance without using conditional devices.

(c). Request Returning

(12) How can I help you? (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

(13) What happened to the engine? Don't worry. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

This strategy was performed by (P=4%) of the Jordanian EFL learners when accepting requests. Although Jordanian EFL learners and native speakers were similar in not employing acceptance devices, EFL learners followed two patterns instead of one. They either implied acceptance by formulating another request as in (12) How can I help you? Or they supported their returned request by a phrase that implied acceptance as in (13) don't worry. On the contrary native speakers performed this strategy by following the former pattern and not the latter.

(d). Acceptance with Explanation

(14) For sure I can, I will open the shop and will help you in the tool and mechanic. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

(15) Of course, my auntie I will go with you to the market and help you. You don't have anyone to help you, so I will. I'm going, so let's go. (Aunt asking for help)

This strategy which was performed by the Jordanian EFL learners (P=16%), was not found in the native speakers' data. Thus far, after Jordanian EFL learners accepted, they explained why and how they intended to execute. In (14), the explanation aimed to express the manner of the execution *I will open the shop and will help you in the tool and mechanic*. In (15), the explanation aims to show the purpose of the acceptance *You don't have anyone to help you*.

Second, it is quite obvious in Table 1 that refusing requests in the native speakers' data and the Jordanian EFL learners' data opted for four sub categories (strategies), namely, (A) refusal + formula, (B) refusal + showing obstacles, (C) refusal with question and (D) refusal + suggestion/ promise. Below is a presentation of each strategy which is followed by illustrative examples. In order to save space, each example (response) is presented alongside its situation title (see Appendix A).

First: Native speakers' response types.

(a). Refusal + Formula

(16) I'm sorry, l can't. (Classmate asking for homework)

(17) I'm afraid not, I can't. (Professor asking for assistance)

Ostensibly, refusal + formula accounted for (P=18%) in refusing requests. By means of this strategy, it was observed that the native speaker's refusals consisted of two parts. One part contained a refusal device and the other part showed emphasis (the formula). This can be seen in example (16) I'm sorry [the refusal device] then l can't [the emphasis]. By means of this strategy, it was also noticed that native speakers selected only 3 devices, namely, *I'm sorry*, *no* and auxiliary *not* as in example (16) I'm sorry and example (17) not.

(b). Showing obstacles

(18) We are in the designated smoking area, sorry. (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

(19) I have to do my homework. (Classmate asking for homework)

It seems that showing obstacles was the most frequently used strategy in refusing requests (P=55%). In this strategy native speakers refused requests by applying a refusal device and then showing the obstacles to attest the infeasibility to the requester. In (18), the smoker refused to stop smoking by showing the obstacle that it was a convenient place. By means of this strategy, it was observed that the native speaker's refusals consisted of either one part or two parts. The first part contained a refusal device and the second part showed the obstacle, or contrariwise, as in example (18) We are in the designated smoking area [the obstacle] then sorry [the refusal device]. It may be predicted that when their refusal consisted of one part, only the obstacle part was used as in example (19) I have to do my homework.

(c). Refusal with question

(20) Why should I? (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

(21) How much help do you need? It sounds impossible. (Classmate asking for homework)

This strategy was employed by (P=13%) of refusals. The results revealed that native speakers signified their refusal by responding in a request form as in (20) Why should I? Nevertheless, in some responses a certain expression preceded or followed the response to fortify the refusal as in example (21) it sounds impossible.

(d). Making a suggestion or promise

(22) I recommend that you come back tomorrow. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

This strategy was performed by (P=15%) of the native speakers when refusing requests. Native speakers preferred to signify their refusals instead of employing devices by making suggestions as in (27) I recommend that you come back tomorrow. No promises were found in the native speaker's data.

Second: Jordanian EFL Learners response types.

(a). Refusal + Formula

(23) I'm sorry, l can't. (Aunt asking for help)

(24) No, sorry I don't want. (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

Apparently, the strategy refusal + formula accounted for (P=5%) of the Jordanian EFL data. It is worth mentioning that the systematic means of refusing in the native speakers' data was also found in the Jordanian EFL data. Jordanian EFL learner refusals also consisted of two parts. One part contained a refusal device and the other part showed emphasis (the formula). This can be acknowledged in example (23) *I'm sorry* [the refusal device] then *I can't* [the emphasis]. Unlike the native speakers, it was also noticed that Jordanian EFL learners selected more than 3 devices in refusing requests, namely*, I'm sorry, no* and the auxiliary '*not'*, *but* and even a mixture of devices as in example (24); the response contained 'no' and 'sorry' together.

(b). Showing obstacles

(25) Oh, sorry Professor, I have a class that I have to get to. (Professor asking for assistance)

(26) This, uh, this area is, especially for people who smoke. (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

Comparable to native speakers, it appears that this strategy was the most frequently used in refusing requests (P=47%). Jordanian EFL learners employed the systematic means of refusing which was employed by the native speakers. This system can be evident in (25) *sorry Professor* [the refusal device] then *I have a class that I have to get to* [the obstacle] and (26) This, uh, this area is, especially for people who smoke. However, unlike the native speakers, it was also noticed that Jordanian EFL learners selected more than 3 devices when performing the two parts, namely, *I'm sorry*, *no* and the auxiliary '*not'*, *but* and even a mixture of devices such as no, sorry, I don't want.

(c). Refusal with question

(27) Why it's a smoking area? (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

(28) Don't you know that we close now? Fix it yourself. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

(29) Can you come back later please if you allow to? Sorry, we closed now (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

(30) I'm sorry I don't, uh I don't have time. Can you go? (Classmate asking for homework)

This strategy was employed by (P=9%) of the refusals. Jordanian EFL's employed similar forms to the native speakers which can be witnessed in (29) Why it's a smoking area? (30) *Fix it yourself*. Despite the fact that both native speakers and Jordanian EFL learners adopted similar structure, it was noticed that Jordanian EFL learners overreacted. In this strategy, almost half of the responses were either overpolite or offensive. First, overpolite responses may be acknowledged in (29) Can you come back later please if you allow to? Sorry, we closed now. Second, offensive responses may be acknowledged in (30) I'm sorry I don't, uh I don't have time. Can you go?

(d). Making a suggestion or promise

(31) Sorry, but this is the smoke area you should go to another place. (Someone asking to stop-smoking)

(32) No, you have to wait for tomorrow, so I can open the shop for you. (Someone asking for engine-repairing)

This strategy was performed by (P=38%) of the Jordanian EFL learners when refusing requests. Despite the insignificant usage of devices in the native speakers' responses, Jordanian EFL learners did use devices. In this strategy, Jordanian EFL learners refused requests using a device then they proceeded in either two ways. The first way, they made a suggestion to advise as in (31). The second way, they made a promise to make the requestee come back later as in (32). Remarkably, instances of promises in this strategy were only found in the Jordanian EFL data.

Third, it is quite obvious in Table 1 that mitigating requests in the native speakers' and the Jordanian EFL learners' data opted for two strategies, namely, (a) deflecting informative comments and (b) reassurance or repetition request. Below is a presentation of each strategy which is followed by illustrative examples. In order to save space, each example (response) is presented alongside its situation title (see Appendix A).

First: Native speakers' response types.

(a). Deflecting informative comments

(33) Nice to meet you. (Aunt asking for help)

Table 1 illustrates that this strategy appeared in (P=80%) of the mitigating responses; neither showing acceptance nor refusing but rather placing a comment. The results revealed that the native speakers ignored the request by deflecting an informative comment as in example (33) nice to meet you.

(b). Reassurance or repetition request

(34) You really think I'm skilled? (Professor asking for assistance)

Table 1 also illustrates that this strategy appeared in (P=20%) of the mitigating responses. The results revealed that the native speakers ignored the request by reassuring it, however, no data was found on repeating the request. In example (34), the native speaker ignored the request by reassuring it You really think I'm skilled?

Second: Jordanian EFL Learners response types.

(a). Deflecting informative comments

(35) It looks that you are afraid of going alone because there are crowds of people. (Aunt asking for help)

Table 1 illustrates that this strategy appeared in (P=82%) of the mitigating responses. The results revealed that the native speakers ignored the request by deflecting an informative comment as in (34). It may be noticed that the response did not show acceptance nor showed refusal.

(b). Reassurance or repetition request

(36) Do you really prefer my way? (Classmate asking for homework)

(37) Do you want me to help you? (Professor asking for assistance)

Table 1 illustrates that this strategy appeared in (P=18%) of the mitigating responses. In (36) the request was ignored by reassuring it *Do you really prefer my way?* And in (37) the request was ignored by repeating it *Do you want me to help you?* The analysis revealed that Jordanian EFL learners used reassurance and repetition to avoid answering requests, however, native speakers only used reassurance.

B. Making Suggestions

Table 2 displays the formulas of making suggestions which appeared in the Jordanian EFL collected data (N=650). All suggestions were analyzed upon a categorization by Jiang (2006), the making suggestions data fell into ten formulas, namely, Let's, Certain modals and semi-modals, Wh-questions, conditionals, performatives, pseudo cleft structures, extraposed to-clauses, yes/ no questions, imperatives and assertives. Table 2 illustrates the overall use of suggestion formulas of the native speakers and the Jordanian EFL learner in percentage.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF MAKING SUGGESTION STRATEGIES OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND JORDANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN PERCENTAGE

	Native speakers (%)	Jordanian EFL learners (%)
Let's	5%	1%
Certain modals and semi-modals	10%	32%
Wh-questions	10%	5%
Conditionals	23%	4%
Performatives	14%	18%
Pseudo cleft structures	6%	1%
Extraposed to-clauses	1%	1%
Yes/ no questions	4%	11%
Imperatives	27%	20%
Assertives	0%	7%
Total=	**100%**	**100%**

(a). Making suggestions types native speaker data
(38) Try finding tastier healthy food. (Friend wants to lose weight)
(39) If you like shopping, list your needs. (Friend who wastes money)
(40) To cut down slowly is effective. (Boss wants to quit smoking)
In the native speaker’s data 9 formulas out of 10 were used in making suggestions. Table 2 illustrates that the most frequent suggestion formula in the native speaker’s data was imperatives (P=27%) as in (38). The second frequent formula was conditionals (P=23%) as in (39). The least frequent was using the extraposed to-clause (P=1%) as in (40). It was found that native speakers did not use assertives in making suggestions.
(b). Making suggestions types Jordanian EFL data
(41) You should not starve yourself or forbid yourself from eating things you like, but you have to consider the amounts of food you consume. (Friend wants to lose weight)
(42) Focus on what you need and spend your money properly on things you need. (Friend who wastes money)
(43) Let him drink milk maybe he will feel better and be quiet and calm down. (The baby who is crying)
In the Jordanian EFL learners’ data 10 formulas were used while native speakers only used 9. The most frequently used formulae in the Jordanian EFL data were certain modal verbs and semi-modal verbs (P=32%) as in (41). The second frequently used formula was the usage of imperatives (P=20%) as in (34). The least frequent was let’s (P=3%) as in (43). Although the frequencies varied, both groups applied similar formulas. The results indicated that Jordanian EFL learners employed one additional formula, namely, assertives, which did not appear in the native speakers’ data.

C. Making Threats

Table 3 displays the types of threatening strategies which appeared in the native speakers’ data and in the Jordanian EFL learner’s data (N=650). All threats were analyzed upon a categorization by Shboul (2010). It can be understood that in addition to the five categories adopted by Shboul’s (2010) study, the analysis revealed a sixth category, namely, issuing a direct request to make a threat. Below is a presentation of native speakers’ data and the Jordanian EFL data which are followed by illustrative examples from this study. Each example (response) is presented alongside its corresponding situation title. Table 3 below illustrates the overall use of threat strategies of the native speakers and the Jordanian EFL learner in percentage.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF MAKING THREAT STRATEGIES OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND JORDANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN PERCENTAGE

		Native speakers (%)	Jordanian EFL learners (%)
		%	**%**
1	Telling authority	12%	46%
2	Committing harm	11%	1%
3	Introducing options	9%	1%
4	Warning	34%	33%
5	Promise of vague consequence	20%	4%
6	Issuing a direct request	14%	15%
Total=		**100%**	**100%**

(a). Making threat types in native speaker data.
(44) Do that again and I'll fire you. (Employee sharing information to competitors)
(45) I fear the conversation might become a little unpleasant. (Friend who tells secrets)
(46) Either you admit or get fired. (Employee sharing information to competitors)

It is obvious in Table 3 that the native speaker's data showed variation in the frequency of the six strategies. The most frequent strategy was warning (P=34%) as in (44). The second frequent strategy was promise of vague consequence (P=20%) as in (45). The least frequently used strategy was and introducing options (P=9%) as in (46).

(b). Making threat types in Jordanian EFL data.

(47) If you don't leave the shop now, I'm gonna call the police. (The shoplifter)
(48) Listen, if you don't stop telling my secrets to other, I'll stop talking to you. (Friend who tells secrets)
(49) Following me everywhere, I can hit you because I play Karate. (Person tracking you)
(50) You choose to leave or else I will lock you in the shop. (The shoplifter)
(51) Can you go away from me? (Person tracking you)

Jordanian EFL learners employed similar threatening strategies to those employed by native speakers. In contrast, the results indicated that the strategies employed differed in frequency. The most frequently used strategy in the Jordanian EFL learners' sample was telling the authorities (P=46%) as in (47). The second frequent strategy was warning (P=33%) as in (48). However, the least frequent strategies were committing harm (P=1%) as in (49) and (50). Remarkably, the sixth introduced strategy was present in the data of both groups and with almost similar frequencies, see example (51) Can you go away from me?

D. Expressing Farewells

Table 4 displays the 7 types of farewell strategies (N=650) which appeared in the native speaker's data and in the Jordanian EFL learner's data. All threats were analyzed upon a categorization by Knapp et al. (1973) and Albert and Kessler (1976). Expressing data fell into seven formulas, namely, legitimizing appreciation, welfare, caution, continuance, tentativeness and terminating. Below is a presentation of the native speakers' data and the Jordanian EFL learners' data which are followed by illustrative examples from this study. Each example (response) is presented alongside its corresponding situation title. Table 4 illustrates the overall use of farewell strategies of the native speakers and the Jordanian EFL learner in percentage.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EXPRESSING FAREWELL STRATEGIES OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND JORDANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN PERCENTAGE

		Native speakers (%)	Jordanian EFL learners (%)
1	Legitimizing	4%	7%
2	Appreciation	18%	21%
3	Welfare	25%	15%
4	Caution	3%	15%
5	Continuance	27%	15%
6	Tentativeness	0%	8%
7	Terminating	23%	18%
	Total=	100%	100%

(a). Expressing farewell types in native speaker data

(52) See you man, it was nice talking to you. (Ending conversation with a friend)
(53) Have a nice day. (Father leaving to work)
(54) I'm going to make a move. (Best friend leaving)
(55) Be careful out there alright. Call me if you need anything. (Best friend leaving)

It is obvious in Table 4 that the native speaker's data showed a variation in the frequency in 6 strategies out of 7. The strategy tentativeness only appeared in the Jordanian EFL learner's data. The most frequent strategy was continuance (P=27%) as in (52). The second frequent strategy was welfare concern (P=25%) as in (53). Nonetheless, the less frequently used strategy was legitimization (P=4%) as in (54).

(b). Expressing farewell types in Jordanian EFL data

(56) It was more than a pleasure to have you as a coworker. (Coworker resigning)
(57) I guess that you came alone. (Uninvited guest leaning the event)
(58) Goodbye and don't be late. (Uninvited guest leaning the event)
(59) I need to continue my shopping. Uhm, cause I have something to do. (Ending conversation with a friend)

Unlike the native speaker's responses, it was found that Jordanian EFL learners employed the seven strategies. The most frequently used strategy in the EFL sample was appreciation (P=21%) as in (56). The second frequent strategy terminating (P=18%) as in (58). Nevertheless, the least frequent strategy was legitimizing (P=7%) as in (59). It is worth mentioning that the strategy tentativeness was only found in the Jordanian EFL data, such as (57) I guess that you came alone. In expressing farewells, Jordanian EFL learners employed similar threatening strategies to those employed by native speakers. In contrast, the results indicate that the strategies employed differed in frequency in both groups.

V. FINDINGS

It was found that there were similarities in performing the speech acts of responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells between English native speakers and Jordanian EFL learners, nevertheless, the differences cannot be neglected. Generally, it was found that the Jordanian EFL learners used many techniques, in performing the four speech acts, to maintain the communicative competence. First, they showed tendency towards using particular strategies (e.g., they tended to accept more than to refuse requests). They resorted to modify strategies and relate them to their grammatical competence (e.g., employing devices in most of the strategies). They applied prefabrication (e.g., using the strategy of tentativeness in expressing farewells). They adhered to performing long forms (e.g., adding explanations after accepting a request). They resorted to buffing (e.g., using discourse markers such as uh, uhm, etc.). Consequently, Jordanian EFL learners resorted to transfer their knowledge L1 to L2. Jordanian EFL learners showed some weaknesses in performing the speech acts which were apparent in the feeble strategies they employed. They transferred the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence from L1 to L2 (e.g., Have you lost a coin in my face?) among many others. It appears that they experienced problems in modeling speech acts, lack of competence with performing the four speech acts and lack of using pragmatic competence. The techniques they used and the problems which they experienced may be attributed to simplified and insufficient input supplied by pedagogical materials. This study delivers a suggestion for improving the pedagogical issues in the Jordanian textbooks for EFLs. It suggests that the material developers necessitate to include authentic language materials related to daily discourse. Furthermore, this study delivers a suggestion for language teachers to teach interlanguage pragmatics explicitly in EFL contexts to draw learners' attention to both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features, pay more attention to these areas and allocate more time and practice to solve learners' problems in these areas.

VI. Conclusion

The present study attempted to contribute to the existing literature on pragmatic competence research by probing into sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic ability in the performance of responding to requests, making suggestions, making threats and expressing farewells among Jordanian EFL learners. The purpose was to examine the pragmatic competence of Jordanian EFL learners in the framework of speech act of spoken English. The study was not intended to be contrastive, but it rather manipulated the responses of the English native speakers as a benchmark to inform the similarities and differences. The main reason for studying the Jordanian performance in the fact that so little has been known about the EFL learners' pragmatic difficulties and needs, and their pragmatic knowledge of the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic rules, particularly, in those four speech acts which remained underdeveloped.

The study notified purposes behind these differences and provided recommendations. If the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic differences remain to be neglected in second language learning and teaching, the learners may face misunderstanding and conflicts of interaction in actual life situations. The study attributed the differences in performing the four speech acts to lack of pragmatic ability in the Jordanian EFL learners' case. The study added other mechanisms used by the Jordanian EFL learners in order to compensate for the pragmatic differences other than committing pragmatic transfer such as prefabrication and tendency towards using particular strategies. In order to evade this obstruction, the study recommends that it is crucial to provide pedagogical material that has sufficient pragmatic knowledge. It is also crucial for second language teachers to help learners alongside the pedagogical material and improve their competence of appropriate use of speech acts in the target language and make them aware of L2 sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic constrictions.

Appendix. Discourse Completion Task

Part one: Bio Data

- Age: ________________________
- If you have lived or travelled to a foreign country, please mention the name of it ____________________
- Are you a native speaker of English? Yes/ No

Part two: Situations

Direction: please respond orally to these situations below and make your responses in a natural way as you talk to a real person.

Directions: Please respond to the following requests.

1. *(Title: Aunt asking for help)*

Your aunt needs help; she says to you "Do you mind going with me to the market?" What is your response? ______________

2. *(Title: Classmate asking for homework)*

A lazy classmate says to you "Could you please help me with the homework?" What is your response? _____________

3. *(Title:* Someone *asking for engine-repairing)*

You are a mechanic and you are closing your shop. Someone suddenly comes and says "C*an you* repair this engine now?" What is your response? ______________

4. *(Title:* Someone *asking to stop-smoking)*

You are smoking in the smoking area in a restaurant. Someone comes and asks you, "Can you stop smoking please?" What is your response? ______________

5. *(Title:* Professor *asking for assistance)*

Your professor asks you for assistance, he says "Can you help me in typing these documents? What is your response? _______________

Directions: Please make a suggestion for the following situations.

6. *(Title:* Friend wants to lose weight*)*

Your friend wants to lose weight but he/ she loves eating. What is your suggestion? _______________

7. *(Title:* Friend who wastes money*)*

Your friend likes to go shopping and buy expensive things. You really know that he/she doesn't need them. What is your suggestion? _________________

8. *(Title:* The librarian suggesting novels*)*

You are a librarian; someone would like to borrow a novel and you know there is a more interesting one. What is your suggestion? _________________

9. *(Title:* Boss wants to quit smoking*)*

Your boss at work wants to quit smoking. What is your suggestion? ____________

10. *(Title:* The baby who is crying*)*

You are at the bank. A customer's baby is crying loudly. What is your suggestion? ________________

Directions: Please make a threat in the following situations.

11. *(Title:* Friend who tells secrets*)*

You have warned your friend many times not to give out your secrets but he/she wouldn't stop. You threaten him/her and say ________________

12. *(Title:* Classmates copying assignments*)*

Your classmate keeps copying your assignments and you don't like that. You threaten him/ her and say _________________

13. *(Title:* employee sharing information to competitors*)*

You are an owner of a company. You suspect that an employee shares some information verbally with competitors. You threaten him and say ______________

14. *(Title:* Person tracking you*)*

You realize that a person is tracking you while you are shopping. Then he comes towards you and asks you about the time. You threaten him and say ____________

15. *(Title: The shoplifter)*

You own a supermarket; a person enters and you know that he/ she is a shoplifter (thief). You threaten him/ her and say ________________

Directions: Please make a farewell in the following situations.

16. *(Title:* Father leaving to work*)*

Your father is leaving to work in the morning? Express your farewell to him _________________

17. *(Title:* Best friend leaving*)*

Your best friend is about to leave. He/ She is going to drive several hours in bad weather for an important meeting. Express your farewell to him/ her _________________

18. *(Title: Ending conversation with a friend)*

You see an old friend at the grocery store and start talking to him/ her. After a few minutes, you end the conversation. Express your farewell to him/ her _________________

19. *(Title:* Coworker resigning*)*

Your coworker is leaving the company where you both work. Express your farewell to him/ her ________________

20. *(Title: Uninvited guest leaving the event)*

An unexpected guest joins a business event, someone who you don't know. The event ends and the guest wants to leave. Express your farewell to him/ her ________________

REFERENCES

[1] Al-Ali, M., & Alawneh, R. (2010). Linguistic mitigating devices in American and Jordanian students' requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 7*(2), 311-339.

[2] Albert, S., & Kessler, S. (1976). Processes for ending social encounters: The conceptual archaeology of a temporal place. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 6*(2), 147–170.

[3] Al Kayed, M., & Al-Ghoweri, H. (2019). A sociopragmatic study of speech act of criticism in Jordanian Arabic. *European Journal of Scientific Research, 153*(1), 105-117.

[4] Al-Khaza'leh, B. (2018). Influence of social power on perception of speech act of apology by Jordanian second language speakers. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. *14*(1), 211-229.

[5] Almahameed, Y., & Mohamad, A. (2019). Pragmatic Failure Committed by Jordanian Undergraduate EFL Learners, *International Journal of Language & Literature*, 54-59.

[6] Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too Many Words: Length of Utterance and Pragmatic Failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 8*:165-180.

[7] Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[8] Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language*. (2. ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[9] Dijk, V. (1977). *Text and Context: Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse.* London: Longman.
[10] Hassan, S. (2018). Exploring the challenges of teaching pragmatic competence in EFL classes. *Basic Education College Magazine for Educational and Humanities Sciences*, *39*, 1707–1714.
[11] Hinkel, E. (1996). When in Rome: Evaluations of L2 Pragmalinguistic behaviors. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *26*(1), 51–70.
[12] Huwari, I., & Al-Shboul, Y. (2015). A Study on the Perception of Jordanian EFL Learners' Pragmatic Transfer of Refusals. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *6*(1), 46-54.
[13] Hymes, D. (1971). "On Communicative Competence'' in C.J. Brumfit & K. Johnson (eds): *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching* (1981), Oxford: OUP, pp 5-26.
[14] Hymes, D. (1994). Toward ethnographies of communication. In: J. Maybin, ed., *Language and literacy in social practice*, 11-22. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[15] Jucker, Andreas. (2017). Speech acts and speech act sequences: greetings and farewells in the history of American English. *Studia Neophilologica*. *89*:1-20.
[16] Jiang, X. (2006). Suggestions: What should ESL students know? *Elsevier*, *34*(1), 36-54.
[17] Knapp, M., Hart, R., Friedrich, G., & Shulman, G. (1973). The rhetoric of goodbye: Verbal and nonverbal correlates of human leave-taking. *Communications Monographs*, *40*(3), 182-198.
[18] Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London: Longman
[19] Muir, Y. (2011). Exploring pragmatic failure into the writing of young EFL learners: a critical analysis. *English Language Teaching*, *4*(4). 254-261.
[20] O'Keeffe, A., & Clancy, B., & Adolphs, S. (2011). *Introducing Pragmatics in Use*. London: Routledge.
[21] Pishghadam, R., & Sharafadini, M. (2011). Delving into speech act of suggestion: A case of Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *2*(16), 11(4), 2-8.
[22] Schmidt, R. (1995). Attention and awareness in foreign language learning. *[Honolulu]: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center*, University of Hawaii at Manoa.
[23] Shboul, O. (2010). *Threatening Strategies in Jordanian Arabic and American English*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Yarmouk University.
[24] Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*:91-11 02.
[25] Yu, M. (2011). Learning how to read situations and know what is the right thing to say or do in an L2: A study of socio-cultural competence and language transfer. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(4), 1127-1147.

Dina Mahmoud Hammouri holds a Ph.D. in Linguistics from the University of Jordan, Jordan. His main areas of interest include pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and discourse analysis studies.

Rajai Rashead AL-Khanji is currently a Professor of Linguistics at the School of Foreign Languages, University of Jordan, Jordan. Prof. AL-Khanji received his Ph.D. in Linguistics from the University of Delaware, USA, in 1983. His main areas of interest include translation, discourse analysis, psycholinguistics, interpretation, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, among others. As a researcher, he has written articles in English and Arabic in local, regional and international journals on various topics related to applied linguistics. He received the Distinguished Research Award in 2005 from the Jordanian Ministry of Higher Education.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
    - Submission of extended version
    - Notification of acceptance
    - Final submission due
    - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/tpls/

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)