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Muslim Identity Fluidities and Ambiguities: A Focus on Mohsin Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* and Elif Shafak's *The Forty Rules of Love*

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Abstract—Identity as the definitive factor of one’s individuality has been extensively explored from the sociological, psychological, and political perspectives. Of particular importance is the prevailing realization of the pervasiveness of the concept of identity and its fluidity, especially concerning the transcendence of cultural binaries and spaces. According to T.S. Elliot, the discourse of aesthetics is defined by constitutive dialects and is doubly-encoded in the specific and concrete. Thus, aesthetics in literature provides a theory of senses in which production, presentation, and reception of identities, cultures, and other social phenomena can be understood and defined. Within Islamic contexts, therefore, the pursuance of a true identity definition becomes an intricate issue that necessitates the incorporation of both historical and contextual perspectives, as well as the pursuance of aesthetic expressions and experiences at the individual level. With these insights in mind, the current analysis utilized a comprehensive analytical framework that applies Elliot’s assumptions within the interactionist framework with the aim of mapping identity fluidities and ambiguities in Mohsin Hamid’s *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* and Elif Shafak’s *The Forty Rules of Love*. The findings indicate that Muslim cultural contexts bear apparent aesthetic experiences and ideological multiplicities at the individual level that cut across a variety of spiritual, political, social, and geographic domains. The fluidity and multiplicity of the resulting identities, thus, necessitates the application of suitable identity signifiers to ensure the rational and practical reportage of Muslim identities.

Index Terms—identity politics, Islamic studies, Muslim identities, aesthetic studies

I. INTRODUCTION

The question of identity has evolved over the past few decades to become one of the most debated topics in most study fields. Within the sociological and cultural spheres, interests in the concept of identity are driven by the apparent programmatic breaks with traditional conventions due to the evolutionary aspects of modernization, multinational capitalism, and globalization, as well as accompanying identity ambiguities and evolution. For convenient coverage of the broad topic of identity, related texts have tended to adopt varying perspectives and approaches, with focuses that cut across numerous historical epochs. While earlier analyses of historical texts on cultural aesthetics and experiences emphasized the formation of the “me” element and various ways in which the sense of self is modelled, recent literature suggests a shift to the broader “collective” paradigm. Consistent findings, in this regard, have accentuated the “fluidity of identity,” further dispelling initial assumptions of a fixed “self.” Apparently, identity is formed and influenced by the discursive formations and experiences of the contexts within which it is submerged at any given time. Thus, regardless of the vigor of the “holding” conventions, identity, as a disposition quality, is subject to change. As one of the major and most enduring religions, Islam has been extensively explored as an identity-underpinning spiritual movement, whose doctrines exert perpetual, life-cutting influences on its membership. Hence, as Zuriet and Lyausheva (2019) assert, conceptualization of the Islamic identity from both sociological and cultural perspectives necessitates the pursuance of authentic experiences as per the conventions of the prevailing religious doctrines and expectations. In analyzing identity ambiguities, therefore, the emphasis should be directed toward the identification and definition of emergent differences concerning religious beliefs, practices, attitudes, and behaviors across individuals (genders, age, etc.), periods, and historical conditions. With this in mind, the current analysis pursues an understanding of Islamic identity ambiguities by utilizing Mohsin Hamid’s *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* and Elif Shafak’s *The Forty Rules of Love* as case studies. To this end, the current work initiates by developing a theoretical background by reviewing existing definitions of terms and related concepts. This will be followed by the compilation of an assessment procedure that combines T.S. Eliot’s assumptions on aesthetic experiences with the parameters of the interactionist framework to be applied to individual key characters in the selected texts. The hypothesis, in this case, is that the depiction of
Islam/Muslim culture in literary texts amplifies an underlying imagery of identity ambiguity and fluidity, which is accentuated by the varying embodiments of nafs’ (self), ideological predispositions, and levels of religiosity among the key characters.

A. Theoretical Foundation

In current literature, the concept of identity has been analyzed extensively from different perspectives. Most notably, related texts have consistently emphasized the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept. In his text on the “...Fixity, Fluidity” of identities within the postcolonial context, Hasan (2014) traces the complexity of the phenomenon to its diverse definitions and the associated influencing factors. The author observes that identity reflects the “totality of social experience,” (p. 77) which entails a direct product of culture and shared history. Norton (2010) expounds on this aspect of identity by suggesting that when individuals speak using a shared dialect, they are deemed to be conveying and re-conveying their senses of self within the broader social world, while also reorganizing their relationships with others across time and space. Among other aspects, the resulting identity conveyance process incorporates the aspects of gender, class, and ethnicity. While analyzing the process of identity construction, Cerulo (1997) employs the historical perspective to explore the aspect of identity as a product of imagined communities. In the discussion, the author affirms the centrality of identity in the process of social transformation in consistency with identity change and social transformation theorists. In doing so, Cerulo (1997) suggests that identity transformations are direct outcomes of resources redistribution and broader social processes, as well as emergent changes in socio-political aspects. Hall (1997) adds to the social construction discourse by linking the development of identity to cultural heritage in which a shared history and ancestry is rooted. In such cases, the development of rigid identity can be achieved through the pursuance of a strong sense of cultural awareness and extreme nationalism. Nevertheless, the achievement of rigid identities is usually challenged by the development of resistances, courtesy of external influences and struggles for power. In the typical social sphere, resistance manifests as a consequence of globalization, modernization, and multinational capitalism, which underpin the permissiveness of fluid multicultural spaces of hybridity.

Post-modern theorists have consistently held that identity is a continually evolving personality quality. Howard (2000) and Hasan (2014) are among the sociology experts that have persistently accentuated the fluid, personalized, and multidimensional nature of identity in the postmodern context. Hall (1997) asserts that identity should be regarded as a “production” that is never complete – it involves a continuing process that is constituted within. Identity denotes the tags that individuals are positioned by, and position themselves within, the broader social circles. Rapport (2012) summarizes the ambiguity and variability of identity by asserting that it cannot be defined on homogeneity basis, and neither can it be predetermined. Within the modern context, the concept of a transcendental identity has also manifested. In this version of identity, qualifying individuals are considered international persons, having transcended nationalistic, religious, and cultural boundaries. Often, transcendental identity is reserved as a tag for individuals who have socially and psychologically embraced multiple, interweaving cultures simultaneously. Such cosmopolitan identities bear markers and symbols drawn from diverse cultural backgrounds, most of which have been construed as identity signifiers. It is under these conditions that the concept of identity crisis is introduced by modernist theorists. Apparently, identity crisis arises as a consequence of culture’s emergent role as a “primary carrier of modern values and globalization,” (Rapport, 2012, p. 66) often resulting in the continued dislocation and contestation of individuals’ “true” ethnic, religious, and national identities. As Hasan (2014) observes, the emergence of global cultures presents the biggest threat to the sustenance of authentic identities as it serves to erode the essence of individuals’ “true” cultures. From this perspective, globalization surfaces as an imperialistic force that drives identity shifts by compelling individuals and communities to adopt dominant identities to become part of the collective. In such cases, symbols drawn from diverse religions, nations, and ethnicities become identity signifiers for existential identity at the individual level.

B. A Framework for Assessing Religious Cultural Identity

Culture can never be wholly conscious...and it cannot be planned because it is also the unconscious background of all our planning...it is a socially generated and historical framework that structures our most private thoughts and gives them a language without which they could not be articulated or thought. (Eliot; cited in Shusterman, 2002, p. 143)

As one of the leaders of the Modernist movement and influencers of the Anglo-American culture, Thomas Stearns Eliot reflects that aesthetic experiences underpin the theory of senses in which production, presentation, and reception of identities, cultures, and other social phenomena can be understood and defined. Eliot recognizes that just as society is affected morally and spiritually by material conditions, self (identity) is also molded by society. The theorist goes on to assert that aesthetics concepts enable the assessment of programmatic breaks with traditional conventions as professed by modernists and the resulting necessity to renegotiate (Eliot, 1957). He situates and explains individual culture in the larger anthropological framework of the broader society’s culture, reiterating that the former cannot be understood fully without the latter. Specifically, the theorist’s emphasis on the incorporation of aesthetics concepts in making sense of social phenomena (in this case, cultural identity) concerns their ability to facilitate “focus on the object while all other objects, events, and everyday concerns are suppressed” (Eliot, 1957, p. 54). As such, the current analysis incorporates Eliot’s perspectives on aesthetic experiences within the interactionist framework as a means of mapping identity
fluidities and ambiguities in the selected texts. Thus, the assessment framework will focus on the manifestations of unique predispositions and interactions (aesthetic experiences) of the key characters (objects) relative to the prevailing socio-cultural (Muslim traditions and religious principles) and ideological factors as basis for modeling identity categories. The interactionist framework provides the necessary tools for performing causal analyses for identified relationships, as well as the assessment of the development and evolution of various religious and socio-political phenomena.

For convenience purposes, the typology of religious identity is usually formulated based on the extent or degree of religious-worldview certainty, with related categories ranging from low to weak and fanatical to radical. It must be noted, however, that the multilevel classification of religious identities based on individual religious factors entails a markedly complex task that necessitates an in-depth understanding of the associated expectations and convictions at the individual level. As it stands, insights concerning the substantial components of religious identity are distinctly inconsistent and ambiguous. Nevertheless, some authors, such as Rakhmatulin (2018), indicate that the topological categorization of Muslim identities can be achieved by identifying and defining aesthetic expressions and experiences as a measure of conformity to doctrinal components among regional Islamic cultures. This latter aspect derives from related findings suggesting that different Muslim ethnic groups tend to exhibit varying attitudes and aesthetic experiences, denoting differences in the buildup to ethnic and religious identity. Thus, applying Eliot’s aesthetics assumptions within the interactionist framework at the individual level is necessary to determine the underlying attitudes and aesthetic experiences as a basis for modeling and cataloguing the various manifestations of Muslim identities in selected Islamic contexts.

II. DISCUSSION

A. Elif Shafak’s the Forty Rules of Love

Elif Shafak’s book, The Forty Rules of Love, tells a tantalizing narrative that ties together two separate plots— one set in the contemporary context and the other in the thirteenth century. At the core of the two plots are the characters of Ella Rubenstein, Aızı Zahara, Shams of Tabriz, and Jalal al-Din Rumi, whose engagements and interactions depict a Bildungsroman narrative buildup. For the character of Ella, Shafak builds a narrative that follows both the internal and external struggles of a typical complacent wife and mother whose consequent enlightenment sends her in pursuit of love, passion, and contentment, which she finds in Aziz and Bildungsroman. The fictionalized biography of Ella is also merged with a decontextualized account of Rumi’s transformation from a deeply pious and ascetic preacher-cum-teacher to a legendary Sufism poet and philosopher. The reader is introduced to the story of Shams and Rumi through a sentimentalized narrative dubbed Sweet Blasphemy, which, ultimately, enlightens Ella and drives her to meet Aziz. Of particular importance to the current study are the intrigues that characterize Shams’s escapades and his consequent meeting and interactions with Rumi. Having journeyed across far-flung lands, Shams comes to a realization that his maturity in Islam and love is tied to Rumi. As a result, he redirects his preaching priorities and travels to Konya to meet the then-famous Islamic scholar, Rumi. His meeting with Rumi results in a metamorphosis of high-level Sufi teachings that sees the two received with admiration and hostility in equal measures. Expectedly, hostile receptions of Shams and Rumi’s teachings are led by a host of Muslim scholars whose rudimentary understanding of Sufism drives them to associate the two with Satanism. Thus, despite Shams positive messages, he continues to make enemies in Konya. His discordant personality and attitude and consequent possessiveness of Rumi turns the latter’s son, Aladdin, into his principal enemy. It is this concluding development that leads to Shams’ murder, which, in turn, transforms Rumi into a sorrowful mystic poet.

Thematically, The Forty Rules of Love functions more as an identity development and clashes narrative than a typical love story. As indicated by Gray (2020) Shafak utilizes the relationship between Shams and Rumi to illustrate the emanationist, perennialist, and universalist Sufi dialectics that underpin the inner meanings of the Holy Quran. Following his introduction to the plot, Shams provides an overview of the topological characterization of Muslim believers.

Each...reader comprehends the Holy Qur’an on a different level in tandem with...his understanding. There are four levels of insight. The first...is the outer meaning...the one that the majority of the people are content with...the Batm [is] the inner level. Third...is the inner of the inner...fourth level is so deep it cannot be put into words and is...indescribable. (Shafak, 2010, p. 38)

For him, the majority of Muslim believers qualify as those bearing the “outer” meanings of the Quran. His assumption is that Sufis and saints have the “inner” or Batm and the “inner of the inner” meanings, respectively. The prophets who are the closest to God have the capacity to grasp the fourth level of the Quran’s doctrinal connotations. From Eliot’s assumptions, the resulting understandings and definitions of religious doctrines are what govern an individual’s behavior and predispositions in the larger Muslim society. His assumptions, in this regard, are particularly evident in Sham’s Sufism-guided interactions with other Muslims. For instance, his brief encounter with the high Judge at the Baghdad dervish lodge accentuates his aversion of egocentric Muslim characters. Apparently, the Judge’s domineering character adopts an individual who is obsessed with his Sharia-accorded authority to the extent of using his powers to punish those that attempt to oppose him – he is contented with the “outer” meanings of the text. This encounter denotes the first of several identity clashes highlighted by Shafak (2010) in her coverage of the thirteenth
century Muslim context. Shams’s remarks concerning those who “forget where [they] are headed and instead
concentrate on the candle” (Shafak, 2010, p. 135) is reserved as a description of the lowest tier of the Muslim culture.
Within this lower tier, a variety of identity classifications also manifest along the ratio of fidelity to religious traditions
and conformity to socio-cultural and socio-political expectations. Seemingly, the domestication and assimilation of
Islamic doctrines and practices in regional cultures (both Baghdad and Konya contexts) has yielded in an identity
fluidity in which age and religious status are key determinants. This aspect is particularly evident in the manifesting
hierarchies defining cross- and intra-generational religious mentorship roles. Thus, the interactions among Shams, the
Baghdad lodge master, the lodge’s cook, the novice, and eventually Rumi unveil various aesthetic qualities designated
for Muslim leaders, mentors, and students. Shams puts this cultural propensity in perspective while advising the novice.

There are more fake gurus and teachers...than the number of stars...Don’t confuse power-driven, self-centered
people with true mentors...genuine spiritual master[s] will not direct your attention to [themselves]... and will
not expect absolute obedience or admiration from you, [they] will help you to appreciate...your inner self...True mentors are...transparent...They let the Light of God pass through them. (Shafak, 2010, p. 61)

By applying Shafak’s descriptions of the practices and interactions among leaders, mentors, and students in the
covered Muslim cultures to Elliot’s (1957) aesthetics discourse, it becomes apparent that an individual’s identity (self) is
defined by their ability to overcome the all-consuming issues and imperfections of human existence (evident in one’s
aesthetic experiences and expressions) to achieve ontological unity with God. To achieve this level of unification and
spiritual perfection, one must pass through the various successive spiritual stations (the four levels identified by Shams),
often through proper guidance and mentorship. In his analysis of the Rumi character, Gray (2020) describes the journey
to harmonious unity as one in which man must purge his nafs, the bestial basis of man’s nature, to facilitate mystical
advancement. To this end, it is imperative for man to overcome the deceitfulness of nafs that drives cravings for earthly
material and joys and the misleading power of limited intellect. Success in this regard allows for the achievement of
un tarnished spiritual essence, the “true” Islamic identity – the soul is free from nafs and partial intellect control. The
fluidities and ambiguities of the Muslim identity are formulated along this spiritual journey by taking into consideration
individuals’ successes and deficiencies. As per the interactions in the text, however, besides Shams, Rumi, and Aziz,
the other characters seem to be stuck at different points in the first level designated for those with the outer meaning or
basic understanding of the Quran’s doctrines.

B. Mohsin Hamid’s the Reluctant Fundamentalist

Published in 2008, Mohsin Hamid’s The Reluctant Fundamentalist explores the turmoil associated with the Muslim
identity in Western cosmopolitan contexts. Using a combination of framed and flashback narratives, Hamid tells the
story of Changez, a Muslim of Pakistani origins, and his encounters with an anonymous American in a Lahore café. The
flashback narrative is strategically used as an incremental tale to fill up important details about the protagonist’s past
life. The resulting first-person, dramatic monologue provides the reader with markedly revealing insights about
Changez’s unfruitful struggles to assimilate a foreign cultural identity. In the plot build up, Changez approaches a
suspicious American character and ends up initiating a lengthy conversation with him over a cup of coffee. Subsequently,
the reader learns about the protagonist’s educational, romantic, and professional life, most of which takes
place in America. Changez works extremely hard and manages to impress his teachers, coworkers, and fiancée’s parents.
However, just when things seemed to be working out fine, the September 11, 2001 World Trade Center attack occurs.
The reader then learns about Changez’s “concealed” abhorrence of America when he states that he was pleased by the
attack, not because of the resulting damages and loss of lives, but because the U.S. has been attacked in a rather
humiliating manner. The events that follow the attack seem to eradicate whatever sentimental attachment Changez has
with America. Despite living in America for several years and identifying with the country in his overseas assignments,
he finds himself relegated to the status of a “suspicious” foreigner. Being from a Muslim background, Changez finds the
American context markedly hostile as he is subjected to strip-searches at airports and accorded painful and suspicion-
filled looks by other passengers. The events that follow see him abandon all his endeavors in America and return to
Pakistan. It is here that Changez transforms to a “reluctant fundamentalist,” choosing to advocate for the nonviolent
opposition of American foreign policies that tended to undermine the sovereignty of Pakistan. American interests in
Changez begin when one of his students becomes involved in an assassination attempt against an American dignitary.
The plot then returns to the beginning where Changez is seated with the anonymous American. The ending is suspense-
filled as the American, on sensing that he was being pursued, reaches into his pocket for a “budging” item. Whatever
followed is left to the reader’s imagination.

Reading the The Reluctant Fundamentalist provides the reader with a clear impression of the implications of
globalization and cosmopolitanism on cultural identities. In this case, Hamid explicitly portrays the disillusionment
endured by individuals from Muslim backgrounds as a consequence of the contemporary ideological and political
tensions. In doing so, the author extends the discourse on Muslim identity fluidity and multiplicity beyond the typical
religious realm to incorporate the global socio-economic and geopolitical aspects. Rather than focusing on identity
multiplicities within the Muslim culture, Hamid adopts a broader perspective as he delves into the murky discourses on
American fundamentalism, stereotyping in Western cosmopolitan metropolis, and radicalization. The resulting narrative
gives a clear insinuation that, given the current state of globalization, the Muslim culture and the associated identities
cannot be discussed in isolation from other cultures. Changez’s character defines a cosmopolitanism trend in which
individuals from Muslim backgrounds strive to separate culture from religion to adopt perceived universal social identities. The tendencies by individual to assimilate other cultures have been extensively researched with scholars such as Reicher (2004) stating that:

Personal identity defines our uniqueness relative to the individual…distinctive social identity is what marks us out as different…Social identities are defined in comparative terms…group members indulge in social comparison between their in-group and relevant outgroups. (p. 929)

That is, individuals introduced to new cultural contexts strive to adopt new identities, provided that such identities offer improved life-benefits and experiences. These sentiments are evidenced by Changez’s initial reverence of the American identity and its promise of a better social life. Once introduced to American life, Changez observes that:

This was how my life was meant to be…rubbing shoulders with the truly wealthy in such exalted setting…my Princeton degree and Underwood Samson business card were sufficient to earn me a respectful nod of approval. (Hamid, 2008, p. 85)

Essentially, this realization leads Changez to separate his cultural identity from his religious identity, which enables him to embrace the American identity while at the same time retaining his Muslim religiosity. It is his continued identification with the Muslim background that drives him to retain his concealed abhorrence of America, especially due to the inherent contemporary ideological and political tensions that have characterized the relationship between the two groups. Although he strives to conceal his distrust and abhorrence of America’s foreign policies and activities, the events that follow the attack on the twin towers drive him to the extreme. The fiction of his American identity is made apparent when he smiles in satisfaction following the attack – “then I smiled…my initial reaction was to be remarkably pleased” (Hamid, 2008, p. 72). From this point onwards, Changez’s admiration for the American social identity continues to deteriorate as he bombards the anonymous American with satirical remarks and questions about the candidness of the country’s philosophies and foreign policies. The country’s predisposition on issue of terrorism pushes him further as his Muslim ethnicity exposes him to the jeopardies of the “otherness” identity. His attempts to grow a beard as a means of reconnecting with his “true” identity only earns him more trouble as he ends up being branded a jihadi. Consequently, he decides to return to Pakistan to regain his “true” identity and, visibly, reorganize and teach his fundamentalist philosophies: “It was right for me to refuse to participate in this project of domination…the only surprise was that I [took] so much time to arrive at my decision” (Hamid, 2008, p. 157). Overall, Changez narrative depicts a systematic shift in identity in which the aspects of convenience, tolerance, rejection, resistance, and retribution manifest as key drivers. In the resulting identity shifts, it becomes apparent that Changez, as with other Muslims that venture into Western multicultural contexts, is compelled to reevaluate and readjust his cultural identity to avert the pressures and intrigues of being the “other.” This development reflects Eliot’s (1957) assumptions that the element of “self” is developed and influenced by society in which an individual is situated. Sensibly, this aspect of Changez’s character is a necessity that affects most individuals from minority cultures in cosmopolitan contexts.

C. The Nature and Drivers of Muslim Identity Fluidities and Ambiguities

The interactionist framework unveils that The Reluctant Fundamentalist and The Forty Rules of Love present vast aesthetic experiences and expressions that reflect Muslim identity fluidities and ambiguities. Specifically, the two narratives unveil two distinct dimensions through which Muslim identity fluidities and ambiguities are constructed. Concerning Shafak’s narrative, the imbedded historical Sweet Blasphemy account accentuates the manifestations of Muslim identity fluidities and ambiguities along the path of religious maturity by covering the representative interactions, expressions, and predispositions of several characters. Considering emphasis on the domestication of religious philosophies and doctrines among historical and conservative Muslim cultures, spiritual self-determination emerges as a key determinant for identity development. Applied to Eliot’s (1957) assumptions, individuals’ experiences, expressions, and ideological predispositions, thus, become the key qualities making “sense” of one’s spiritual self-determination. As Kudryashova (2017) asserts, Muslimness in conservative Islamic contexts entails a combination of qualities and values acquired through articulation and mentoring to create a sense of belonging to the Islamic tradition. Thus, it can be perceived that Muslim identity is not a static phenomenon since it exists in a realm of interfaith relations in which modification of behavioral patterns and norms is a continuous process. This is particularly evident in the emphasis accorded to both cross- and intra-generational mentorship in Shafak’s presentation of the thirteenth century context. Cross-generational mentorship is apparent in the relationship between the cook and the novice, while the intra-generational version can be constructed by following the interactions between Shams and Rumi. Thus, as implied by Zuriet and Lyausheva (2019), classification of identity in highly conservative Muslim contexts should follow the recognition of the Quran’s values and doctrines and the subsequent application of the acquired knowledge in one’s dealings in society. While Sham’s identifies four levels in this regard, Shafak’s characters’ aesthetic experiences and expressions reflect rankings in the two lower categories. Shams, Rumi, and, to some extent, Aziz identify as those with Batm, having mastered the “inner” meaning of the Quran to overcome their nafs to become Sufis. Despite their various age- and status-related identities, the other characters fall in the first broad identity category due to their obsession with the Quran’s “outer” meaning. As Sham informs the Judge, the novice, and several other characters, they are all victims of partial intellect and are, therefore, bound by their nafs. Thus, their socialization aesthetics embody the representative identity of the Muslim culture.
On his part, Hamid utilizes his prodigy, Changez, to highlight potential Muslim identity shifts and multiplicities in the contemporary globalized world. Rather than fixating on the conservative attributes of regional and historical Muslim cultures, Hamid immerses the Muslim identity in the muddles of post-modern cosmopolitan contexts in which deep-seated ideological and political tensions underpin stereotyping and radicalization tendencies. At the core of Changez’s interactions is what Reich (2004) describes as the imperialistic force of globalization on identity formation and shifts. Seemingly, Hamid’s projection of Changez’s escapades in America before, during, and after the September 11 attacks serves to portray the potential Muslim identity crises and shifts in globalized, multicultural settings – response of “self” to changes in the broader society (Eliot, 1957). In this case, Changez adopts the dominant American identity for convenience purposes and the need to identify with the collective to access the benefits of perceived imperialistic culture. However, since he does not relinquish his Muslim identity, he ends up embracing two cultures, resulting in a state of identity multiplicity that underpins his philosophical turmoil in America. Changez’s decision to embrace a double-identity aligns with Zureit and Lyausheva’s (2019) assumptions that Muslim identity can be combined with national, ethnic, gender, status, and professional identity signifiers to facilitate effective responses to emergent social patterns and norms, albeit, in accordance with Islamic doctrines. Throughout the narrative, it is apparent that although Changez embodies several American identity signifiers, his heart (ideological predispositions) and “true” self remain with his Muslim identity. For instance, besides feeling a sense of satisfaction following the twin towers attack, he is infuriated by America’s invasion of Afghanistan – “Afghanistan was…our friend…a Muslim fellow nation…its invasion…caused me tremble and fury” (Hamid, 2008, p. 51). Zureit and Lyausheva (2019) proceed to note that crisis of identity often develops with the buildup of crises in society, especially alterations in the socio-cultural environment that threatens one’s “true” identity. In the case of a religious identity crisis in a multicultural setting, pressures from the adopted identity signifiers or other cultures can result in instances of resistance, which can either be constructive or destructive.

For Changez, the transformations in America’s socio-cultural environment following the twin attacks and its imperialistic foreign policies initiated a sense of resistance that invoked his fundamentalist tendencies. Sensibly, the choice of stance taken following the development of Muslim identity crises depends on one’s interpretation of the Quran doctrines. This aspect reiterates the issue of nafs accentuated in Shafak’s text by Shams. As a Muslim identity signifier, Sufism is presented as a key stage of self-determination and spirituality. Despite being intimidated by developments in his immediate socio-cultural environment, Shams, having embodied the Sufism signifier in the Muslim identity group, opts for the constructive approach to resistance through instruction and guidance. Thus, when applied in the context of conservative Muslim cultures, Changez can be accommodated in the lower Muslim identity group that bears the outer meaning. Visibly, his rigid and antagonistic judgment of the “otherness” based on the prevailing ideological and socio-political tensions suggests susceptibility to the deceitfulness of nafs. In this case, it can be asserted that conceptualizing identity within the Muslim culture necessitates a multidisciplinary evaluation of how the elements of religiosity and nationality interplay within the prevailing socio-cultural and socio-political contexts to influence individuals’ attitudes, predispositions, and general interactions.

The current literary analysis unveils two distinct definitive factors demarking the degree and nature of Muslim identity ambiguities and fluidities. Considering the underlying emphasis on religious traditions and spirituality in Muslim cultures, the lifetime journey to spiritual self-determination and ontological unity with God – gaining inner truth of the Quran to achieve sufficient intellect to purge one’s nafs – manifests as ultimate measure of Muslim identity. Statuses and titles emerge as mere signifiers within the four broad levels (identities) listed by Shams in The Forty Rules of Love. The emergence of globalization and its imperialistic force only served to increase the scope and variety of identity signifiers by expanding individuals’ exposure to a broader array of ideological, socio-cultural and socio-political factors. This latter aspect explains the apparent increase in Muslim identity variations and fluidities as illustrated by the character of Changez in The Reluctant Fundamentalist.

III. Conclusion

With the emergence of globalization and the constantly-changing ideological, socio-political, and socio-cultural contextual factors, the conceptualization of cultural identity has evolved to become a markedly complex endeavor. The complexity, in this regard, is further reinforced where religious and national identities intersect constantly in multicultural settings. Combined, Mohsin Hamid’s The Reluctant Fundamentalist and Elif Shafak’s The Forty Rules of Love provide an apparent illustration of the potential fluidities and ambiguities of Muslim identities in both conservative Islamic and globalized context. By applying the interactionist framework, the analysis reveals a vast array of aesthetic experiences denoting identity qualities along the path to self-determination and spiritual maturity, as well as the proliferation of identity signifiers, courtesy of globalization and cosmopolitanism. Most importantly, the interactionist framework unveils the inadequacies of the typical broader binaries of identities, such as Islamic vs. Western civilizations, in reflecting “true” character distinctiveness at the individual level. As unveiled in the two texts, there exists a broad variety of Muslim identities that can only be covered comprehensively by mapping unique and aesthetic experiences and interactions at the individual level. Going by the interactionist framework, the vastness and diversity of characters in the first level of spiritual growth necessitates the assignment of different identity signifiers to establish suitable identity categories. This latter aspect puts into perspective the impracticality of establishing conclusive binaries
for the varieties of Muslim identities across all the regional, historical, and contemporary contexts. Simply put, Muslim identity entails a fluid, ambiguous, and continuously evolving concept.

REFERENCES


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Navigating English Medium Instruction: Insights Into Classroom Practices and Challenges in Middle-Level Schools of Wolaita Zone, South Ethiopia

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Abstract—This study aims to explore teachers’ pedagogical practices in using English as a Medium of Instruction, to distinguish challenges confronted by teachers while using the English medium, and to discover the coping strategies employed in dealing with these challenges at the middle-school level within Wolaita Zone, South Ethiopia Regional State. The study employed a convergent mixed methods design. The study included 240 teachers from 30 middle-level schools. The researchers collected the data through a questionnaire, focused group discussions, and classroom observations. They applied quantitative analysis, employing statistical measures like mean values and standard deviations to the data collected through a questionnaire with five Likert scales. Simultaneously, the researchers conducted a meticulous theme-based content analysis for the qualitative data. The results of this investigation revealed a dominant trend among teachers in English-medium classrooms using their mother tongue rather than the English language. The study also indicated that this tendency stems from a deficiency in teachers’ competence in English language instruction. Furthermore, the study showed that while teachers employ different coping strategies to address instructional language challenges in their classrooms, most of these strategies are misapplied.

Index Terms—English medium instruction, practices, challenges, coping strategies, mother tongue

I. INTRODUCTION

English has become a universally recognized medium for global communication (Smokotin et al., 2014). This is because of its immense contribution to countries’ education, the economy, science, diplomacy, health, the press and social media, e-learning, technological advancement, and others (Zeng & Yang, 2024; Aldawsari, 2022). As globalization advances, it becomes critical to communicate with countries and individuals globally, facilitating international business, travel, study, employment, and other activities. Consequently, most people are drawn to the English language everywhere, particularly in nations where it is not the primary language (Aldawsari, 2022).

The English language plays an important role in the educational sector in Ethiopia. Although French and Italian were used as mediums of instruction before the Italian occupation (1900–1935) and during the Italian occupation (1935–1941), respectively, English was officially designated as the sole language of instruction in public schools right after Ethiopia’s liberation from the Italian occupation in 1974 (Gerencehal, 2019). Since then, although the grade levels might have varied, the English language has consistently remained the medium of instruction in educational settings. According to Leyew (2012; as cited in Gerencehal, 2019), English has been more popular among foreign languages (FLs) since then.

The use of English to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries where the majority of the population does not speak English as their first language is known as English Medium Instruction (EMI), according to Macaro (2018, p. 19) in Rose et al. (2021). It has become a common, fast-expanding phenomenon in the 21st-century education sector worldwide (Macaro, 2018; Dearden, 2014; Subandowo & Sárdi, 2023; Siegel, 2022; Pun & Thomas, 2020; Rose et al., 2022). Higher education institutions’ use of EMI is one element contributing to this trend (Galloway et al., 2017).

The Ministry of Education (2009) asserts that for Ethiopia to enhance its development in modern industry within the realm of science and technology, English must be integrated into the educational system. Due to its inherent advantages

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in various fields, the Ministry of Education applied English as an instructional language at both secondary and higher education levels.

According to the General Education Curriculum Framework (2020), English is required to be learned as a subject, and teaching it from grades nine through twelve is obligatory. Teachers also offer English as a general subject in grades eleven and twelve. In the South Ethiopia Regional State, Wolaita Zone, EM instruction began in the fifth grade in the old curriculum. However, the new curriculum introduces a 6-2-4 system—six years of elementary education, two years of middle-level education, and four years of high school education. English is introduced as a subject from grade one to grade 6; and from grade 7 onward, it serves as the MI.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent of teachers’ classroom use of EMI, challenges, and coping strategies in selected middle-level schools in the newly formed South Ethiopia Regional State, Wolaita Zone. According to the General Education Curriculum Framework (2020), similar to elementary and secondary levels, middle-level education is considered an independent stage in the new curriculum. It comprises the seventh and eighth grades.

The current study contributes by exploring teachers’ classroom practices and challenges in using EMI, informing the design of tailored professional development (PD) programs and training for teachers. It offers insights for policymakers to craft effective language education policies, leading to improved student outcomes, and proficient teachers in the language. Additionally, the study provides valuable insights into factors influencing language instruction, enriching the existing literature on EMI in middle-level schools. Finally, the study will enhance the overall quality of education by utilizing EMI as expected in the curriculum.

The research area differs from most other contexts where English serves as a first or second language. Unlike other contexts, the study area does not utilize English outside of the classroom setting. The major reason for this is that Ethiopia has never been a colony of any European country. The EM is emerging as an instructional level in the country in comparison to other parts of the world. The setting is specific to a low economic status, meaning it is underdeveloped and has very limited resources. EMI is poorly researched, especially at the middle school level, particularly in the southern part of the country and countrywide.

To the best of the researchers’ knowledge, studies are scarce at the middle-school level in Ethiopia that focus on employing English as a language of instruction. The majority of current studies concentrate mostly on the primary or secondary education context. With the recent curriculum change, this needs to be addressed.

Middle schools will place a specific emphasis on the teaching and study of English due to the ongoing challenges that teachers and students have when using it as a medium of instruction and, therefore, as a tool for learning various subjects (General Education Curriculum Framework, 2020). EMI is, therefore, an intricate phenomenon, its lingua franca character is still little understood and frequently overlooked (Jenkins, 2018). Kahsay’s (2016) study highlights a significant compromise in English language proficiency. Negash (2006) also stresses that the students face challenges in learning English, and the teachers also encounter difficulties in instructing in English.

Kassa and Abebe (2023) noted that most teachers opted for a combination of English and their mother tongue during instruction. Despite the increasing demand for English proficiency, which is more rewarding than ever, there are problems with implementing EMI (Oraif & Alrashed, 2022).

Nyoni et al. (2023) also state in their findings that despite the rapid pace of EMI implementation worldwide, experts are concerned that there are several implementation-related problems. Teachers in the study area may have encountered unidentified challenges, which could be the cause of these issues. Consequently, the researchers decided to investigate why this deviation from the expected use of EMI had become a widespread habit among teachers.

Failure to address the EMI utilization issue could result in students having insufficient exposure to the target language (TL). This deficiency may hinder their academic performance at higher grade levels, where advanced English command is required for adequate comprehension and expression. Additionally, it could challenge educational policies promoting EMI as a tool to enhance language skills and overall education quality. Furthermore, teachers may miss professional development and growth opportunities if they do not actively incorporate EMI into their teaching practices.

Teachers’ concerns about using EMI at middle-school levels have a significant impact on students’ educational progress, hindering their preparation for advanced language use and high school education. This EMI implementation deficiency not only obstructs academic achievement, but also limits access to resources, disrupts learning continuity, and undermines readiness for future opportunities. Insufficient exposure to English due to teachers’ negligence with EMI expectations impedes students’ language acquisition and challenges teachers’ proficiency in English, thereby questioning the achievement of language policy and curriculum objectives.

This problem is particularly prevalent in government middle schools within the newly established South Ethiopia Regional State, Wolaita Zone. The EMI problem affects both general subject teachers and English language teachers. The failure to adhere to instructional language standards impacts various stakeholders, including students, teachers, parents, schools, policymakers, and society as a whole.

This issue has persisted over time, with most teachers consistently neglecting to utilize EMI in their classrooms for unknown reasons. Instead, they predominantly use their MTL, failing to encourage students to engage with the TL during lessons. This issue is widespread among both general subjects and English language teachers, highlighting a systemic challenge in language instruction. The goal of this study is to address the following research questions:

1. To what degree are middle school teachers using EMI?
2. What obstacles do teachers face when employing EMI at the middle school level?
3. What are the coping strategies employed by teachers to address instructional language challenges?

As a result, the study's objectives are: 1) to evaluate the extent to which teachers use English as a medium of instruction. 2) to identify challenges that teachers face when utilizing EMI at the middle school level and 3) to assess the coping strategies teachers employ to deal with these instructional language challenges.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study used a convergent mixed-methods design. It is a single-phase design that involves the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The purpose of this design is to compare the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data to see whether they support or contradict each other (Lib Guides: Qualitative Research: Mixed Methods Research, n.d.).

B. Sample Size of the Study

This study's participants were teachers who were involved in teaching middle-level schools in Wolaita Zone, South Ethiopia Regional State. The researchers selected nine of the 23 woredas purposively. The woredas were selected based on being in town, semi-town, or rural areas. These are Kindo Didaye, Damot Pulasa, Sodo Zuria, Sodo Town, Humbo Woreda, Bodditti Town, Damot Gale, Tebela Town, and Hobicha Woreda. The researchers identified thirty middle-level schools in nine woredas. They included English and all other subject teachers, except local language teachers. During data clearing, out of 270 teacher respondents, 240 teachers returned the questionnaire with a response rate of 88.89%. Thirty teachers did not return the questionnaire.

C. Sampling Technique

The study used a stratified sampling technique to choose the participating teachers. Researchers often use it due to its many advantages, including increased efficiency, simplified administration, accurate sample representation, and precise subdivision calculation (Arnab, 2017). The researchers categorized teachers into two strata: those who use EMI and those who do not (local language teachers). Therefore, all teachers who use EMI in their classrooms were included.

D. Data Collection Tools

The researchers used three data collection tools: a questionnaire, classroom observation, and focus group discussion (FGD). These tools were employed to assess teachers’ classroom practices, identify challenges in using EMI, and find coping strategies teachers have been using to overcome the challenges at medium-level schools.

The questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data. The items were 37 in number and consisted of questions about teachers’ classroom practices of using EMI, challenges, and coping strategies used in the schools. It was adapted from a questionnaire used by Tung, Raymond, and Tsang (1997). The FGD consisted of 8 questions and had the same themes in line with the study's objectives. It was formulated to gather qualitative data regarding EMI classroom practices, challenges teachers encounter when using EMI in their classrooms, and coping strategies they use in the classrooms. Classroom observation was used to observe and collect live data on teaching practices and the use of EMI. The researchers produced an observation checklist to record the classroom setting, including the use of EMI at different parts of the lessons, to identify challenges, and coping strategies.

III. RESULTS

A. Teachers’ Classroom Practices of Using English as a Medium of Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMI PRACTICES IN LESSON INTRODUCTION, PRESENTATION, AND SUMMARY</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to greet students in the actual classroom</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to introduce my daily lesson objectives.</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I present my daily lesson through EM</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use students’ mother tongue to explain if students don’t understand</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use English to revise my lessons in the classroom</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I summarize my lesson in English medium</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use the English medium to make final greetings at class end.</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.896</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the obtained data, a significant portion of participants assert that they consistently employ English to greet students in the classrooms. The mean value of 3.86 indicates a high average agreement with this, favoring the use of EMI for greeting students in the classroom. In addition to a positive stance on this matter, this practice is consistent with findings from classroom observations and FGD, which affirm that most teachers often use English to greet their students in the classroom.

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Teachers rarely introduce their daily lesson objectives through EMI (see item 2). The mean value of 2.27 indicates that, on average, respondents rarely use EMI for lesson objective introduction. Most teachers think that introducing the daily lesson objectives is a very important element of their lesson, so they use their MT rather than English so that the students can understand easily according to the FGD.

Teachers expressed a negative response to the presentation of daily lessons through EMI. The mean value of 2.38 indicates teachers rarely present their daily lessons through EMI (see item 3). As evidenced by the classroom observation and FGD, teachers mainly present, explain, give examples, and do most of the routines in MTL. According to one of the focus group discussants, “Most teachers are not confident about using the English language in their classrooms; they think they will make mistakes, so they focus on using MT.” He also added that “most teachers focus on reading from the student text and copying the notes on the board for most of their class time. Since the student’s textbook is prepared in English, teachers get the central idea of the lesson by reading the book. Then, they conduct the primary explanations and presentations in their mother tongue.” According to the FGD, the main reasons why teachers present their daily lessons in their MTL are teachers’ poor command of English next to the students’ poor comprehension ability of the TL. As this grade level is the turning point from MT to English, teachers assume that using only the TL would not help students understand the subject matter being taught. As a result, they use translation and explanation in their MT.

Almost all respondents agree that when students fail to understand EM, they use their MT to explain. The mean value of 4.30 indicates that MTL is frequently used in the class. The FGD and classroom observations also corroborate this. One of the focus group discussants pointed out that “mostly, students do not understand what their teachers say in the TL when they are teaching. Thus, teachers cannot skip without ensuring the students understand the point. This leads them to use their MTL to elaborate on what they said in the TL, a practice that is particularly common among general subject teachers, according to classroom observations”.

The data shows that teachers use English to some extent to revise lessons in the classroom. The mean value of 2.91 suggests that, on average, teachers moderately utilize the English language for revising lessons in the classroom. The classroom observation results further substantiate that especially English language teachers try to revise lessons in the TL at the end of their class.

Concerning lesson summarization, a mean score of 2.15 suggests that teachers infrequently summarize lessons in English after teaching their daily lessons. This indicates that teachers rely more on their MTL for summarization (see item 6). The classroom observation also showed a rare use of the TL for summarizing the daily lessons.

Finally, the sample respondents indicated that they occasionally use the English language to make final greetings at the end of class. Of course, the classroom observation and FGD also pointed out that most teachers, especially the English language teachers, sometimes use the TL to say farewell. However, students have little access to those various expressions because teachers do not use them consistently (see item 7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>EMI Practices in Student Evaluation and Instruction Provision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Minimum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use English medium to ask a variety of classroom questions</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to give feedback and comments on students’ activities</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to give instructions for tests and quizzes</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to evaluate my students at the end of daily lessons.</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding teachers’ responses to EM practices in student evaluation and instruction provisions, the mean value of 2.72 shows that teachers’ use of EM to ask a variety of classroom questions is low. The classroom observation sessions also support this finding that most teachers used EM to ask questions that were already in the activity part of the student textbooks; they read or write questions on the board as they appear in the student textbook. Apart from this, when teachers wanted to ask questions of their own, they mostly formed questions in their MT rather than the TL. It was not easy for most teachers to formulate their questions instantly in the English language as they were presenting their daily lessons.

Regarding the use of EM to give feedback and comments on students’ activities, most teachers rarely use EM to provide feedback on students’ activities. The mean value of 2.29 indicates that the respondents, on average, perceive EMI’s feedback or comments as low though there is dispersion of the responses according to the value of the standard deviation. It suggests that the English feedback appears to fall short of the intended standards or expectations. Despite the interactive nature of classrooms, where teachers typically offer feedback after student participation, many teachers, as observed, preferred using their MTL for explanations, especially when students struggled to comprehend questions. Whether responding to questions, assessing student group work, or addressing misunderstandings, teachers consistently leaned towards their MTL.

The respondents rarely used EM to give instructions to students on tests and quizzes, according to the data. The mean value of 2.05 shows that teachers rarely use EM to provide instructions during tests and quizzes. However, the standard deviation value indicates diversity in responses. Teachers explain the instructions for tests and quizzes using students’ MTL. This was confirmed by classroom observations and FGD results. The majority of teachers expressed a preference
for instructions in MT. In the same way, for the last item, the mean value of 2.16 indicates teachers’ low-frequency level in using EMI to evaluate their students at the end of their daily lessons. The data obtained through classroom observation and the FGD also indicated that most teachers rarely use the TL for evaluation purposes at the end of their class.

### B. Challenges of Using English as a Medium of Instruction

#### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMI Practices in Classroom Management Techniques</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to maintain classroom discipline</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to grab students’ attention</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use EM to appreciate/admire learners in the classroom</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider using EM for spontaneous situations in the classroom</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data indicates that teachers are not using EM as expected to maintain classroom discipline. The mean value of 2.78 suggests that teachers use EM occasionally. Thus, most of the time, they rely on students’ MTL to discipline various student behaviors in the classroom. Classroom observations and FGD further support this finding, indicating that most teachers primarily use MTL for disciplining their students. Again, teachers occasionally use the EL to capture students’ attention during their daily lessons (see item 2). As the students are not yet adults, it is understandable that there are varied behaviors in the classroom. When students lose their attention during lesson delivery, teachers frequently use various L1 expressions like “Hayzza” and “Co’u gi” meaning “Silence and keep quiet” to get their attention.

The data shows that teachers use EMI to praise students in their classrooms (see item 3). Though the standard deviation of 1.032 indicates varied responses, the mean value of 3.43 indicates a strong use of EM in terms of appreciation. According to classroom observations, most non-English teachers prefer using the MT for appreciation, whereas English teachers commonly use it in English. In the last item, the data shows that teachers never consider using EMI for spontaneous situations in the classroom. They switch to MTL rather than responding in the TL. Teachers do not think that they are indirectly teaching the TL when they use it and students model it. This was observed even among English-language teachers.

#### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges Related to Teachers’ Proficiency in EMI</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Having a low level of English for teaching in English Language medium</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sufficient vocabulary knowledge</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in presenting the content of the lesson in EMI</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty of providing elaborate responses to students’ questions</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The problem of not using the EMI mainly originates from various challenges teachers experience or encounter. Among the challenges that have a high influence, having a low level of English proficiency for teaching in EMI is the major one. The mean value of 3.65 indicates that most teachers are positive towards the statement, and the effect of this challenge is highly reflected in their teaching, so they are not comfortable and find it hard to use the TL in their classrooms. This concern was frequently observed during classroom observation sessions.

Another challenge teachers encounter, which affects their use of the EMI at middle-level schools, is the lack of sufficient vocabulary knowledge. This means that having insufficient vocabulary knowledge is among the factors that prevent teachers from using the TL in their teaching process (see item no. 2).

The data shows that the difficulty of presenting the content of the lesson in EMI has a medium level of influence on teachers’ use of EMI in their classrooms. The mean value of 3.41 indicates that it has a moderate level of hindering teachers’ use of EMI. Though the data collected through the questionnaire confirms this, the classroom observation indicates that most of the teachers have difficulty making their continued speech and presentation in EMI. According to observations, the impact of difficulty in presenting the lesson content in English may range from moderate to high. This is said based on observation of what the teachers were saying and how they were saying it when teaching their lessons. Some teachers found presenting in TL very challenging, whereas others mixed a couple of English words as they presented their lesson in the MT.

Sample teachers reported that the difficulty of providing elaborate responses to students’ questions poses a moderate level of challenge when using EMI (see item 4). Similarly, during classroom observation sessions, the majority of the teachers were observed struggling with responding in the TL to students’ questions. Initially, students use their MT to ask whatever questions they have. Subsequently, nearly all teachers were observed elaborating and providing examples using the MTL rather than the TL.
According to the obtained data, other challenges that highly impede C. Coping Strategies Teachers Use to Deal With Instructional Language Challenges on their use of EMI. Synchronize their teaching content with everyday contexts. They have disclosed that this difficulty has a direct impact decreased interest in using EMI. Simple instructions like saying "Dendda" instead of "stand up" to communicate with students, it could suggest a enthusiasm for teaching through the TL is one of the hurdles. When teachers start using their mother tongue even for items 5 and 6). While lack of interest is subjective and is not readily observable, teachers self-report that their lack of lack of interest in using EMI and do have difficulty connecting classroom language with real-life situations. These are the two problems that make it somewhat hard for them to use EMI (see items 5 and 6). While lack of interest is subjective and is not readily observable, teachers self-report that their lack of enthusiasm for teaching through the TL is one of the hurdles. When teachers start using their mother tongue even for simple instructions like saying "Dendda" instead of "stand up" to communicate with students, it could suggest a decreased interest in using EMI.

In terms of the challenge of integrating classroom language with real-life situations, teachers find it difficult to synchronize their teaching content with everyday contexts. They have disclosed that this difficulty has a direct impact on their use of EMI.

C. Coping Strategies Teachers Use to Deal With Instructional Language Challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHALLENGES RELATED TO LACK OF TRAINING, INTEREST, EMI INTEGRATION, AND EXCESSIVE USE OF MTL</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of training in English proficiency</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of training in classroom English</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of English medium training</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excessive use of mother tongue language in the EMI classroom</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest in using EMI</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The difficulty of integrating classroom language with real-life situations</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents revealed that a lack of English proficiency training had a significant impact on their use of EMI. This means a lack of supplemental EL training on capacitating the teachers poses a challenge to using EMI (see item 1). According to the obtained data, other challenges that highly impede C. Coping Strategies Teachers Use to Deal With Instructional Language Challenges of training in classroom English, English medium, and the excessive use of MTL in the EMI classrooms (see items 2, 3, and 4). Based on the mean value of 4.34, excessive use of MTL is the greatest challenge that hinders teachers’ use of the TL. According to the FGD results, almost all teachers are teaching without receiving any supportive training to teach in EMI. It further revealed that there are no opportunities for teachers to get refreshment training to enhance the use and quality of EMI.

The respondents indicated that they do not have an interest in using EMI and do have difficulty connecting classroom language with real-life situations. These are the two problems that make it somewhat hard for them to use EMI (see items 5 and 6). While lack of interest is subjective and is not readily observable, teachers self-report that their lack of enthusiasm for teaching through the TL is one of the hurdles. When teachers start using their mother tongue even for simple instructions like saying "Dendda" instead of "stand up" to communicate with students, it could suggest a decreased interest in using EMI.

In terms of the challenge of integrating classroom language with real-life situations, teachers find it difficult to synchronize their teaching content with everyday contexts. They have disclosed that this difficulty has a direct impact on their use of EMI.

Concerning the contextualized coping strategies, the data shows that the respondents claim that they usually communicate the teaching goals and objectives of their lessons as a strategy to cope with challenges they encounter while teaching in the EMI. The mean value of 3.84 indicates that this strategy is frequently used. This is also supported by the classroom observation, though there is some variation in use. Similarly, the data indicates that teachers heavily rely on their MT when students struggle with comprehension. Classroom observations and FGD validate this finding, revealing it as the most frequently used strategy. The mean value of 4.48 proves that, on average, the majority of the sample teachers indicated a high level of agreement with using the MT when students fail to understand the EL. Additionally, translating into the MTL is among the strategies teachers usually use to cope with language challenges. According to the data, this is the second most frequently utilized strategy (see item 3). It can be beneficial for students to translate concepts into their language while being taught in an EMI, as it can help them understand better and retain the information being presented. However, it needs to be balanced. The data from classroom observation suggests that this strategy extends beyond its boundaries.

According to the data, the strategies of relating ideas with students’ backgrounds and using signs, gestures, or facial expressions are also the strategies teachers sometimes use to address instructional language challenges (see items 4 and 5). Relating ideas to students’ backgrounds in teaching through EMI is a good strategy for effective teaching and learning. When teachers link new information to students’ prior knowledge and experiences, it can help students understand better and remember the information being taught. Moreover, teachers expressed that they use signs, gestures, or facial expressions as a strategy to cope with the challenges they encounter while teaching through the EM (see item 5). The mean value of 3.84 indicates teachers’ regular use of this strategy.
The respondents indicated that they typically employ the strategy of reading from student textbooks to address challenges encountered while teaching through EMI, according to the collected data. The higher mean value of 3.83 indicates teachers’ positive agreement with the strategy’s usage (see item 1). The FGD and classroom observations revealed that nearly all teachers in the sample schools heavily utilize this strategy. It aids students in becoming familiar with the language and promotes reading aloud from the textbook, assisting teachers in becoming more comfortable with the English language.

However, teachers claim that they rarely use the Internet and visual aids (graphs, charts, diagrams, pictures, etc.) as strategies to cope with the instructional language challenges they encounter while teaching in the TL. The mean value of both items indicates that most teachers showed a negative attitude toward using them (see items 2 and 3). The Internet is a mobile library full of teaching resources, activities, and other things. The data from FGD suggests that the Internet can serve as a tool for professional development and diverse language use purposes. However, teachers, particularly in the sample schools, do not have access to it. Teachers can gain some access when they visit private facilities in town that provide this service for a fee. Additionally, according to the FGD data, teachers do not utilize visual aids due to a lack of access to resources.

The majority of sample teachers frequently employ dictionaries as an effective coping strategy, with a mean value of 3.57 indicating positive responses, although there is variability in the responses. According to FGD, teachers primarily utilize dictionaries for understanding the meanings, spellings, pronunciations, synonyms, and antonyms of unfamiliar words, especially when introducing new vocabulary to students.

Teachers displayed negative reactions towards certain strategies, such as utilizing worksheets and incorporating YouTube or online videos in addressing language challenges (items 5 and 6). Mean values of 1.78 and 1.52 indicate minimal utilization of these strategies. The shortage of stationery, including paper and printing equipment, as well as the absence of internet access and necessary materials like computers, contribute to this issue, as highlighted in classroom observations and FGDs. This shortage poses a significant challenge in middle-level schools, where teachers rely on blackboards and students are required to provide their papers from exercise books for assessments.

Most schools widely adopt the practice of offering adequate board notes to address challenges when teaching through EMI. Classroom observations and FGDs indicate the prevalence of this approach among teachers (see item 7). However, some teachers were unable to effectively implement this strategy. Simply copying content from student textbooks onto the board without adaptation does not serve as a proper board note provision. Continuous writing on the board throughout the entire class period is not conducive to the student’s learning process, as it creates a passive learning environment.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The findings of the study revealed a notably low level of EMI implementation within middle-level schools of Wolaita zone. Ekoç (2018) found that poor language skills and insufficient classroom implementation were among the challenges faced by instructors and students, impeding the progress of EMI. Despite English being the designated medium of instruction, most teachers rely heavily on their MTL. After grasping the main concepts from the reading materials, they consistently conveyed all the details in their MTL. Teachers use English for simple routines, such as greeting students and offering farewells; however, they do not present their daily lessons in the TL; instead, they use students’ MT for most of their instructional time in their classrooms. This aligns with the findings of Erliana’s (2018) study, indicating a lack of strict enforcement of the EMI, leading to a more bilingual classroom environment. Teachers’ excessive use of students’ MT in EMI classrooms has a negative influence on TL learning. A study by Ngoc and Yen (2018) notes that instructors viewed using MT as a beneficial strategy in the educational setting. However, excessive use of MT is not supported, as students need extensive exposure to English. Similarly, Mwakira and Mwangi (2021) and Mwangi (2009) cited in their study that engaging in conversations in English positively boosts English performance, while utilizing the MT in conversations has a detrimental negative impact on English performance.

The findings also indicated that teachers encounter various challenges when teaching through EMI in their classrooms. Most teachers rely heavily on their MT because they have low English proficiency. In support of this, Bachore (2015) and Han (2023) state in their study findings that teachers’ limited command of English is among the main challenges to the implementation of EMI. As a result, most teachers find it hard to express their thoughts as
effectively in English compared to their native language. The study showed a significant impact of teachers’ low English proficiency levels on their ability to teach effectively in an English-language medium. In their study, Kassa and Abebe (2023) state that it is particularly disheartening that even English teachers at the primary and secondary levels find it difficult to use English as a language of instruction effectively. Studies by Negash (2006), Heugh et al. (2007), and the Ethiopian Academy of Science (2012) stated in Birbirso (2014) that the English proficiency of both EFL teachers and students, ranging from elementary to high school and up to university levels, remains inadequate and highly unsatisfactory.

The absence of short-term training and refreshment programs in the use of EMI and classroom English poses challenges to teachers of middle-level grades. The finding agrees with Dearden (2015), who indicated that several teachers lack specific training in EMI, leading to a deficiency in the development of essential linguistic competence and pedagogical skills required to deliver content in English effectively. Bachore (2015) also connects the issues with inadequate capacity-building initiatives. This suggests that schools and other stakeholders are not sufficiently active in addressing the issue of EMI utilization. Consequently, teachers tend to stick to their traditional methods, often neglecting the TL. However, if teachers receive updated training in this area, they can become more attentive to it and better implement EMI in their classrooms.

The findings also demonstrated providing ample board notes as a coping strategy for challenges. While this strategy offers benefits such as serving as a visual aid, aiding in topic focus, serving as a reference for future access, and promoting language exposure, observation sessions revealed some drawbacks. Specifically, certain teachers were observed spending the majority of the class time directly copying from the student textbook onto the board, resulting in passive learning environments. To enhance learning outcomes, board notes must be balanced, clear, and legible. Combining board notes with interactive activities, discussions, and practical exercises can create a more dynamic and effective classroom.

Providing a worksheet strategy was impractical because the schools were struggling with a severe shortage of stationery, hindering even the most basic tasks. Nevertheless, providing students with worksheets can be beneficial for practicing specific topics, serving as additional material. Relying solely on instructing students to do exercises in the student textbook might not be sufficient.

Teachers rarely use the strategy of displaying visual aids. While teaching through EMI, this strategy ensures that all students, regardless of their language proficiency, can understand the content. Visual aids can help teachers make the content more accessible to students who may struggle with the language, as they can convey information through images and diagrams that may be easier to understand than written or spoken language alone. However, most teachers do not implement them due to a lack of access to resources.

The results revealed a serious lack of access to resources that enhance the learning process. Some of these include a shortage of student textbooks, stationery, and other equipment, such as computers. On the other hand, this can result in a negative impact on the quality of education. Teachers should strengthen the use of signs and gestures as a strategy because nonverbal communication often transmits meaning more effectively and subtly than spoken communication. Perhaps a smile, for instance, expresses our feelings far more easily than words (Bambaeeroo & Shokrpour, 2017).

Finally, while this study provides valuable insights into EMI practices, challenges, and coping strategies within the context of the study area, it may have limitations regarding the generalizability of the findings. The sample was drawn from economically deprived and developing areas where English is used only in the school context, which may limit the extent to which the results can be extrapolated to broader populations or different contexts. Future research can aim to replicate the findings across diverse samples to enhance the external validity of the findings.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results, the study concludes that the use of EMI among teachers in the middle-level schools of Wolaita zone is very limited and is in a critical situation. The predominant practice was to rely on students’ MT to address various situations in the EMI classroom. Despite incorporating English into classroom instruction, it does not function as the primary language of instruction for most of the class time. This limitation can adversely affect learners’ prospects, hinder the enhancement of teachers’ English proficiency, and impede the delivery of quality education in a broader context.

The findings boldly revealed several challenges impeding the effective use of EMI. These challenges include teachers’ excessive reliance on the MT, low proficiency levels in the English language for teaching in an EMI setting, poor student English background, and a lack of training for teachers in crucial areas such as EMI implementation, classroom English, and English proficiency. Additionally, there is a shortage of resources that is exacerbating these difficulties.

Teachers employed diverse coping strategies to address instructional language challenges. Nevertheless, there were misapplications of most key coping strategies. This was particularly evident when teachers resorted to using the MT during instances of student confusion, translations, and excessive note-giving. The unrestricted use of the MT and translations, under the guise of employing effective strategies, can pose an additional challenge. Teachers frequently offered extensive board notes, mainly repeating textbook content on the board, lacking a professional approach.
Additionally, teachers encounter constraints in implementing certain strategies due to the unavailability of resources necessary for effective teaching and learning.

REFERENCES


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Translation and Gender Through the Lens of Native and Foreign Translators: Case Study on the English Translations of Uzbek Feministic Representations

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Abstract—This paper investigates the issue of translating genderisms from Uzbek into English. It investigates and compares the approaches taken by both native and foreign translators to address this issue through a case study based on Uzbek author Abdulhamid Sulaymon o'g'li Cho'lpon's unfinished dilogy, Night and Day. Originally written between 1933 and 1934 and translated into English by native translators Muminov and Khamidov in 2014 and foreign translator Fort in 2019, Cho'lpon's work was specifically chosen, because it depicts women's repression in the male hegemonic cultures of Central Asian countries during the nineteenth century, particularly in the Uzbek context during the colonial period. Based on both the content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA), the researchers extracted the genderisms in the source text (ST) and compared them to their representation in the target text (TT). The CDA results revealed that genderisms in the ST manifest themselves in women's reliance on men, the limitations on their independence, their low status and powerlessness, and their abusive treatment and threats by men. Analysis of the translations showed that native translators mostly omitted genderisms in translation, attempting to protect their culture by avoiding the introduction of negative views of their nation. On the other hand, the foreign translator kept the genderisms in the TT, trying to realize the author's original goal of using genderism to encourage independence and self-confidence in women. The results of this study serve to reduce the problems of expressing gender representation in translations from many Turkic languages into English.

Index Terms—genderism, translation, CA, CDA, repression of women

I. INTRODUCTION

The cultural approach to translation once again proves the role of this process as a means of inter-ethnic communication and as a conveyer of ideas related to a specific nation and culture. Despite the longstanding perception of translation as a secondary, reproductive activity concerned with the processing of pre-existing texts, the time and effort spent on translating a work is not less than that spent on rewriting it. Translation transcends mere linguistic facets, serving as a nuanced reflection of an entire culture. Even the translation may be grammatically and technically perfect, if the national-cultural essence embedded in the original text is not reflected accurately or is misinterpreted, such a translation will fail. One of the cultural problems in translation studies is to represent the gender issues, because the relationship between translation and gender is so strong that even the external factors such as the gender of the author of the original text and the gender of the translator can have a great influence on the translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Genderism as a Means of Cultural Representation

The study of gender in the linguistic and cultural aspects is carried out in a binary direction; that is, attention is paid to the differences of language units representing both genders and to national-cultural peculiarities in their expression. Predominantly, most of the works carried out in this field focused on feminist research as well as research on the representation of gender characteristics in language units such as proverbs, fairy tales, and idioms (Baran, 2015;
Hassellblatt, 1998; Kanzaki, 2011; Kerschen, 1998; Schipper, 2004). Terms such as "gender specific words", "linguistic units expressing gender", "gender concepts" (Bychkova et al., 2015), "gender characteristics", "gender stereotypes" (Tameryan et al., 2021), "gender indicators" (Jahongirovna, 2023), "gender parameters" (Yusupova, 2022), and "gendering violence" are used as a synonym in studies to express the unequal state of both genders.

In the present scientific work, the researchers employed the term "genderisms" and defined the issue of their expression in translation as a central problem. While the term "genderism" may carry varied interpretations across different scientific disciplines, this research paper relies on the perspective of Moghaddam and Sharifimoghaddam, who defined genderism as "a segregating ideology that unfairly divides society into two groups of ‘inferior’ and ‘superior’ merely based on one’s sex" (Moghaddam & Sharifimoghaddam, 2015, p. 218).

Varied definitions of genderism are prevalent in the scientific literature. Esmaili and Arabmofrad define genderisms as "a phenomenon that can be transferred alongside other matters as a drawback" and "gender-biased language and unequal treatment" of genders (Esmaili & Arabmofrad, 2015, pp. 55-61). Bertens points out that genderism is a sensitive type of ideology that, along with feminism, is placed under political ideologies as it directly influences power relations in social communities, and its regulations are applied in private and public human relations (Bertens, 2001). Categories of genderisms encompass both linguistic and extralinguistic factors, comprising elements such as gender-specific behavior, pronunciation, pauses, stress, silence, word choice, style, and syntax, as well as behavioral aspects, gestures, facial expressions, and conceptual representations of gender (Moghaddam & Sharifimoghaddam, 2015).

Empirical evidence substantiates that feminine genderisms are more common in language and culture compared to androgenic (masculine) genderisms. According to previous literature, the role and importance of religion in the absorption of the discrimination of women in language into the cultures of diverse nations and peoples is evident (Gasanova & Mazanaev, 2014). Korolenko stated that the creation of sacred religious books by men gave rise to the leadership of patriarchal perspectives in them, consequently elevating the role of men in society (Korolenko, 2015). By their nature, feminist gender stereotypes embody both negative and positive attributes based on both real-life facts and constructed notions (Tameryan et al., 2021). Such different portrayals of the female image are explained by national worldviews, religions, cultures, ethics (morality), and social bias, as well as the multifaceted nature of the female image and the diversity of her intercultural interpretation. Genderism is so embedded in the cultural values of society that discrimination has taken the form of normality, and it is difficult to express it in cross-cultural translation.

B. Cultural Challenges in Translating Gender

The studies of Sherry Simon and Louise von Flotow, who spurred the development of research on the relationship between translation and gender at the end of the 20th century, are noteworthy in the formation of two main directions in the research of gender issues in translation studies (Simon, 2003; Flotow, 2010):

1. Converting the gender specific language units expressed in the source text into the target language (Don, 2008).
2. Differences between translations made by female and male translators (Munday, 2001; Simon, 1996; Sabzalipour, 2014).

In the approaches used in the translation of genderisms, the question of whether it is necessary to preserve the gendered unity in translation or to express it in a neutral state has yet to be answered. In the reviewed literature, ideas about the validity of using "gender-fair", "gender inclusive", or "gender neutral" language strategies are put forward (Paolucci et al., 2023). However, it cannot be denied that this feminist theory of translation cannot always be an alternative because the translation reflects the culture of the nation; therefore, it is natural that the task of the translation is to fully convey the attitude towards both genders in the national language at a certain time because the construction of the work and the foundations of its central idea are rooted in the role of men and women in social relations.

The use of non-gendered language in the translation of a literary work (omitting gender markers) can create a mysterious atmosphere for the translation, and the grammatical impossibility sometimes creates difficulties for the translator (Nissen, 2002). The problem becomes even greater when translating the social characteristics of gender representation, that is, stereotypical associations (Nissen, 2002). Feminist gender stereotypes include the superiority of men over women, the large number of negative connotations of women in the speech of men (Gasanova et al., 2016), the fact that women often occupy a secondary position in the family, that they are mainly responsible for household chores and raising children (Tameryan et al., 2021), women’s features such as a high sarcastic attitude, and attachment of attributes such as talkative, argumentative, and careless (Baran, 2015). In addition, the unique structure of each language and the expression or non-expression of grammatical gender, nominative gender, social gender, and biological gender in it definitely affect the translation.

III. MATERIALS

A. Data Selection

Studies on the expression of genderisms, which are both objects and concepts in translation, have mainly been considered in the context of translations from Romano-Germanic languages into English, but this problem has not been sufficiently studied in the context of translations from Turkic languages, including from Uzbek into English. For this
reason, in this study, the researchers took the Uzbek language as a basis with the aim of the results being to help reduce
the problems of expressing gender representation in translations from many other Turkic languages into English. Before
addressing the issue of translating the representation of Uzbek women into English, it is important to analyze how they
are depicted in literary works. In order to do this, the researchers selected works of literary art translated from Uzbek to
English based on the following criteria:

- the work must belong to the period of the 19th and 20th centuries and describe the events of that period;
- the work should be related to larger prose genres (stories, novels, dialogues);
- the work must be directly translated into English by both local and foreign translators;
- the female character should be in the leading position in the work.

The uniqueness of any concept becomes more apparent when comparing it with another similar phenomenon. In the
same way, the national or cultural characteristics of a certain nation are clearly visible when comparing them with the
national-cultural characteristics of another nation. History has shown that the political and social processes of the 19th
and 20th centuries took place against the background of the Russian colonial policy, and during this period, the
elements of the Russian culture began to enter the culture of the Uzbek people. This was expressed in oral speech.
During the period when the conflict between these two cultures escalated, there were attempts to suppress, repress, and
change the cultural processes specific to the Uzbek nation. For this reason, this period was the stage in which the
national and cultural characteristics of the Uzbek people are expressed in the most colorful form. In addition, in the
social life of the 19th and 20th centuries, religious elements had a strong influence on people's lives: women wore
“paranji” and were completely subservient to men, their rights were violated, and they could not even make independent
decisions about marriage. However, over time, the attitudes towards women and social values have changed and are
reflected in the works of modern Uzbek literature.

B. “Night and Day” by Cho’lpon (and Its Translations)

“Night and Day” was written as a planned dilogy by the Uzbek author Cho’lpon who was executed during Stalin’s
Great Purge. Only the first part of this work, “Night”, was preserved, but the fate of the second book, “Day”, is
unknown until now. Cho’lpon published the initial chapter in the third issue of Soviet Literature (Sovet adabiyoti) in
1935, the second chapter in the tenth issue of Rose Garden (Guliston) the same year, and the entire novel was released
as a book in October 1936. In August 1937, after Cho’lpon’s arrest, critics published a scathing review, accusing the
writer of “substituting class struggle with pornography” and portraying Jadids (Muslim modernist reformers) as
“revolutionaries for the people” rather than “allies of the Russian bourgeoisie and imperial officers” (Sharifiy et al.,
1937, p. 35). The book, along with the author’s name, was banned.

This book describes the period prior to the Russian Revolution, with the main focus directed towards the terrible fate
of a young Uzbek girl named Zebi, who was forced into a marriage as a fourth wife to one of the Russian-affiliated
colonial officials called Akbarali Mingboshi. Nonetheless, Zebi finds herself in a web of intrigue planned by her fellow
co-wives. The second wife of Mingboshi plans to poison her, but inadvertently, Zebi gives the poison to Akbarali.
Subsequently, Zebi is brought to court, found guilty of murder, and sentenced to exile in Siberia. Overall, the novel
addresses issues about the nature of Russian colonialism, its influence on the lives of Central Asian people, resistance to
this life, women’s role in society, their discrimination and repression, the helplessness of women, and the intentions of
the author to call women to fight for their rights.

The work was translated into English by native translators O.M.Muminov and A.A.Khamidov (TT1) in 2014 and
foreign translator C. Fort in 2019 (TT2).

IV. METHODS

In this research, we applied the methods of Content Analysis (CA) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in order to
perform both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis of the text in both ST and TT. The fact that CDA “concerns itself
with relations of power and inequality in language” (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000, pp. 447-466) and “specifically focuses
on the discursive reproduction of power abuse, such as sexism, racism, and other forms of social inequality, as well as
the resistance against such domination” (Djik & Teun, 2015, pp. 466-485), proves the actuality of this method in
our research. Fairclough defines the three-dimensional model of CDA (Description, Interpretation, Explanation), which
engages with overarching social issues and considers external factors such as ideology, power dynamics, inequality, and
more (Fairclough, 2003). Farahzad points out that CDA analyzes the meta-text at two levels:

1. the micro-level, which concerns everything in the text (linguistic level);
2. the macro-level, which concerns everything about the text.

Therefore, it can be actively applied to the analysis of gender-biased language (Farahzad, 2009).

In the context of research, we developed the CDA framework for extracting genderisms from ST for analyzing Uzbek
texts and their translations into English (Table 1).
or that girls lived with their husbands after marriage, the collocation "taking a girl" formation of the collocation "taking a girl"
is called "taking a girl" or not. Looking at it this way today, it is understandable why different approaches were taken by foreign and native
translators in expressing this genderism in their respective renderings. From an etymological point of view, the
genderisms found in the work belong to this category. In the words of both main male characters, Akbarali Mingbashi
and Razzak Sufi, it is mentioned several times that women can be treated as objects; that is, they can be taken, given,
given, renewed, chosen, thrown away, sold, avoided and disposed of.

In making minor decisions (visiting as a guest, singing) 5 9
When making significant decisions (marriage) 4

The analyzed tokens were coded using Content Analysis (CA) using NVivo 14, released in 2023. The codes were
The dependency degree of women on men in the social processes of the 19th century was high, and most of the
genderisms found in the work belong to this category. In the words of both main male characters, Akbarali Mingbashi
and Razzak Sufi, it is mentioned several times that women can be treated as objects; that is, they can be taken, given,
殖newed, chosen, thrown away, sold, abandoned, and saved. Sometimes women are even told that they are a burden and

2. Case: Taking a Girl or Wife

In Uzbek culture, due to the limited freedom of girls (a daughter or a wife) in making a decision about marriage, her
father or the dominant man in the family performs this important task. Taking a wife is a tradition with historical roots.
In Uzbek culture, the parents of a man who wants to marry a girl must get permission from the girl’s parents. This
process is called “taking a girl or wife”. Although it is customary to ask for the girls’ consent nowadays, historically,
their opinion was not taken into account in most cases. Actually, it did not matter whether the girl wanted to get married
or not. Looking at it this way today, it is understandable why different approaches were taken by foreign and native
translators in expressing this genderism in their respective renderings. From an etymological point of view, the
formation of the collocation “taking a girl or wife” goes back to the patriarchal system. Historically, taking into account
that girls lived with their husbands after marriage, the collocation “taking a girl or wife” was used to refer to a girl,
implying the emergence of genderism, or the discrimination of women. In English, the use of the word “marry” for both
men and women has bridged the genderism gap, while the already commonplace collocation “taking a girl or wife”
continues to convey the low status of women and girls, especially in the examples below (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genderism Categories</th>
<th>Genderism Connotations</th>
<th>Number of Tokens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Dependence of women</td>
<td>A woman is owned</td>
<td>2 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A woman is an object, an item that can be taken, given, renewed, chosen, thrown away, sold, avoided and disposed of</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Subordinate status and limited power of women</td>
<td>A woman is a burden or a problem for men</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the family</td>
<td>4 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the society</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Restricted autonomy of women</td>
<td>In making minor decisions (visiting as a guest, singing)</td>
<td>5 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When making significant decisions (marriage)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the analysis of the above (Table 3), example 1 highlights that the man wants to “give away” all of his wives without hesitation if someone wants to “take” them, which the foreign translator Fort preserves the lexeme in translation (TT2 1) in its original form as “would take”. However, Uzbek translators tried to soften the situation and used neutral words, such as “wishes to have you” (TT1 1). In cases 2, 3, and 4, Uzbek translators neutralize the unit “to take a wife or a girl” by using the word “marry” (TT2 2, 3, 4), on the contrary, the foreign translator uses the lexeme “to take”. It is clear from this that while the foreign translator tried to convey to the reader the original meaning given in the ST and the writer’s pragmatic intention, Uzbek translators preferred neutralization in order to hide the negative features of their culture from foreign readers.

However, sometimes in the heroes’ speech, the negative attitude towards taking a girl or wife is expressed (ST 5, 6), and the foreign translator Fort presents this negative attitude by using “to add” or “to have” (TT2 5, 6), exaggerating the situation and increasing the creativeness. Native translators try to soften the situation as much as possible, expressing it in the form of “to live” (TT1 6). It can be seen that when expressing the genderism “taking a girl or wife”, foreign translators exaggerated or overstated the situation, but local translators preferred to soften and neutralize it as much as possible.

2. Case: Giving a Girl

Another linguocultural term belonging to this genderism category is “giving a girl”. In Uzbek culture, the decision for a daughter to marry is made by her father. Disregarding the opinion of a girl, this custom is considered completely against the beliefs of Islam because “Consent in marriage falls within a wider Islamic framework of protection for women that gives them the right to exercise choice in matters affecting their lives. In a hadith recorded by Abu Huraira and validated by Muslim, the Prophet (peace be upon him) stated explicitly that a virgin should not be married until her consent is obtained” (Islamic Relief, 2018). However, most men paid no attention to this, despite the existence of a strong belief in Islam at that time. Men saw their daughters as their “property”, disregarded religious beliefs, and married them off to someone else, oftentimes not even informing the girl. This situation was clearly revealed by the writer. The dialogue below depicts Zebi’s father telling his family members that he will marry his daughter to Akbarali Mingbashi, who already has three wives (Table 4).

### Table 3: Connotations of Taking a Girl in ST and TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Agar olmoqchi bo’lsa, hammandini ikki qo‘llab tutardim o’sha gazetchi dayunga. (pp. 84)</td>
<td>If this press man wishes to have you all, I’ll give you him with great pleasure! (pp. 63)</td>
<td>If he would take you, I’d give you to that newspaper pimp myself! (pp. 111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Senga butun avliyo-anbiyolami shafe kelirib aytamanki, o’sha qiz menga nasib bo’lsa, undan keyin xotin olishni bas qilaman. (pp. 96)</td>
<td>I ensure you if she becomes mine, I will never marry again. (pp. 70)</td>
<td>I will swear on all the saints and prophets that if that girl is mine, I will never take another wife. (pp. 120)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Men butun umrimda to’rtta xotin olibman. (pp. 87)</td>
<td>I was married only to four women during all my life. (pp. 65)</td>
<td>I have only taken four wives in all my life. (p. 113)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Keyingi ikkitasini olgan vaqtingizda ham, har safar «bas endi! Shu — oxirgisi!» derdingiz. (pp. 96)</td>
<td>You had told like this before when were married for the second and third time. (pp. 70)</td>
<td>When you took the last two, each time you said, “Enough! This is the last one!” (pp. 121)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Uch xotini ustiga yana to’r tinchisini, hatto besh-o’li-yetin chisini... ham oluvga qarsh emas. (pp. 82)</td>
<td>Mingboshi is not against to have more wives upon his three wives. (pp. 61)</td>
<td>He has no qualms about adding a fourth, and perhaps even a fifth or sixth, wife to his current three. (pp. 109)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mingboshi yotadi to’rtta xotin olib! (pp. 237)</td>
<td>Mingboshi lives in pleasure with four wives. (pp. 157)</td>
<td>Mingboshi is loitering around now that he has four wives. (pp. 236)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can be seen that the Uzbek translators used softer combinations like “let someone marry” or “engage” when translating the phrase “giving a girl”, avoiding the use of the term as much as possible, but the foreign translator puts special emphasis on this word, expressing its meaning with a dramatic pause of “…”. In this case, the writer’s intention is to reveal how girls were underestimated and treated as “items” that could be exchanged, taken, or given. Specifically, in Case 2, it is clear that the foreign translator did not even use the word “give” to enhance the pragmatic effect for the reader (TT2). Instead, the use of “…” makes it much stronger than using the word “give” that Zebi’s mother was unable to dare utter the word “give” towards her daughter as she knew how his daughter was unequal to Mingboshi. By saying “Tengini topib bering-da...” (to find someone equal), the mother implies not only the age of Mingboshi, but also other factors such as his personality, behavior, social status, and so on. Her mother does not consider him to be appropriate for her daughter. However, as she is female, her disapproval or views have not been taken into account in the family.

3. Case: Renewing, Selling, or Abandoning the Wife, Girl, or Woman

Considering a wife or a female as property in the 19th century had become increasingly common so that no one had objections to that statement. According to Kholikova et al.:  

Before marriage of Muslims in Turkestan before the coup of 1917, it became a real bargain, and they tried to get the bride as much as possible, and the bridegroom, on the other hand, to reduce the tin. In the end, the parties reached a certain amount, taking into account the bridegroom’s finances, the bride and groom’s status. (Kholikova et al., 2020, pp. 1844-1850)

Terms such as “to sell” and other such genderism componental verbs are linked to the amount of money the parents’ of girls accept to give approval for marriage. This amount of money is called qalin puli or sut haqi which is obtained for “upbringing the daughter for years”. In the following extracts taken from the novel, the case of renewing, selling and abandoning the wife can be observed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Renewing a wife</td>
<td>Mingboshining o‘zi esa har sana bir evlamoqdan, xotin yanglamoqdan bo’shalmaydular... (pp. 82)</td>
<td>(Dropped)</td>
<td>Mingboshi could not free up any funding for the school, busy as he was acquiring new wives. (pp. 109)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Abandoning a wife</td>
<td>Chinakam, mingboshi yangi quyilqu olib, muni butunlay tashlab yubordi. Jabr, axir, yosh narsaga! (pp. 199)</td>
<td>(Dropped)</td>
<td>Mingboshi completely abandoned her once he took Zebi. (pp. 205)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Selling a girl/ daughter</td>
<td>Ota-onali tomonidan qari chollarga sotilgan qizlar ozmud? (pp.229)</td>
<td>Were there less girls who had been sold to old gentlemen by their parents? (pp. 152)</td>
<td>Are the girls that are sold by their parents to old men few? (pp. 231)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the analysis of these samples, when translating the connotations of genderism, which represent the behavior associated with men’s view of women as objects, the foreign translator directly conveys the original word (TT2 1, 2, 3), preserving the lexical meaning, and in some cases, using exaggeration (TT2 1). However, the local translators kept the term “to sell” (TT1 3) and preferred to omit other cases (TT1 1, 2).
The researchers of the present paper believe that, when translating genderisms in the meaning of taking and giving a girl, it is necessary to pay attention to the true nature of these linguoculturalisms. This is because in Uzbek culture, units such as “taking” or “giving” a girl can also mean the custom. Moreover, they are actually used in the sense of agreeing to the marriage of daughters. At this point, the method of native translators can be justified because, in some cases, the author did not try to express the discrimination against girls.

(b). Subordinate Status and Limited Power of Women in Society and Family in Translation

It is known that there are different gender roles applied to men and women in societies around the world that have become a tradition and are assigned certain responsibilities as such. According to the essence of these roles, in many cases, men are portrayed as strong and women are portrayed as weak or limited in physical abilities. Indeed, these ideas are not alien to the cultures of Central Asia, as stereotypes that women are physically weaker than men and that they do not have enough intelligence, strength, abilities, skills, or talents are embedded in the elements of everyday speech.

1. Case: Limited Power of Women in the Family

Cho’lpon tried to exaggerate gender inequality with the words, manners, and behavior of Razzak Sufi, who is portrayed as a father and a husband. For example, Razzak Sufi’s response to his brother’s offer to return to his homeland, work together with his brother, and earn money shows how selfish and mean he is and how he is making ends meet at the expense of his wife and daughter and oppresses them (Table 6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shu kulismirs rash bilan yana broq</td>
<td>Continuing that smile, he told</td>
<td>After they had gone a little farther</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borgandan keyin, bu safar jiddiyroq</td>
<td>seriously now: “-Thanks to God, my</td>
<td>laughing, Razzq-sufi said seriously:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qilib, dedi-Ahliyamiz ham uchchiga</td>
<td>wife is a masterdressmaker.</td>
<td>“My wife and daughter are tricky ones,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chiqqan chevar, xudoga shukur.</td>
<td>Besides, my daughter also is a skilled</td>
<td>thanks to be God. They deal with the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ojizamiz ham do’ppi tikishga “farang”</td>
<td>skull cap maker. They can earn money</td>
<td>household’s needs. As long as I can lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo’lib chaiq! Ro’z’g’orming ko’p</td>
<td>for live themselves. Therefore I can be</td>
<td>down and turn my prayer beads,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanlarini o’zlarini bitirishadi.</td>
<td>free of all burden of existence”. (pp.</td>
<td>everything is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men bohuzur tashihimini aylantirib yotsam</td>
<td>16)</td>
<td>fine!” (pp. 53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo’la beradi! (pp. 12)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this context, the lexeme “ojiza” means women are weak, and “ahliya” is a word that portrays women as belonging to men.

The root of the word “ojiza” is “ojiz” and means “weak”. This word got its current form after adding the suffix “-a”, representing the feminist gender. A number of Uzbek words (kotiba, etc.) are formed through this word-forming suffix. Ismailbekova notes that “Ojiza is a strategy of individuals in patriarchy, through which women can exert a degree of agency in using this attribution to call for support” (Ismailbekova, 2023); that is, considering unmarried girls as weak is related to the idea of providing their “security”. Through this, girls are taken under the protection of their father, husband, or other male relatives, who are responsible for their future.

It can be seen that foreign and Uzbek translators used the method of neutralizing these genderisms; that is, they translated the lexeme “ojiza” as “a daughter” and “ahliya” as “a wife, spouse”. In this place, the discriminatory meaning of these national-cultural concepts has lost its power. However, it is natural to ask the question, “How reasonable is this?” It is known that the period described in the work was one of the most acute stages of gender inequality in the history of the Uzbek people. Therefore, it is no exaggeration to say that Cho’lpon’s goal in the work was to encourage Uzbek women to wake up, and gain freedom, independence, and self-confidence by highlighting these events. This is due to all the difficulties faced by the protagonists of the work who were caused to suppress women’s rights by the social system at that time. Thus, expressions of genderisms through neutralization can lead to the death of the original goal and inner motive of the author of the work. Neutralizing all genderisms in the work has a serious negative impact on the content of the work; however, there is another side to the matter, as most genderisms are formed from national-cultural concepts, it is difficult to find an equivalent in their translation. Also, in cases like the one above, words such as “ahliya” and “ojiza” are considered units of reference specific to the Uzbek national culture, apart from gender inequality. In addition, this represents the speaker’s respect and manners towards the woman, the speaker is referring to, because in Uzbek, saying “mening xotinim” (my wife) sounds rude, and “ahliya” is its stylistically colored, gentler form. In the work, this stylistic color prevails over gender inequality. That is, in this case, rather than the problem of the weakness or dependence of women in terms of gender, the existence of a relationship based on respect in the process of conversation is evident from the main point of view. Therefore, the approach taken by the translators in this place, that is, the method of removing the meaning of genderism, is justified. Still, as we noted above, this does not work in all cases.

2. Case: Low Status of Women in the Society

Another lexeme related to daughters that clearly expresses gender inequality is the genderism that a daughter cannot be replaced by a boy. Cho’lpon’s goal was to arouse the motivation of women to fight against discriminatory attitudes.
towards them. The following passage provides the exact example of this issue in the speech of Akbarali Mingbashi who has 3 wives, talking to his eldest wife and telling her that he was angry at the newspaper article accusing him of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text 1</th>
<th>Target Text 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gazetni o‘qi, bilasam... Senlarning tufaylingdan yomon nomim yetti aqliingga kekti... Hammang bir qora mo‘yimga arzirmiding, qalay?... Agar oloqchi bo’lsa, hammangni iikki qo’llab tutardin o‘sha gazetchi dayuiga!... Menga bitta xotin bas edti... zurriyotlik bo’lsa... Shuncha davlatni kimga ishonib qoldiraman? Uchta bezurriyog‘amni?... — Nimaga hammani barobar abylaysiz? Fazlating menga asqtarmidi? Bir-iikki yildan keyin ibrivlarining qo’liga suv quyadigan bo’ladi. Qiz farzand bo’lardimi? Qaysi biring ota-onangga asqtoding!... (pp. 84)</td>
<td>Read this newspaper... You will know, because of you I got popular everywhere... All you are not worth to my strand, aren’t you? If this press man wishes to have you all, I’ll give you him with great pleasure! One wife is enough for me... Enough for me to pour water into someone else’s hands. Is daughter really a child? Which one of you was worth even one of my hairs? If he took you, I’d give you to that newspaper pimp myself! One wife is enough for me, if she’d just give me a child. Who am I going to leave all this wealth to? To three childless women? Why are you accusing us all equally? What about Fazilat, your daughter? Does your Fazilat mean anything to me? Another few years and she’ll be pouring water on someone else’s hands. Is daughter really a child? Which one of you was worth anything to your parents?! (pp. 111)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from this text that Akbarali Mingbashi does not value his wives as much as “a single black hair” in his body and is ready to give them to someone as if they were an object. For him, the only purpose of marrying a woman is her giving birth to a son (a male child), and he does not even consider his own daughter as a child.

Obviously, the translators Muminov and Khamidov left out the genderisms Fazlating menga asqtarmidi? (“Does your Fazilat mean anything to me?”) and Qiz farzand bo’lardimi? (“Is the daughter really a child?”) in the translation. This can be considered as a requirement of translation according to the rules of feminist translation theory; however, on the other hand, it is a bit strange that the translators use the sentence “She will become someone's property”, which does not exist in the original. In fact, in the original work, the phrase birovning qo'liga suv quymoq (“to pour water into someone else's hands”) means to serve someone, or more precisely, to get married and serve one's family members. Although there is a view that, according to some moral nuances, a woman is under the care of her husband, a woman is considered someone's possession. The interpretation of women as property is not expressed in the context, so providing this information in translation is inappropriate in the researchers' opinion. In contrast, Fort did not leave any of the genderisms in the translation, he tried to preserve them. This, in the researchers’ opinion, contributed to expressing the main goal of the author of the work in the translation.

The analysis of genderisms belonging to this category showed that in the 19th and 20th centuries, communication with women was considered a negative attribute for men, breaking their pride. This opinion is expressed by genderisms like men accepting to speak in front of a woman as a loss of reputation, that they should not use the tongue in front of a lowly creature like a woman, that they should only say what is necessary to a woman, and the rule of speaking to this class only out of necessity. Indeed, these genderisms were used repeatedly in the speech of Razzak Sufi to his wife Kurbanbibi and sometimes in the speech of Akbarali Mingbashi to one of his wives. Cho’lpın’s giving the main place to gender issues in “Night and Day”, specifically to the discriminatory position of women, is clearly visible; therefore, the use of such genderisms adds tension to the work.

(c). Restricted Autonomy of Women in Making Decisions

1. Case: Restriction of Women in Making Minor and Major Decisions

Another category of genderisms actively used in the work is genderisms related to the fact that women’s independent opinion is not taken into account when making decisions. Their will is limited, and they do not have their own free will. In the genderisms belonging to this category, it is shown that women have to ask for permission not only when making important life decisions (marriage), but also in very simple situations (singing, visiting guests). This is explained by the words of the protagonists of the work: “the father must give a permission to go to a given place”, “all the girls were given away (married off) by their parents without asking”, some of them were “tied by the legs” to send to their future husband’s house, “they were brought as maidservants”, “most females are forced to marry by their parents”, “the father does not agree with his daughter's singing to non-mahrams”. Of course, the main reason for the existence of genderisms related to this category is the influence of the religious views of that time on people’s lives, and the translators preferred to ignore them when translating. Moreover, there are no sharp differences in the approach of foreign and local translators to this issue.
VI. CONCLUSION

The research was conducted to analyze genderisms in terms of dominant genderologic characteristics of women in Uzbek literature, as well as in the translations of genderisms in this literature by foreign and native translators, aimed at defining any differences in their approaches. The results of both the content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) showed that, in Uzbek literature of the 19th century, genderisms related to women expressed genderologic concepts such as the representation of the dependence of women on men, the subordinate status and limited power of women in society, and the family in restricting the autonomy of women in making decisions. The analysis of six cases showed that the expression level of genderisms in the source and target texts is significantly different from each other. In particular, the expression of genderisms is higher in the original, and in most cases, an attempt was made to leave them out of the translation. On the other hand, the goal of the original writer, Uzbek author Abdulhamid Sulaymon o’g’li Cho’lpon, was to use the influence of genderism to motivate women to develop independence and self-confidence. However, this goal seems to have only decreased in its translation as native Uzbek translators chose to neutralize genderisms in places where discrimination was most severe. This was because they wanted to prevent these unethical views about their own nature and culture. Still, the foreign translator Fort rendered the genderisms in the work as close as possible to the original, and this is based on the fact that his approach to translation aimed at realizing the author’s original goal. In conclusion, whether it is necessary to preserve genderisms in the translation remains a problem without a clear solution and arises from the uniqueness of a particular nationality, people, and culture. If the use of genderisms in the work has its own purpose, it will be effective to keep them in the translation.

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Implementing Multilingual Education in Kazakhstan: Students’ Perceptions and Attitudes Towards the Status of English

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Abstract—The present study seeks to contribute to the ongoing discussion of multilingual education by showing how students understand the role of the English language in multilingual classrooms in the Expanding Circle context. It examines the perception and assessment of the status of English by university students in the context of the trilingual policy currently being implemented in Kazakhstan. The purpose of this study is to determine how the new language policy is implemented in university multilingual programs from the point of view of the functioning of English. The quantitative study utilizes a sociolinguistic questionnaire distributed between undergraduate students of multilingual programs offered by four major universities in the western area of Kazakhstan. The findings suggest that despite the increasing importance and prestige of studying English, it is not used on equal ground with the Kazakh and Russian languages, and its level of proficiency remains relatively low. The statistical analysis of the respondents’ answers allowed identifying gaps in the implementation of the language policy due to the lack of understanding of the specificity of multilingual education by both students and teachers.

Index Terms—multilingual education, English, students’ perceptions, attitude, Kazakhstan

I. INTRODUCTION

The educational sphere of society has been significantly affected by the processes of integration and globalization. Recently there has been an unprecedented growth in studies on multilingualism in English as second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL) classrooms (Burner & Carlsen, 2023). For multilinguals, advanced English proficiency has become essential for global competitiveness (Brutt-Griffler, 2017). Official policies have been developed in many countries of the world aiming to realize the emerging demands for linguistic diversity and language learning, one of them being the state program “Trinity of Languages” in Kazakhstan (Delovarova & Gaipov, 2019). According to this program, the people of Kazakhstan must become fluent in the Kazakh, Russian, and English languages, and education must serve as “a conveyor belt” to build a multilingual society (Agbo et al., 2022). In connection with the active entry of Kazakhstan into the globalization space and the expansion of the scale of international relations, there is a need for a more attentive attitude to the role of languages in the Kazakhstani society.

A number of recent investigations into the modern language situation in Kazakhstan have explored the features of multilingualism in the country. Thus, several studies have characterized the ambiguous language situation in modern

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Kazakhstan, where the state language does not yet fully function as the state language (Azimbayeva, 2016), whereas the Russian language dominates in most communicative situations (Nurtazina et al., 2019; Terlikbayeva & Menlibekova, 2021). Although the area of the active use of the English language is reported to be rapidly expanding (Djuraeva, 2022), the annual report by “Education First” shows that in 2023 Kazakhstan ranks very low among other countries in terms of the English proficiency level, being 104th in the English Proficiency Index list among 113 countries around the world (Education First, 2023). Such a situation seems somewhat contradictory, since multilingual education is one of the most prioritized areas in the country’s education policy and the language policy consists in promoting the acquisition of three languages – Kazakh, Russian and English – by its population.

English in Kazakhstan is classified as belonging to the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1986) because it has no official status and is taught as a foreign language. In the last decade, special attention has been given to the development and spread of English at the state level. English is promoted as the main language of instruction and acts as a mediator of international scientific communication, ensuring access to a vast array of academic literature and events, and allowing for constructive communication with academics representing other countries and cultures (Meyerhoff & Dreesmann, 2019; Aleshinskaya, 2023). As there is a great demand for professionals with knowledge of English, multilingual education has been introduced to the leading universities in Kazakhstan, where emphasis is put on training competitive specialists who are professionally fluent in Kazakh, Russian and English (Zhumay et al., 2021). Multilingual education is aimed at the internationalization and successful adaptation of university graduates to the international labor market (Zharkynbekova, 2017).

Despite the growing interest, research interest has shifted mostly to the attitudes of teachers to the language policy and its implementation at different levels of education in Kazakhstan. Thus, Akynova et al. (2021) claim that attitudes towards the promotion of English in higher education are characterized as largely positive and promising, and this allows them to conclude that the multilingual policy in Kazakhstan proves to be effective. However, some problems have been identified at the levels of primary and secondary education. Most researchers note that due to the excessive speed of the language reform in the educational space, most teachers have not yet made a transition to the organized system of teaching English, not being provided with sufficient methodological and teaching tools to implement change both in primary (Zhetpisbayeva et al., 2016) and secondary school (Karabassova, 2021). Among other problems preventing secondary schools from a successful implementation of the trilingual system are a low level of English knowledge of pupils and inadequate English environment (Tlemissov et al., 2020), as well as different English language levels among teachers (Gómez-Parra & Abdiyeva, 2022).

Despite the growing interest in multilingual education in different contexts, this domain of the functioning of trilingualism, especially in higher education, still remains poorly studied in relation to Kazakhstan. Moreover, insufficient attention has been paid to students’ opinions regarding the implementation of language policy in the context of Kazakhstan as an Expanding Circle country. Following previous studies in the field of multilingual education, we take the view that being aware of students’ attitudes and perceptions can account for their linguistic and academic achievements (Baa et al., 2023) and allows for better understanding of how they can be sustainably supported to adjust and succeed in multilingual education (Moorhouse & Wan, 2023). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the role and status of the English language in the field of multilingual higher education in Kazakhstan based on the analysis of students’ perceptions of how the new language policy is implemented in university multilingual programs. In this respect, the present paper enables a better understanding of multicultural education within the Expanding circle context.

II. MULTILINGUAL HIGHER EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN

Today, the higher education system is characterized by increasing diversity, interconnectedness and international mobility. Language learning and teaching policies around the world are slowly but steadily undergoing a paradigm shift called “a multilingual turn” by Piccardo and Galante (2018). The goal of multilingual education is to develop language skills and repertoire in different languages. As part of the new paradigm, learning and teaching English as a second (foreign) language should build on and expand students’ multilingual repertoire in order to prepare them for communication in a variety of multilingual and multicultural settings (Duarte, 2022; Yanaprasarit & Lüdi, 2017).

Researchers in the field of multilingual education often focus on the dominance of English as a foreign language and as the sole or dominant language of instruction. Unlike many foreign countries, the Republic of Kazakhstan does not have the conditions for the natural development of mass multilingualism with knowledge of an actively functioning English language. The main feature of multilingual education in Kazakhstan is that in the same language arena there are three languages with different statuses, with the dominant languages being Kazakh and Russian. This specificity in the field of education in Kazakhstan necessitates the creation of a new model of education that will contribute to the formation of a generation that knows the language culture and is competitive in the context of globalization. The knowledge of the Kazakh, Russian and English languages for young people will give the key to world markets, science and new technologies, and is believed to create conditions for the formation of an ideological orientation towards constructive cooperation based on familiarization with ethnic Kazakh and world culture (Nurlanova et al., 2022).

In 2009, on behalf of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the “Concept of Language Education of Kazakhstan” and the State Educational Standard of the Republic of Kazakhstan “Trinity of Languages” were developed as a single universal system for managing multilingual education in the country.
In 2011, based on the approved State Educational Standard for Languages, educational programs in target languages were developed and put into practice in order to control and methodologically coordinate the teaching of Kazakh, Russian and English languages at universities in Kazakhstan. Higher educational institutions of Kazakhstan that implement trilingual education programs plan and organize educational activities in three languages: the language of instruction, a second language and English. In accordance with trilingual education programs, 50% of subjects are taught in the first language (Kazakh or Russian), 20% of subjects in the second language (Russian or Kazakh, respectively) and 30% of subjects in English.

Current research in the field of multilingual education in Kazakhstan mainly addresses the problems associated with the implementation of the trilingual education program in the state (Gómez-Parra & Abdiyeva, 2022) and, based on the experience of European countries, offers various alternatives for the further development of multilingual education in Kazakhstan (Aubakirova et al., 2019). Some authors study students’ attitudes towards the development of a multilingual educational environment in the country (Zharkynbekova, 2017; Yeskeldiyeva & Tazhibayeva, 2015) or students’ language preferences and motivation to learn English (Polatova et al., 2020). Despite the growing interest in the peculiarities of the implementation of the trilingual policy in the field of multilingual education, not enough attention is paid to the status of the English language in Kazakh society, which, on the one hand, determines the specificity of the linguistic and ethno-linguistic situation in Kazakhstan, and on the other hand, allows us to see the real picture of the implementation of the accepted model of trilingual education.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

This study draws on quantitative methodology, utilizing a sociolinguistic questionnaire to explore the role of English in multilingual education for university students. We conducted this study in four universities located in four regions of the western area of Kazakhstan. All these higher educational institutions offer multilingual undergraduate programs leading to bachelor’s qualifications in Biology, Chemistry, Computer science, Kazakh language and literature, Mathematics, Physics, Preschool education and upbringing, Restaurant business, Russian language in schools with non-Russian language of instruction, Tourism, and Two foreign languages. We purposefully selected the universities based on the integration of English as the language of instruction in their teaching and learning programs along with the Kazakh and Russian languages.

B. Research Sample

The participants of the study are 400 undergraduate students from K. Zhubanov Aktobe Regional University (located in Aktobe, Aktobe region), the Caspian University of Technology and Engineering named after Sh. Yessenov (located in Aktau, Mangistau region), Kh. Dosmukhamedov Atyrau State University (located in Atyrau, Atyrau region) and M. Utemisov West Kazakhstan University (located in Uralsk, West Kazakhstan region) studying in multilingual groups in the 2nd-4th years. In terms of place of residence, survey participants represent four regions of the western region of Kazakhstan: West Kazakhstan, Aktobe, Atyrau and Mangistau. The average age of survey participants is 19.24 years. The vast majority of respondents (96.6%) study in the 3rd and 4th year, when training takes place in three languages. By gender, the number of female participants is almost twice as large as the number of men, which corresponds to the general situation in the universities under consideration for most of the specified specialties of multilingual education.

Table 1 demonstrates the frequencies (percentages) of the variables distributed among the research sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of residence (region)</td>
<td>West Kazakhstan region</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aktobe region</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atyrau region</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mangistau region</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>74.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE
We were also interested in how students from multilingual groups assess their level of English based on the international system for assessing language proficiency. According to Figure 1, the majority of respondents studying in multilingual groups (37%) define their level of English as Intermediate. Further, 23% of respondents characterize their level of English proficiency as Beginner or below intermediate (Pre-Intermediate). Only 12% of respondents consider their English proficiency to be above average, and 5% read that they have an advanced level. Thus, in general, students from multilingual groups do not rate their level of English highly. This point is especially important for us in the context of promoting the status of English as an international language and the implementation of the trilingual policy in Kazakhstan.

Figure 1. Level of English Language Proficiency

C. Data Collection

To clarify to what level the trilingual language policy is implemented in higher education, a sociolinguistic questionnaire was conducted among students of multilingual groups studying at four leading universities in the western region of Kazakhstan. The questionnaire was conducted in the spring of 2023. The questions were distributed online using Google Spreadsheets. The questionnaire contained closed-ended questions divided into three parts. The first part of the questionnaire was devoted to the role and status of the English language and how its promotion could affect the status of the state language. The next part was related to learning English as a foreign language and challenges connected with it. The third part of the questionnaire was related to the peculiarities of the functioning of the English language in a multilingual classroom. Informed consent was obtained from the respondents to take part in the study and to process the responses received.

D. Data Analysis

Data analysis was based on the statistical results of the questionnaire. The interpretations of the participants’ answers to the majority of questions were based on a Likert scale, which measures judgment as follows: 1 (I strongly disagree, or Never), 2 (I disagree, or Rarely), 3 (I neither agree nor disagree, or Sometimes), 4 (I agree, or Often), 5 (I strongly agree, or Always). The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data was carried out using IBM SPSS Statistics, which enabled obtaining frequencies and percentages for all the categories and subcategories in the three parts of the questionnaire.

IV. RESULTS

A. Status of the English Language

The first part of the questionnaire was devoted to the role and status of the English language and how its promotion could affect the status of the state language. The respondents were asked to express their views on the policy of promoting English in education. The majority of respondents expressed their approval of the policy of promoting English in the educational sector and the policy of promoting multilingual personnel to a large extent. They expressed their belief that learning English improves their competitiveness, which is why it should be the language of instruction at university. Also, according to the majority of respondents, learning English allows them to join the global academic community and opens access to world scientific research literature. As regards the role of English in the Republic of Kazakhstan, the majority of surveyed students from multilingual groups agree (62.3%) and completely agree (18.8%) that English is becoming increasingly popular in the country. Also, the overwhelming majority of respondents agree with the statements that knowledge of English is prestigious, brings economic benefits, provides an opportunity to get a good job and join the world community. Also, the majority of respondents did not agree with the statement that knowledge of English is not important to them. On the other hand, in questions about whether the English language is a threat to the development of the Kazakh language and Kazakh national identity and to the future of the Kazakh
language and culture, respondents’ opinions were divided: almost half of the respondents do not see a threat from the English language, while about a third of the respondents agreed with these statements.

In response to the question which language they consider the most prestigious, many respondents (41%) named English. The second most common answer is the Kazakh language (37%). Only 19% indicated the prestige of the Russian language. It is interesting that in the region that borders Russia, the prestige of the Russian language among students of multilingual groups is significantly lower than that of international English and state Kazakh. Perhaps this result is largely due to the direction of modern government policy towards strengthening these two languages in Kazakhstan.

The questionnaire participants were also asked what they considered to be an obstacle to more successful functional strengthening of the English language in Kazakhstan. The majority of respondents (40%) named the lack of textbooks, teaching aids and methodological literature in secondary schools, colleges and higher educational institutions as the main obstacle. The following significant obstacles (15%) were identified by the respondents as ignoring the lack of real trilingualism in plans to further strengthen the promotion of the English language, as well as the lack of specialists among civil servants who speak English at the level necessary to carry out official functions. 14% of the respondents chose the low level of scientific, methodological and expert support for the English language as an obstacle to more successful functional strengthening of the English language in Kazakhstan. 10% pointed to the small number and low quality of television and radio programs, magazines, feature and animated films produced in English. 6% of respondents saw the behavior of the political and managerial elite as an obstacle, which does not contribute to the active introduction of English into the political process and public administration. The answers to this question are presented in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Obstacles to Strengthening the English Language](image)

**B. Learning English as a Foreign Language**

The questions in this block are related to learning English as a foreign language. In response to the question about who they need to communicate with in English during their studies, the majority of respondents pointed to teachers (37%). Less common, but fairly evenly distributed, responses were co-workers (22%), friends (21%) and native speakers (18%). This indicates that during the learning process, students’ social circle is quite diverse, which should contribute to more successful mastery of such types of speech activities as speaking and listening. In response to the question about the importance of knowing English for further professional advancement, more than half of the respondents (58%) chose the “important” option and one third (33%) chose the “very important” option. This confirms the motivation of students from multilingual groups to learn English as a foreign language, since knowledge of English contributes to career growth.

Next, students were asked to select an important type of activity in English. The majority of respondents chose such speech skills as speaking (39%) and reading (35%). Interestingly, listening and writing were chosen significantly fewer times (16% and 10%, respectively). Based on this, we can conclude that speaking English is of great importance for professional activities (for example, the ability to give a report or presentation in English, etc.), and reading is one of the important aspects of speech activity in a foreign language (for example, reading news reports, newsletters, articles in magazines or newspapers, etc.).

In the following question, the respondents were asked whether they considered it necessary to improve their current English language skills. The vast majority (93%) of the respondents responded that they need to improve their English language skills. And only 7% of the respondents believe that their level of English is sufficient for study and work. In the next question, we asked the questionnaire participants why they needed to learn a foreign language. The most common answer (64%) was the opinion that the English language provides new information and contributes to the broadening of horizons. 26% of the respondents were confident that learning English is necessary to increase personal prestige and a sense of self-confidence. 10% answered that learning English contributes to their intellectual development.

The next question was devoted to the challenges that arise when learning English as a foreign language. When asked if they had ever experienced difficulties due to insufficient English language proficiency, 17% of the respondents answered “always”, 37.8% chose the answer “often”, 32% chose the answer “rarely” and 4% - “never”, while 9.3% found it difficult to answer. Figure 3 presents the respondents’ clarifications of what difficulties and to what extent they
encountered while learning English. Reading, according to the respondents, is the easiest type of speech activity, in which the least difficulties arise. This answer option was chosen by 28% of the respondents. Moreover, about a third of the survey participants described reading and listening in English as not difficult aspects, and the largest number of the respondents classified speaking in English as a rather difficult (51.7%) and very difficult (28.5%) type of speech activity. Writing caused significant difficulties for 44% of the respondents.

![Figure 3. Challenges in Learning English as a Foreign Language](image)

C. English in a Multilingual Classroom

The final part of the questionnaire was devoted to the specifics of the functioning of the English language and the related phenomenon of code switching. To begin with, we asked respondents how familiar they were with code switching as a form of multilingualism. Thus, 38% of the respondents answered that they agreed with the statement that the transition from Kazakh/Russian to English and vice versa is familiar to them, that is, they use it in their speech. At the same time, 46% expressed disagreement with this statement, that is, code switching in speech is not common for them. Consequently, many students of multilingual groups, in their opinion, are not yet familiar with the phenomenon of code switching as a form of multilingualism for them to use it in speech as a common phenomenon.

Conflicting responses have been received to statements about the impact of multilingualism on the status of languages. Thus, half of the surveyed students from multilingual groups (51%) agreed with the statement that the simultaneous use of Kazakh/Russian and English in speech leads to improvement of the English language. On the other hand, a significant number of respondents (28.5%) disagreed with this statement. More than a half of the respondents (65.3%) disagreed with the opinion that the simultaneous use of Kazakh/Russian and English in speech leads to a weakening of the English language. Nevertheless, 21% of the respondents still agreed with this statement. 35.3% of the surveyed students from multilingual groups agreed with the statement that the simultaneous use of Kazakh/Russian and English languages in speech leads to a weakening of the Kazakh/Russian language, while at the same time 45.8% of the respondents disagreed with this opinion. From these answers, we can conclude that in the perception of the majority of students from multilingual groups, mixing Kazakh or Russian with English in speech helps to strengthen the position of the English language. However, it is difficult to conclude how much the mixing of the languages can weaken the position of Russian or Kazakh languages. This point is controversial, but a slight preponderance is observed in favor of the fact that mixing languages does not negatively affect Russian or Kazakh.

In the next two questions, we wanted to clarify which format of classes suited the respondents more – classes using only English or classes using English and Kazakh/Russian languages. As the questionnaire results showed, the majority of students (60.3%) do not agree that classes should be conducted only in English, although 23% of respondents are not against this format of conducting classes. At the same time, three quarters of the surveyed students from multilingual groups agree (52.8%) or completely agree (25%) that classes should be conducted using English and Kazakh/Russian. It was also important for us to clarify the attitude of students from multilingual groups towards the use of multilingualism by other people in speech. As in the previous responses, in the answers to the questions whether the simultaneous use of Kazakh/Russian and English in speech is pleasant or annoying, there are differences of opinion. Thus, 42.8% of respondents like the simultaneous use of Kazakh/Russian and English languages in speech, while 30.5% of respondents indicated that they do not like mixing languages in speech. However, almost half of the respondents (47.5%) do not experience irritation when languages are mixed in speech. And also almost half of the respondents (46.3%) agree that they experience pleasure when they hear the Kazakh/Russian and English languages mixed in speech. But at the same time, a third (35.5%) of the respondents do not enjoy mixing languages in speech.

In the following five questions, the respondents answered whether the use of multilingualism affects the quality of their education at the university. More than a half (51.5%) of the surveyed students from multilingual groups agreed with the statement that mixing languages contributes to productive language acquisition. Almost a half of the respondents (48.3%) agreed that mixing languages helps them experience learning satisfaction. On the other hand, more than a half of respondents (54.8%) disagree with the statement that they feel less lost when switching from Kazakh/Russian to English or vice versa. At the same time, there is no clear opinion whether switching from English to Kazakh/Russian or vice versa helps to increase comfort in the learning process: 34.8% agree with this statement, while 35.5% disagree. A similar situation is observed with the response to the statement that switching from English to
Russian/Kazakh or vice versa reduces tension in the educational process: 47.5% of the respondents agree with this statement, while 40.5% of respondents disagree with it.

Regarding the influence of multilingualism on the quality of teaching English, students from multilingual groups demonstrated more unity of opinion. As shown in Figure 4, about a half of the respondents agreed that the simultaneous use of the Kazakh/Russian and English languages in speech helps them understand new words (44.3%) and difficult concepts (46.5%), comprehend English grammar (53%) and successfully complete the task given by the teacher (47.5%).

Using the next group of questions, we were able to clarify the respondents’ attitude towards the phenomenon of code switching as a form of multilingualism in education. We were primarily interested in how they felt about their teachers’ use of code switching. The vast majority of respondents indicated a positive attitude towards the use of code switching when explaining grammatical (77.8%) and lexical material (69.3%) and, in general, towards the fact that teachers can use Kazakh/Russian and English languages simultaneously in speech. Almost a half (49.3%) of the multilingual students surveyed generally view code switching as a positive phenomenon. The majority of respondents (54%) indicate that they do not avoid code switching in speech. Still, there is an interesting observation. While almost a half (47.8%) would like classroom assignments to include switching from Kazakh/Russian to English and vice versa, the respondents do not have a consensus on the use of three languages in homework, demonstrating virtually the same ratings for and against code switching in home assignments.

To summarize, the quantitative study of the status of the English language in multilingual higher education in Kazakhstan showed that, despite the active policy of promoting English as a means of international communication in the country, in general the level of English language proficiency remains average and below average. Although many students believe that knowledge of English is prestigious and promotes career advancement, English is still not a widely used language in Kazakhstan. At the same time, students from multilingual groups have not yet taken advantage of the benefits that multilingualism provides in learning a foreign language, and seem to not even have a clear understanding of the essence of code switching as a form of multilingualism in the educational context. Although they generally view code switching as a positive phenomenon, in many cases they do not have a strong and clearly stated opinion regarding the possibilities it offers.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the study, we see it necessary to discuss several issues regarding the role of the English language in multilingual higher education as a criterion of the effectiveness of the multilingual policy in Kazakhstan. The questionnaire data confirmed that in the field of higher education, as in other social spheres like popular culture (Gritsenko & Aleshinskaya, 2023) or language landscape (Utegenova et al., 2024), English has great prestige and is seen as a marker of professionalism (Gritsenko & Aleshinskaya, 2015) and a key to successful integration into the global educational space (Akynova et al., 2021). However, despite the generally positive attitudes towards the promotion of English in higher education (Kurmanova et al., 2023), we cannot conclude that the multilingual policy in Kazakhstan has been implemented successfully yet. In contrast to the conclusions drawn by Akynova et al. (2021), our study identified challenges that students from multilingual groups face in learning English as a foreign language. Apart from the lack of teaching and methodological materials mentioned by other scholars in relation to the primary and secondary education in Kazakhstan (Zhetpisbayeva et al., 2016; Karabassova, 2021), our respondents pointed to such essential reasons as the authorities ignoring the absence of real trilingualism in Kazakhstan and civil servants lacking the knowledge of English sufficient for conducting professional activities.

Another proof of the ineffectiveness of the current language policy in Kazakhstan is that, despite students’ high interest and motivation due to its prestige, English has still not acquired the status of a traditionally spoken language, remaining significant as a factor for professional growth (Tuleubayeva et al., 2021). A parallel can be drawn here with the distinction between artefactual and natural languages suggested by Pickel (2013). According to the scholar,
languages (Yang, 2023). Kazakh and Russian languages and cultures, providing potential opportunities for literacy development across the three languages (Yang, 2023).

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the present study was to explore the status of the English language in higher education in Kazakhstan as a criterion of the effectiveness of the trilingual policy adopted by the country’s leading universities. Using a sociolinguistic survey among students of multilingual groups, language preferences and features of the use of English in the field of multilingual education in Kazakhstan were studied; the role and status of the English language and the subjective attitudes of its use by students of multilingual groups were considered; and the features of the interaction of languages in the educational process were identified. The results of the study confirm the growing importance of the English language in the educational environment. The simultaneous use of Kazakh, Russian and English in the educational context is a reflection of the policy of trilingualism in education, aimed at training competitive specialists who are professionally fluent in the three languages. However, despite the active promotion of the English language by the government policy and students’ understanding of the importance and prestige of studying English, it is not used on an equal basis with the Kazakh and Russian languages and the level of its proficiency remains not very high.

Since multilingual groups are a relatively new phenomenon for Kazakhstan, the main area of using multilingualism remains the educational sphere. Moreover, many students learning in multilingual groups have not formed a clear attitude towards multilingualism and its impact on the educational process and the quality of language learning. As a result of the quantitative study of the specifics of the language situation in the field of multilingual education in Kazakhstan, gaps in the implementation of language policy were identified, primarily associated with an insufficiently clear understanding on the part of both students and teachers about the advantages and specifics of work in this area. As recommendations for improving the situation, it is possible to propose conducting training courses with teaching staff of universities involved in multilingual education to deepen their knowledge of teaching tools and proficiency in English. Furthermore, it is necessary to develop and implement into the educational process an automated system of multilingual online dictionaries and thesauruses containing terms of various branches of science in the three languages. This system should provide open access to a multilingual terminology database and ensure uniformity of terms across all industries, which is sure to contribute to the enhancement of the English language proficiency.

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A Comprehensive Study of Business Writing Competence Among Business Management Students at Techno Link College, Ethiopia

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Abstract—As businesses increasingly rely on written communication for various purposes, the ability to articulate ideas, convey information, and engage stakeholders through written mediums has become a vital competency. This study delves into the challenges faced by students when they write business letter, report and email in English at Techno Link College, Burayu Campus. The research aims to comprehensively analyze the issues surrounding business writing, exploring how students perceive and approach the learning of this crucial skill. To conduct this investigation, a mixed-methods approach was employed and both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were utilized. A sample of 165 students was randomly selected, and their insights were gathered through a survey questionnaire. The findings of the research revealed that the majority of the students struggle to master the art of effective business writing. The results show that the majority of students exhibited poor performance across these essential business communication tasks such as composing emails, letters and reports.

Index Terms—business writing, difficulty, email, letter, report

I. INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic landscape of global business, effective communication has emerged as a quintessential skill. The ability to articulate thoughts, ideas, and information with precision and clarity is crucial, particularly in the realm of business writing. Recognizing this, the study delves into the challenges faced by students at India’s Nazareth College of Arts and Science as they navigate the intricate world of writing for the commercial domain.

Business writing, a skill often considered ancillary in academic curricula, is increasingly gaining prominence as a vital talent in the professional arena. The research aims to dissect the multifaceted issues encountered by students when tasked with communicating through diverse business writing formats. By understanding the hurdles faced by these students, we hope to shed light on effective strategies for educators and institutions to enhance the development of this essential skill. Business communication has evolved significantly, with a shift towards a globalized marketplace. As such, the ability to communicate effectively in writing has become indispensable for aspiring professionals. The abstract highlights the significance of written communication skills in the business context and addresses the struggles faced by students at Nazareth College of Arts and Science in mastering business writing. However, a notable research gap exists in the absence of a detailed examination of the root causes behind the observed poor performance. Researches which have been conducted in the same area lack an exploration of specific challenges encountered by students, hindering a nuanced understanding of the deficiencies in their business writing abilities. Addressing these gaps would facilitate the

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development of targeted interventions and improvements in business writing education. Therefore, this study focuses specifically on investigating Nazareth College of Arts and Science students’ business writing skills.

The primary objective of this research is to examine the challenges that students encounter while learning and practicing business writing. To achieve this goal, the researchers employed a comprehensive approach, combining quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Through student surveys, the researchers sought to measure students’ business writing skills.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The extensive body of literature on business writing highlights the significance of honing effective communication skills in organizations. A number of scholars and practitioners have contributed insights and strategies to improve writing proficiency in various business contexts. The significance of effective business writing has become increasingly manifest in contemporary professional environments. As organizations rely heavily on written communication, the ability to convey ideas, information, and proposals coherently and persuasively has become a fundamental skill.

Bernoff (2016) assessed the impact of poor business writing. The study highlights the financial consequences of poor writing skills on organizations. Bernoff emphasized the urgency for organizations to prioritize effective communication to maintain productivity and financial health. Blake and Bly (1991) provided a comprehensive understanding of the building blocks necessary for effective communication. Students can develop a strong base for navigating various business writing tasks by emphasizing these foundational elements. McCormick and Hemphill (2000) offered a theoretical framework that connects the principles of communication to the practical context of business writing. This integration can provide students with a deeper understanding of the rationale behind effective business communication strategies.

Guffey and Du-Babcock (2010) investigated essential concepts and practical applications; their work aligns with the multifaceted nature of business writing. This foundational resource can support students in gaining a holistic understanding of the various dimensions of business communication. Lentz (2013) contributed valuable insights into the implications for business writing pedagogy. Lentz’s work provides a bridge between academic learning and real-world application by focusing on workplace practices. This connection is crucial for educators seeking to prepare students for the practical demands of business writing in professional settings. Zinsser (2006) explored the elements of style, clarity, and grace in business writing. He emphasized the importance of clear and graceful expression. These concepts are foundational for effective business communication that enhances business writing proficiency. Davis et al. (2000) delved into the theoretical underpinnings of business by incorporating practical exercises that aimed at improving writing skills. Regular engagement in writing practice could benefit students who face challenges in business writing.

Gale (2014) found that students struggled with composing well-organized, concise English letters, emails, and reports and he provided some practical principles for enhancing business writing skills. According to Gale, effective business writing is rooted in clarity, conciseness, and purpose. Gale’s insights contribute to the understanding that proficiency in business writing requires a strategic approach, focusing on the essential elements that make communication effective in a professional setting. Garner (2012) explored that students’ business writing skills including emails, letters, and reports are poor. Therefore, he suggested that educators should engage in regular writing practice to enhance their writing skills.

Tanviboolaya (2014) explored the challenges faced by employees at Electronics Sthce Co., Ltd., in their business English writing skills. According to him, emails should be clear, concise, and tailored to the audience’s language proficiency. Considering the potential language barriers highlighted in the research, students should focus on simplicity and directness to ensure effective communication.

Thep-Ackrapong (2005) emphasized on potential challenges faced by report writers. According to Thep-Ackrapong, a report needs to be structured in a way that aids comprehension, utilizing clear headings and concise language. Besides, reports should be designed to guide readers through complex information, ensuring that even challenging topics are presented in an accessible manner. According to Williams (1990) and Zinsser (2006), emails should adopt a clear and graceful style to ensure that the message is easily understood. Reports which follow a well-crafted writing style enhance the document’s overall impact. Both authors stress the importance of simplicity which helps the writers convey their messages with clarity and elegance. Prapawuttikul (2004) investigated the English writing and speaking needs analysis of MIT support staff that provides valuable insights for effective email communication. Understanding the specific language requirements is crucial for tailoring emails to meet the needs of diverse support staff. Prapawuttikul stated that email writers should adapt their language and content based on the identified communication gaps to ensure clarity and comprehension.

Ramesh (2018) studied the enrichment of legal vocabulary skills and enhancement of legal writing and advocacy skills among law students to offer guidance for report writing, particularly in the legal field. According to him, reports in legal contexts demand precision and a rich vocabulary. The study suggests that a tailored approach to skill development can significantly impact the quality of legal reports, emphasizing the importance of adapting content to the specific needs of the audience. Santithaworning (2015) focused on problems in English communication skills between Thai and Japanese staff in a Thai-Japanese leasing company that highlights the significance of effective communication in a multicultural workplace. According to Santithaworning email and report writing involve considering the cultural nuances and language differences identified in the study. Therefore, students should strive for clarity and sensitivity in
cross-cultural communication to minimize misunderstandings and foster effective collaboration within multinational teams.

Srisitanon (2009) addressed intercultural challenges in written communication that involve adopting a culturally sensitive approach. According to him, students can benefit from understanding the specific intercultural communication barriers identified in the study to ensure that emails and reports are not only grammatically correct but also culturally appropriate which contributes to successful communication within a diverse corporate environment.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study utilized a sample of 165 business management students through a simple random sampling technique that reflects the diversity of the student population at Techno Link College. Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods (survey questionnaire) were employed to ensure a holistic understanding of the challenges faced by these students. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS Version 26.

IV. RESULT

SPSS Version 26 and Excel were utilized in order to analyze the data gathered from a primary source. Then the analyzed data is interpreted and discussed systematically.

Q1. “I face difficulty in logically organizing my ideas when I write emails in English.”

Table 1 presents a comprehensive overview of respondents’ perceptions regarding the difficulty they face in logically organizing their ideas when writing emails in English. The majority of the participants, 76.5% (41.3% agreed and 35.2% strongly agreed that they face challenges in this specific aspect of English email writing. This indicates that a substantial majority acknowledges the difficulty of organizing ideas coherently in their English email correspondence. Conversely, 15.8% of respondents (6.7% strongly disagreed and 9.1% disagreed) that they face difficulties in organizing ideas when writing emails in English. 8.5% of respondents neither strongly agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Overall, the results from this table stress a prevalent difficulty among respondents in logically organizing ideas when writing emails in English.

Q2. “I face difficulty in using a wide range of vocabulary in my emails writing.”

Table 2 provides an insightful perspective on the respondents’ views regarding the difficulty they encounter in using a wide range of vocabulary in their email writing. 9.1% of the participants strongly disagreed and 11.5% of respondents disagreed that they face difficulty in using a diverse vocabulary in their email writing. This indicates only a small number of the respondents feel confident in their ability to incorporate varied language in their written communication and use an appropriate and wide range of vocabularies. The “Neutral” category represents 7.3% of respondents. These respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they face challenges in employing a broad vocabulary. The majority of respondents, comprising 72.1% (31.5% agreed and 40.6% strongly agreed that they struggle with utilizing a wide range of vocabulary in their email writing. This shows that a significant proportion of individuals feel limited in their ability to express ideas with diverse language. The findings from this table suggest a need for vocabulary development initiatives, especially in the context of email writing. To address the identified difficulty, educational programs or workplace training sessions could focus on expanding participants’ vocabulary and providing tools and strategies to diversify language use. Additionally, considering the diversity in respondents’ perspectives, personalized approaches may be beneficial in catering to varying levels of vocabulary proficiency and addressing individual needs effectively.

Q3. “I face difficulty in using correct grammar during my email writing.”
Figure 1 presents an insightful overview of respondents' sentiments regarding the challenge of using correct grammar in their email writing. 9.1% and 10.3% of respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively that they have confidence in their ability to use correct grammar in email writing. This suggests a notable portion of participants who feel proficient at applying grammatical rules, highlighting a degree of grammatical proficiency within the surveyed group. 7.9% of respondents indicate neither agreed nor disagreed with facing difficulties in using correct grammar. This group may include individuals who feel moderately challenged by grammatical aspects or those who hold an indifferent stance, showcasing diversity in experiences and attitudes toward grammatical accuracy. The majority of respondents, constituting 41.2% and 31.5% of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that they struggle with using correct grammar in their email writing. This substantial percentage highlights that a significant proportion of individuals perceive difficulties in maintaining grammatical accuracy. The majority of respondents regarding challenges in maintaining grammatical correctness in their email communication. This implies a potential area for targeted educational interventions or workplace training programs to enhance participants' grammatical skills in the context of email writing. The findings from Figure 1 suggest a considerable need for interventions aimed at improving grammatical proficiency, particularly in the context of email writing. Educational curriculum could be designed to provide students with the necessary tools and strategies to enhance their grammar skills. Recognizing the diversity in respondents' perspectives, personalized approaches may be beneficial in addressing varying levels of grammatical proficiency and catering to individual needs effectively. Besides, the results emphasize the importance of integrating grammar-focused modules into language education or professional development programs to empower individuals with the skills needed for effective written communication. According to Lamessa et al. (2024) stated, “the capacity to generate ideas and edit one's written language for grammatical, stylistic, organizational, and other aspects is essential to the development of writing as a skill” (p. 7).

Q4. “I face difficulty use appropriate words when I write business letters.”
Figure 2 provides a comprehensive view of respondents' perceptions regarding the difficulty they face in using appropriate words when writing business letters. 8.5% of participants strongly disagreed and 11.5% of participants disagreed with the statement that they face difficulty in using appropriate words when writing business letters. This indicates a notable portion of participants who feel adept at choosing a suitable language for their written communication, showcasing a level of proficiency in vocabulary selection. 6.7% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they face difficulties in using appropriate words in business letters. This group may include individuals who feel challenged in word selection or those who hold an indifferent stance, revealing diversity in experiences and attitudes toward vocabulary used in this specific context. The majority of respondents 37.6% agreed and 35.8% strongly agreed that they struggle with using appropriate words when writing business letters. This substantial percentage highlights a widespread recognition that a significant proportion of individuals perceive challenges in accurately choosing words for effective communication in a business letter format. The majority of respondents face challenges in using appropriate words when composing business letters. The findings from Table 4 suggest a considerable need for interventions aimed at improving word selection skills, particularly in the context of business letters. Business writing courses could focus on providing learners with the necessary tools and strategies to enhance their vocabulary and select appropriate words for professional written communication. Recognizing the diversity in respondents' perspectives, personalized approaches may be beneficial in addressing varying levels of vocabulary proficiency and catering to individual needs effectively. Additionally, the results emphasize the importance of integrating specific modules on word choice into language education or professional development programs to empower individuals with the skills needed for effective written communication in a business context.

Q5. “I do not care about spellings and grammar when writing business letters.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>100</td>
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</table>

Table 3 presents the respondents' opinions on the statement, "I do not care about spellings and grammar when writing business letters." 17 respondents (10.3%), strongly disagreed with the statement. This suggests that a small number of the participants place a high importance on spelling and grammar when composing business letters. These individuals likely prioritize effective communication and professionalism in their written correspondence. 15 respondents (9.1%), disagreed with the statement. This indicates that this is not high prioritization. 6 respondents (9.1%), were neutral. This group neither agreed nor disagreed about the importance of spelling and grammar in business letters. 63 respondents (38.2%) agreed with the statement. These participants do not understand the importance of spelling and grammar in their business letters. It shows that in their writing they potentially emphasize other aspects of business content over linguistic accuracy. 56 respondents (33.9%) strongly agreed with the statement. This indicates that a significant number of participants prioritize content or other factors over careful attention to spelling and grammar when composing business letters.

Q6. “I face difficulty make my business letters clear and concise.”
Figure 3 provides insights into respondents' experiences regarding the clarity and conciseness of their business letters. The survey asked participants to express their opinions on facing difficulty in making their business letters clear and concise. A substantial portion of the respondents (33.9%) strongly agreed that they encounter difficulty in achieving clarity and conciseness in their business letters. This suggests that a significant number of the surveyed population face challenges in ensuring their communications are both clear and concise, highlighting potential areas for improvement in their business writing skills. And 38.2% of respondents agreed they face difficulties in achieving clarity and conciseness. On the contrary, 7.3% of respondents strongly disagreed that they face difficulties in making their business letters clear and concise. This suggests a minority perspective among participants who feel confident in their ability to create business letters that are both clear and concise. Similarly, 9.7% of respondents disagreed that they face challenges in business letter clarity and conciseness. This group likely acknowledges the importance of clear and concise communication but may feel that they do not encounter significant difficulties in achieving these goals. 10.9% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that they face challenges associated with making business letters clear and concise. In general, a substantial portion of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that they face difficulties in ensuring clarity and conciseness in their business letters.

Q7. “I face difficulty in keeping the proper structure of the paragraphs when I write business reports.”

Figure 4 sheds light on the respondents' challenges related to maintaining the proper structure of paragraphs when writing business reports. The survey prompted participants to share their opinions on this matter. A majority of respondents, 38.8%, strongly agreed that they face difficulties in maintaining the proper structure of paragraphs in their
business reports. They acknowledge that they face challenges in structuring content effectively within the context of business report writing, indicating a potential area for improvement in the skills of the surveyed population. In addition, 35.8% of respondents agreed they face difficulties in maintaining proper paragraph structure, though not to the extent of those who strongly agree with the notion of facing difficulties in keeping the proper structure of paragraphs in business reports. In contrast, a smaller proportion, 9.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed with the notion of facing difficulties in keeping the proper structure of paragraphs in business reports. These participants feel confident in their ability to maintain the appropriate structure in their written reports. Similarly, 8.5% of respondents disagreed with the statement about difficulties in maintaining paragraph structure in business reports. This group acknowledges the importance of proper structure but may feel that they do not encounter significant challenges in this aspect of report writing. 7.3% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. In summary, a considerable majority of respondents either agree or strongly agree that they face challenges in maintaining the proper structure of paragraphs when writing business reports. This highlights a widespread recognition of difficulties in this specific aspect of business writing.

Q8. “I do not know the proper components of report writing.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>FACING DIFFICULTY IN UNDERSTANDING THE PROPER COMPONENTS OF REPORT WRITING</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opinion</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<td>Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 presents the respondents' feedback regarding the statement, "I do not know the proper components of reports writing." The majority of respondents, 38.8%, strongly agreed that they encounter challenges in understanding the proper components of reports writing. This shows that many participants experience difficulties in organizing their written content effectively. Additionally, 35.8% of respondents agreed they struggle to recognize the proper components of report writing. On the contrary, 9.7% of respondents strongly disagreed and 8.5% disagreed respectively with the statement. These respondents believe that they do not face challenges in understanding the proper components of report writing. Moreover, 7.3% of respondents expressed a neutral stance, suggesting a group that neither agreed nor disagreed significantly. It indicates a notable portion of respondents know the proper components of reports writing. In summary, the data from Table 8 highlights a widespread acknowledgment among the respondents regarding challenges in maintaining the proper structure of paragraphs in business reports. The majority either agree or strongly agree with the statement, emphasizing the need for potential interventions or support mechanisms to enhance the participants' skills in this aspect of business writing.

Q9. “I face difficulty in writing business reports with clear sentences and plain language.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>FACING DIFFICULTY IN WRITING BUSINESS REPORTS WITH CLEAR SENTENCES AND PLAIN LANGUAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opinion</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 provides insights into respondents' perceptions regarding the statement, "I face difficulty in writing business reports with clear sentences and plain language." 73.9% of respondents (40.6% agreed and 33.3% strongly agreed that they encounter challenges in constructing business reports with clear sentences and plain language. This indicates that remarkable participants face difficulty in writing in a straightforward manner. Conversely, 8.5% of respondents strongly disagreed and 10.3% disagreed with the statement, indicating participants who feel confident in writing business reports with clear sentences and plain language. Besides, 7.3% of the respondents were neutral. The data from Table 5 shows the importance of addressing challenges in writing with clear sentences and plain language among the surveyed population. A substantial portion of respondents need targeted interventions, training, or resources to enhance their skills in crafting business reports.

Q10. “I do not proofread my business report after writing it.”
students. This finding suggests a need for targeted interventions to enhance paragraph construction skills among business respondents struggled with constructing adequately organized paragraphs while writing reports and emails in English. Overall, the majority of respondents were neutral that neither agreed nor disagreed. The data from Table 10 highlights a significant trend among the surveyed population of not prioritizing proofreading in the business report writing process. This finding underlines the potential need for interventions, training, or awareness campaigns to emphasize the importance of proofreading for accuracy, clarity, and overall quality in business communication. Improving proofreading habits could contribute to enhancing the professionalism and effectiveness of written business reports.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of the investigation revealed numerous challenges experienced by business students in the domain of business writing. A substantial number of respondents expressed difficulties in various facets of business writing, including email, letters, and report composition. A significant finding of the study was the widespread struggle among students when it comes to utilizing proper language in emails. The findings indicated that many students faced challenges in both sending and receiving emails in English, showing a gap in proficiency that may hinder their future professional endeavors. Another remarkable finding was the difficulty in composing well-organized, concise English business letters. This skill, often overlooked, is crucial for effective communication in the business world. The study highlighted the need for focused attention on this aspect of business writing in educational curricula. The challenges extended to more complex forms of business writing, particularly in report composition. Overall, the majority of respondents struggled with constructing adequately organized paragraphs while writing reports and emails in English. This finding suggests a need for targeted interventions to enhance paragraph construction skills among business students.

VI. CONCLUSION

Effective business writing is a multifaceted skill that requires a combination of theoretical understanding, practical application, and strategic thinking. The study sheds light on the challenges faced by business students at Nazareth College of Arts and Science when navigating the intricacies of business writing. The majority of respondents struggled with constructing effectively organized paragraphs while writing business letter, reports and emails in English. The findings emphasize the need for a targeted and multifaceted approach to business writing instruction. Understanding the challenges faced by business students at Nazareth College of Arts and Science opens the door to crucial implications for educators and institutions. The study emphasizes the importance of regular writing practice. Therefore, engaging students in consistent writing exercises, both inside and outside the classroom, can significantly contribute to the improvement of their business writing skills. The findings highlight the necessity for a comprehensive approach to business writing instruction. Educators should consider diversifying writing assignments to expose students to various formats and styles of business writing. This approach can help students develop a versatile skill set that aligns with the diverse demands of the professional world. Students dealing with the complexities of composing emails, letters, and reports can benefit from the holistic approach. Moreover, the emphasis is on regular writing practice. Proficiency in business writing is a skill that can be developed and refined over time.

Future research should delve into the complexities of these challenges, examining whether they stem from insufficient training, curriculum gaps, individual skill disparities, or other contributing factors. Additionally, there is a need for comparative research to assess how the identified challenges align with industry expectations, providing insights into whether academic programs adequately prepare students for the demands of real-world business communication. Addressing these gaps would facilitate the development of targeted interventions and improvements in business writing education.

REFERENCES


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Abstract—This study aims to investigate how higher education instructors perceive remote teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic and how prepared they were technologically to implement blended teaching in the wake of the epidemic. A quantitative approach was used, and information was gathered from 53 instructors at a Vietnam national university using questionnaires. The findings indicate that workload is the most difficult obstacle teachers face when teaching remotely, followed by issues on virtual communication with students, teachers' challenges in effectively employing technology in the classroom, and mental health issues due to social distancing. Despite encountering these challenges, most of the experiment's educators strongly endorse the adoption of blended teaching in response to the epidemic, expressing confidence in their technological readiness facilitated by institutional training. The results show that in order for higher education institutions to successfully adopt blended learning in the future, they need to be concerned with lowering the burden of their teachers, giving them training courses on technology pedagogy and providing stress management workshops.

Index Terms—language teaching, technological preparedness, blended teaching, post COVID-19

I. INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has marked the onset of a digital transformation in higher education. The crisis prompted rapid developments in higher education that would typically take years to evolve due to varying management regulations (Strielkowski, 2020). The governments have advocated for a shift from in-person to online instruction during the pandemic. Consequently, the education industry must now adapt to new operational procedures and pedagogical approaches (Sangrà et al., 2012; Corlatean, 2020). Almost all higher education institutions (HEIs) in Vietnam have inevitably adopted online and hybrid learning modalities in response to the pandemic.

Since its inception in February 2021, online instruction has presented both opportunities and challenges for online teaching and learning (OTL). HEI stakeholders made the decision to swiftly implement emergency remote teaching due to a lack of time to undertake necessary restructuring of the subjects to be taught and studied. This decision has had a profound impact on all aspects of education, including institutional management, pedagogical practices, and assessment procedures (García-Peñalvo et al., 2020). In order to adeptly utilize contemporary technologies for emergency remote instruction, a considerable number of higher education (HE) instructors have already undergone ICT training (Rizakhojayeva et al., 2021). Since assessment is integral to the teaching and learning process, HEI stakeholders encountered significant challenges in maintaining assessment integrity in the context of the pandemic. Research suggests that learners' digital competencies do not hinder the implementation of online assessments; instead, successful online assessments rely on meticulous planning and supportive guidelines (Cruz et al., 2013).

HEI stakeholders should immediately implement emergency remote teaching because they do not have enough time to consider a necessary restructuring of the subjects to be taught and studied. This decision had an impact on all aspects of education, including institutional management, pedagogical practices, and assessment procedures (García-Peñalvo et al., 2020). In order to become proficient in the contemporary technologies of emergency remote instruction, a large number of higher education instructors have already received ICT training (Rizakhojayeva et al., 2021). Therefore, it is crucial to recognize that opinions regarding the practice and preparedness for OTL held by HEIs teachers are complex. Given the swift transition to fully online instruction, significant modifications to instructional methods are required. These changes in OTL practice, as well as the willingness of stakeholders to engage in pedagogical and institutional reforms, are influenced by various factors, including individual, institutional, and cultural considerations. Furthermore, given the diverse backgrounds and OTL practices of HEIs teachers, these factors may not have the same impact on all educators. We undertook this study with the aim of addressing the following research questions:

1. What perceptions do instructors hold regarding their experience of teaching remotely during the pandemic?
2. What level of technological readiness do teachers believe they possess for blended learning (BL) in the post-COVID era?
3. What are the correlations between teachers’ technological readiness and the factors of teachers’ self-efficacy in using ITC and factor of institutional technological readiness?
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Distance Learning and Blended Learning

In recent years in the education sector, the emphasis has dramatically changed from face-to-face learning to distance learning. Increased knowledge and/or behavior resulting from mediated experiences constrained by time and/or distance, when the learner does not share the same circumstances as what is being learned, is what Dhawan (2020) described as distant learning. Asserting the outstanding advantages compared to traditional teaching models, distance learning brings tremendous benefits and opportunities for HEI (Lai et al., 2016). With the adoption of technological pedagogical developments, the content of distance learning has become more intuitive, easy to understand, and easy to access (McConnell et al., 2013). This learning method helps learners gradually build a sense of self-study and self-improvement, and thus enhances the effectiveness of the learning process (Lai et al., 2016; Mulig & Rhame, 2012). In addition, Gurajena et al. (2021) argued that online learning provides more effective methods of communication for both teachers and learners.

The epidemic gave an opportunity for academic institutions to try out e-learning and BL. This possibility may also change students’ and lecturers' attitudes toward e-learning, thereby reducing resistance (Mashwama et al., 2018; Mbunge, 2018). Since the 2000s, BL has appeared in many countries around the world, such as in North America, Western Europe, Asia and Australia. Organized form of blended teaching has merged the advantages of online teaching and traditional teaching. It is emerging as the dominant teaching model of the future (Watson, 2008). BL classes, according to Picciano (2009), are ones in which some face-to-face time is substituted with online activity and in which traditional face-to-face class activities and online activities are blended in a structured, pedagogically valuable manner. Moreover, Bliuc et al. (2007) defined BL as a term that describes learning activities combining face-to-face interactions with technologically mediated interactions between students, teachers, and learning materials. This definition embraces the two concepts of BL: a pedagogically based process and a course that includes both face-to-face and online components (Alammary et al., 2014).

B. Blended Learning Models

According to Victoria (2003), learners participate in the learning process in the form of face-to-face learning in class (groups, individuals, seminars, conferences), combined with the form of combination via the Internet (chat, blog, forum) and self-study at home (online, offline, spatially independent). BL models bring great benefits such as creating flexibility for both teachers and learners, enabling introverted learners to be more confident in the learning process, allowing teachers to easily connect with learners regardless of geographical distance and learning time can be relatively flexible (Graham, 2012).

Among twelve different kinds of BL models, Horn and Stake (2014) suggested that based on the class’s characteristics and the students’ and the teacher’s roles, the BL classroom models can be classified into six common types: Station rotation model; Lab rotation model; Enriched Virtual model; Flex model; Flipped classroom model; Individual rotation model.

The above BL models are relatively commonly applied in high schools. Thereby, we present additional views from other researchers who developed supplementary BL approaches for higher education teachers. As stated by Alammary et al. (2014), he suggested 3 different BL design approaches: low- impact, medium-impact and high-impact blends according to the potential changes to the existing teaching program and student learning experience. Then the author describes the benefits and the challenges of applying each approach and provides recommendations about when and how each approach should be used. Figure 1 presents a summary of Alammary et al.’s (2014) approaches, by which the author emphasized that selecting a BL design approach should be made with great concern on a number of important factors. It is recommended that educators who are new to BL begin with the low-impact strategy. They ought to switch to the medium-impact blend once they have increased their understanding, self-assurance, and expertise. When using the medium-impact technique, educators might pursue the high-impact approach after setting up a backup plan for a few semesters to become more familiar with technology and their courses (Alammary et al., 2014).
C. Literature on Teachers’ Technological Readiness, External and Internal Factors Influencing ICT Use in Education

Recent research has underscored the importance of comprehending teachers’ digital literacy alongside the internal and external factors shaping their utilization of ICT in education. The following presents a concise literature review of pivotal constructs pertinent to this investigation, drawing from the insightful contributions of Eshet-Alkalai (2004), Fu (2013), and Ribble (2015). These include access to IT resources, computer skills readiness, digital communication readiness, as well as two influential factors impacting teachers’ IT utilization: the internal factor of teacher self-efficacy and the external factor of institutional technological readiness.

**Table 1: Key Constructs in Teachers’ Digital Literacy and Factors Influencing ICT Utilization**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Supporting Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ICT access resources</td>
<td>Individual’s ability of to find, retrieve, and utilize digital materials and information by using technology</td>
<td>Eshet-Alkalai (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Computer skill readiness</td>
<td>The degree to which an individual is equipped to use computers to carry out various IT tasks</td>
<td>Fu (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Digital communication readiness</td>
<td>Individual’s readiness in using digital platforms to communicate, collaborate, and exchange information</td>
<td>Ribble (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ICT Self-efficacy</td>
<td>Individual’s ability and aptitude to actively participate in ICT learning activities without external guidance or supervision</td>
<td>Fu (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived institutional technological readiness</td>
<td>Individual’s perception or opinion on how well-equipped organization is for its members to accept and use technology to fulfill its aims and objectives</td>
<td>Fu (2013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recent research has increasingly focused on comprehending teachers' technological readiness, alongside the internal and external factors shaping their utilization of ICT in teaching. The following presents a concise literature review of pivotal constructs pertinent to this investigation, drawing from the insightful contributions of Eshet-Alkalai (2004), Fu (2013), and Ribble (2015). These include access to IT resources, computer skills readiness, digital communication readiness, as well as two influential factors impacting teachers’ IT utilization: the internal factor of teacher self-efficacy and the external factor of institutional technological readiness.

(a) Access to IT Resources

Eshet-Alkalai (2004) highlights access to IT resources as an individual’s capacity to utilize technology for searching, retrieving, and utilizing digital documents and information. The author underscores these skills as pivotal in the
contemporary digital era, essential for global citizens. Moreover, the author emphasizes that teachers’ capability to integrate technology into the teaching and learning process significantly hinges on their access to IT resources.

(b). Computer Skills Readiness

Fu (2013) defines computer skills readiness as the extent to which an individual is proficient in using a computer for various IT tasks. This proficiency holds crucial significance in integrating IT within the increasingly prevalent digital education landscape. Teachers possessing advanced computer skills are better positioned to effectively harness technology in supporting instructional objectives.

c). Digital Communication Readiness

Digital communication readiness refers to an individual's preparedness to utilize digital platforms for communication, collaboration, and information exchange. Ribble (2015) asserts that contemporary digital citizens must possess adept communication skills in digital environments. Particularly for educators, proficiency in digital communication facilitates collaboration and interaction with students and colleagues within the learning environment, particularly in online settings.

d). ICT Self-Efficacy

ICT self-efficacy or self-directed IT learning skills denote an individual's ability to actively engage in IT learning activities autonomously. Fu (2013) accentuates the significance of self-directed learning in IT integration among educators. Educators with robust self-directed ICT learning skills are more inclined to adapt to new technologies and engage in continual professional development to enhance their digital literacy.

(e). Teacher’s Perceived Institutional Technological Readiness

An individual's perception of an organization's technological readiness reflects their assessment of the organization's preparedness for members to embrace and utilize technology in fulfilling its objectives. Fu (2013) discusses the pivotal role of organizational support and infrastructure in facilitating IT integration within educational contexts. Teachers’ perceptions of their institution's technological readiness influence their confidence and propensity to adopt technology-enhanced teaching methodologies.

In summary, the literature review on teachers' digital literacy and the factors shaping their ICT utilization underscores the multifaceted nature of digital competencies and their interplay with external contextual factors. Investigating the correlations among these constructs is vital for comprehending teachers' perceptions and perspectives, thereby facilitating effective ICT integration and enhancing teaching and learning outcomes in the digital age.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Data Collection and Participants

This quantitative study was conducted in December 2021 by giving questionnaires to 72 teachers to collect data on their experience and perspective in online teaching and blended teaching. The questionnaire using Google Form was designed with 19 questions related to the topic. Snowball sampling was employed due to time limitation and the convenience of the data collection process. The questionnaire was then sent to participants by email and social media. Among 72 participants receiving our survey request, 53 respondents sent back their answers. With a limited scale of data collection, the study is still expected to provide a general description of foreign language teaching practice during the pandemic and the teachers' perception on the future of BL in the post-COVID time.

B. Instrument and the Questionnaire

Quantitative method is mainly used to identify the descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation analysis is employed to examine the associations between teachers’ readiness towards blended teaching and other factors. The questionnaire consists of five demographic variables (academic department, gender, age, teaching experience and education); nine variables concerned with online teaching practice during the pandemic and blended teaching models they support. There are five more variables delivered in a five-point Likert-type response format to assess the participants' perceived technological readiness towards blended teaching in post-COVID time. The sections of the questionnaire were as follows:

(1) Online teaching practices: This section aimed to gather insights into participants' experiences and practices related to online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. It encompassed inquiries about the utilization of learning management systems (LMS), methods of student communication, preferred video conferencing platforms (such as Google Meet, Zoom, and MS Teams), and the time allocated for lesson preparation.

(2) Teacher’s Technological Readiness: This segment was designed to assess teachers' perceived preparedness for blended teaching, focusing on their familiarity with digital communication tools, access to technological resources, and capacity for independent ICT learning.

(3) Teaching Preferences: This section delved into participants' preferences regarding teaching modalities post-COVID, with a particular emphasis on BL models and traditional in-person instruction.
The questionnaire underwent rigorous examination to ensure its relevance, clarity, and alignment with the study’s objectives. Pilot testing may have been conducted to validate the effectiveness of the questionnaire in eliciting insightful responses and identifying any ambiguities or inconsistencies. Upon completion of the questionnaire design, potential participants were informed of its availability via email and social media platforms. Given the constraints of time and convenience, snowball sampling was employed to recruit participants, facilitating the efficient collection of data from a diverse pool of respondents.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Participants’ Socio-Demographic Profile

The respondents are from different foreign language faculties, the proportion of which is stated in Table 2 below showing the socio-demographic profile of the participants with a majority of female teachers (88.7%), mostly from the age range of 36-45 (50.9%). This implies that most participants belong to the group who is less confident in using online teaching technology as confirmed by Cooper (2006) who mentioned that women in general are less confident and more anxious in using technology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>88.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Below 35 years old</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-45 years old</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-55 years old</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Above 55 years old</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of teaching</td>
<td>Under 3 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-8 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9-15 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Professor/ Associate Professor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nearly half of the respondents (43.4%) have more than 15 years of teaching experience representing that most faculty are competent in the teaching profession. In addition, most of the respondents (66%) own a master degree and 32.1% of them are Ph.D. This ratio is reasonably reflecting the education background of foreign language teachers in the university on a whole.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of English Language Teacher Education</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Japanese Language and Culture</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Russian Language and Culture</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of French Language and Culture</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty of Chinese Language and Culture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in Table 3, most of the participants come from different foreign language departments. Many of them are English teachers (33.9%) who come from the Faculty of English Language Teacher Education and the Faculty of English. This indicates that these faculties have the highest number of faculty in this university as English is the most popular foreign language in HEI in Vietnam.

B. Teachers’ Perception of Their Online Teaching Practices

Table 4 below provides a comprehensive overview of survey responses pertaining to online teaching practices. It outlines the usage of various video conferencing platforms, with Google Meet and Zoom being equally popular at 30.2%, followed by Microsoft Teams at 5.7%. Additionally, the data highlights the prevalence of Learning Management Systems (LMS), with 58.5% of respondents incorporating them into their online teaching. Various methods of contacting students are reported, with Zalo and Zalo Groups being the most utilized at 49.1%. Moreover, the table delineates the extent of training undertaken by participants, with 49.1% engaging in more than four online teaching courses. Insights into lesson preparation time reveal that 35.8% of respondents spend less than two hours, while 30.2% allocate more than three hours. Notably, a substantial majority (79.2%) find that preparing online lessons demands more time compared to traditional teaching modalities.
Table 4
Survey Responses on Online Teaching Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Video conferencing and application usage in online teaching</td>
<td>Google Meet</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zoom</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MS Teams</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 combine video conferencing with 1-2 apps</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 combine video conferencing with 3 or more apps</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage of LMS in online teaching</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of contacting students</td>
<td>Zalo + Zalo Group</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facebook + Messenger Group</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LMS forum</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (Email, Line, Whatsapp…)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of training courses in online teaching</td>
<td>1 or 2 courses</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 or 4 courses</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 4 courses</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time taken to prepare a lesson</td>
<td>Less than 1 hour</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less than 2 hours</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less than 3 hours</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 3 hours</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison of lesson preparation time to traditional teaching modality</td>
<td>More time</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal time</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less time</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total of 53 respondents, 31/53 teachers have applied LMS into online teaching, accounting for 58.5%. Thus, up to 41.5% of teachers do not use LMS in their online teaching. The fact that a large number of teachers who are not ready for applying LMS in foreign language teaching shows that teachers may face certain difficulties in terms of technological competence or they might have problems adapting to distance teaching in an emergent time of pandemic.

In Table 4, the teachers agree that it takes them more than 3 hours to prepare for each lesson with 30.2% of the respondents supporting this idea and 35.8% of the teachers spent from 2 to 3 hours to prepare for an online teaching session. 79.2% of lecturers reveal that the preparedness is more time-consuming than face-to-face teaching modality and the workload is the biggest obstacle for teachers in fully applying the online teaching model.

Table 5 illustrates teachers’ perceptions of the most challenging issues in distance teaching, categorized by factors influencing students’ academic performance. Findings reveal a variety of challenges: a small fraction of respondents (5.7%) reported no difficulty, while 7.5% cited health problems as impacting student performance. Furthermore, 11.3% highlighted a lack of technological pedagogical knowledge as a significant challenge. Limited virtual interactions with students emerged as a prevalent issue, with 22.6% of teachers noting its impact on academic performance. Notably, a majority of respondents (49.1%) identified a heavy workload as the most challenging factor affecting students’ academic performance in distance teaching.

Table 5
Challenging Issues in Distance Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors Affecting Students’ Academic Performance</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No difficulty</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health problems</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of technological pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited virtual interactions with students</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavy workload</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Teachers’ Choice of Teaching Modes and Their Perception on Technological Readiness Towards Blended Teaching in the Post-COVID Time

BL involves courses that are taught both in the classroom (face-to-face) and at a distance; combining instructional technology with actual job tasks to create a harmonious effect of learning and working. Reverse instruction, flip instruction, reverse teaching, or flip teaching are terms used in BL to describe the use of technology in conjunction with traditional teaching methods. Thus, teachers’ technological readiness towards BL is one of the vital factors to the BL adoption in the future.

Although there are certain difficulties from both students and teachers in applying the online teaching model in the context of COVID-19 pandemic, teachers’ opinions on the learning model that they support after the pandemic is not the traditional face-to-face teaching but blended teaching. Table 4 shows teachers’ viewpoint on the adoption of BL in the post-COVID time.
Correlation analysis in Table 8 shows that teachers relate their technological readiness to Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness more than Self-directed ICT learning skills. The correlation between Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness and teachers’ access resources is intense \( r=0.56 \), \( p<0.001 \) whilst this factor is relatively connected with digital communication readiness \( r=0.39 \), \( p<0.01 \) and computer skill readiness \( r=0.33 \), \( p<0.01 \) respectively.

Correlation analysis in Table 9 shows a weaker correlation between teachers’ readiness and their Self-directed ICT learning skills. Digital communication readiness is highly associated with teachers’ Self-directed ICT learning skills \( r=0.42 \), \( p<0.001 \) whilst the correlation is lower between this factor and computer skill readiness \( r=0.31 \), \( p<0.05 \) and access resources \( r=0.27 \), \( p<0.05 \) respectively.

### Table 6
**Teachers’ Choice of Teaching Modes in the Post-COVID Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Mode</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Synchronous teaching</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onsite teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blended teaching (70% onsite-30% offsite)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blended teaching (50% onsite-50% offsite)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blended teaching (30% onsite-70% offsite)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ideas</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results show that the majority of lecturers voted for blended teaching with 45.3% of the respondents in favor of blended teaching with 70% onsite-30% offsite model. Taking second place was the combined teaching model of 50% onsite-50% offsite with 32.1% supporting ideas. The results reveal a high level of faculty support for BL showing that teachers have recognized its outstanding benefits. Only 4/53 teachers support traditional face-to-face teaching.

Data in Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics concerning teachers’ perceptions on their readiness towards blended teaching in the post-COVID time. The results show that teachers positively perceive their readiness towards blended teaching \( M=3.85 \). Among the examined factors, digital communication readiness has the highest level of agreement \( M=4.12 \), while access resources and computer skill readiness show a similarity in teachers’ perception \( M=3.86 \) and 3.85 respectively. The influential factors that influence teachers’ readiness towards blended teaching show a similarity in teachers’ agreement of their importance \( M=3.70 \) for Self-directed ICT learning skills \( M=3.90 \) for Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness.

### Table 7
**Mean and Standard Deviation of Technological Readiness and Influential Factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>skewness</th>
<th>kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s technological readiness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT access resources</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer skill readiness</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital communication readiness</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>-0.50</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influential factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-directed ICT learning</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
<td>6.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived institutional technological readiness</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On exploring factors that influence teachers’ technological readiness towards blended teaching, Pearson correlation analysis was employed to examine the associations between teachers’ readiness and factors: Self-directed ICT learning skills (internal factor) and Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness (external factor). The results are presented in Table 8 and Table 9 showing that the correlation varies considerably according to these two factors.

### Table 8
**Correlations Between Perceived Institutional Readiness and Teachers’ Readiness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson’s correlation coefficient ( r )</th>
<th>( r^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer skill readiness</td>
<td>0.33**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital communication readiness</td>
<td>0.39**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access resources</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

Correlation analysis in Table 8 shows that teachers relate their technological readiness to Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness more than Self-directed ICT learning skills. The correlation between Teacher’s perceived institutional readiness and teachers’ access resources is intense \( r=0.56 \), \( p<0.001 \) whilst this factor is relatively connected with digital communication readiness \( r=0.39 \), \( p<0.01 \) and computer skill readiness \( r=0.33 \), \( p<0.01 \) respectively.

### Table 9
**Correlations Between Self-Efficacy in Using ICT and Teachers’ Technological Readiness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson’s correlation coefficient ( r )</th>
<th>( r^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer skill readiness</td>
<td>0.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital communication readiness</td>
<td>0.42***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access resources</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)
V. DISCUSSION

Based on the results provided above, several key issues can be discussed as follows:

A. Teachers’ Choice of Blended Teaching and Their Technological Readiness

The choice of a blended teaching model by educators in this study signals a shift in pedagogy in the post-COVID landscape. The reasons behind this preference point to the growing role of technology in education. Our findings align with Zhang’s (2023) study which investigates hybrid learning, which combines online and traditional classroom training to enhance teaching strategies and expand educational options in English translation teaching. The results demonstrate that the communication component encompasses the fundamentals, interactions, and links essential for effective teaching. The report also outlines the construction of a hybrid teaching ecosystem, comprising software and hardware components tailored for translation instruction, resulting in reliable and practical performance compared to conventional teaching methods.

The way teachers perceive their technological readiness for blended teaching in this study can shed light on teachers’ willingness to invest in enhancing their technological pedagogical knowledge to adapt to the new situation. However, there is a more intense correlation between teachers’ technological readiness and teacher’s perceived institutional readiness rather than their Self-directed ICT learning skills. This implies that the better prepared HEI is towards blended teaching, the more confident teachers can be in adopting blended teaching modality in the future. Our finding is supported by Petko et al. (2018) whose work confirmed that although there are differences in teachers’ technology-related skills and beliefs, they are influenced by the context of the schools and thus should be supported by the schools in terms of digital tools, strategic importance and the goal clarity with regard to educational technology integration (Petko et al., 2018).

B. Challenges and Opportunities in Blended Teaching

While blended teaching offers various benefits, such as flexibility and enhanced learning experiences, educators may face challenges in adapting to blended teaching. Findings of this study show that during online teaching practice, most teachers found themselves overloaded with abundant work related to lesson preparedness. Other problems that teachers might face include their virtual interaction with students, weakness in IT appliances into teaching and health issues. These findings are supported by various studies on teachers’ perception towards online teaching practice. Maguire (2005) found one barrier for online teachers is the increased workload, especially in research time for lesson preparedness. Lee and Busch (2005) identified a negative impact on teachers’ willingness towards distance teaching by communication issues such as lack of social contact.

Findings in this study revealed key challenges identified by teachers, such as workload and technological capacity. Our research is supported by Tierney et al.’s (2024) study which evaluates hybrid teaching’s benefits and drawbacks in light of current developments in higher education. The paper draws on existing literature to justify institutional usage of hybrid teaching by using a multi-method approach to data collection. Findings indicate that there may be strong reasons to think about using hybrid technology, such as accessibility. Effective hybrid implementation depends on effective communication on the definitions, advantages, restrictions, support and training for hybrid.

C. Teacher Professional Development and Future Research Implications

Examining factors that influence teachers’ technological readiness for blended teaching, such as access to resources and self-directed ICT learning skills, can inform initiatives to help educators effectively integrate technology into their teaching practices. Our findings are supported by prior research, which highlights the significant influence that teachers’ self-efficacy has on their professional commitment and job satisfaction (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), attrition from the teaching profession (Hong, 2012), and is a significant predictor of students’ motivation and achievements (Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Caparatta et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2022). Thus it is crucial to look into the variables that may affect teachers’ confidence in their ability to use ICT in the classroom.

Finally, it is necessary to consider the implications of the findings for future research and practice in educational technology and teacher professional development. Discussion of potential strategies, such as training in digital media tools and pedagogical approaches for BL, may be valuable for teachers’ professional development. Moreover, further investigation can be done, such as longitudinal research on the impact of blended teaching on student outcomes and the effectiveness of different teaching approaches, could provide valuable insights into this area.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, although educators may face challenges in teaching online, their strong support for the post-pandemic blended teaching model underscores the need for proactive measures to improve teachers’ technological readiness and minimize implementation challenges. Institutional support, along with targeted professional development initiatives, can play a crucial role in facilitating educators’ transition to blended teaching. It is strongly recommended that to ensure the adoption of blended teaching after the pandemic, HEI should be concerned about teachers’ workload reduction and enhance their ability to virtually interact with students. Further studies could be conducted on assessing the faculty’s perception towards blended teaching that focus on teachers’ technological competencies and their motivators and
barriers in this teaching modality to promote effective educational technology integration and enhance teaching practices in the digital age.

REFERENCES


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The Development of Blended Learning Model Combined With Project-Based Learning Model in Indonesian Students’ Scientific Writing

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Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, Sriwijaya University, Palembang, Indonesia

Abstract—This research aims to describe the practicality of the blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model when Indonesian students write scientific papers. This research employs the research and development method but focuses only on the small group testing stage. The subjects of this research are students taking scientific writing courses in the study program of Indonesian Language and Literature Education, Indonesia. The data were collected through tests, a questionnaire, and an interview and analyzed by means of qualitative and quantitative techniques. The research results show that in general, this learning model is practical to be used in learning scientific writing. Furthermore, the post-test results show significantly higher scores than those of the pre-test results in students’ scientific writing (34.59). Additionally, based on the results of the questionnaire distributed to students, all components of the blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model that have been developed, namely the learning structure, reaction principles, social systems, and support systems are considered by students to be appropriate and very appropriate. However, the results of the interview reveal that there are weaknesses in the learning model being developed. These weaknesses will be addressed so that its effectiveness is well tested in the next stage, namely the large group test.

Index Terms—Development, learning model, blended learning, project-based learning, scientific writing

I. INTRODUCTION

The positive impact of the COVID-19 pandemic era is the development of technology-based learning. This development in this era is the initial milestone in the rapid use of technology in instructions. Many technology learning applications have emerged and become popular. After the Covid-19 pandemic era, a learning system that prioritizes technology has become permanent because of a plethora of benefits (Dhawan, 2020; Oktarina et al., 2023). Technology-enabled learning has become imperative for students and lecturers in this contemporary world. Technology can be defined as a foundational cornerstone within the realm of education (Jeejaroonsoori, 2023). The embrace of technology-enabled learning is especially salient for the millennial generations, given their pervasive immersion in technology-infused lifestyles. They seek innovative writing instruction that fosters an elevation in learning motivation (Arta et al., 2019). Therefore, educators must have technological skills so that learning can take place optimally. Many studies report that technology can improve the quality of learning, especially in writing (AlRouji, 2020; Belda-Medina, 2021; Mohammad, 2018; Oktarina, 2021; Rama et al., 2023).

Learning to write scientifically requires technology in the learning process. However, not all lecturers are able to design learning that uses technology optimally, especially for learning to write. In fact, one of the competencies that educators must master in this era is technological proficiency (Belda-Medina, 2021; Guillén-Gámez et al., 2019). Apart from that, many educators neglect the principles of writing that must be included in the teaching and learning process. Based on preliminary studies, lecturers did not use optimal technology in teaching scientific writing and learning models enabling students skillful and productive in writing (Oktarina et al., 2023). In fact, students need a learning model integrating technology and facilitating students’ writing skills as these skills are a crucial necessity for students so that their academic pursuits are uninterrupted. Therefore, a learning model accommodating the diverse needs of students is needed.

The blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model is one solution that can overcome such problems. These two models are integrated as a means to address prevalent challenges for several discernible reasons. Firstly, the selection of these two learning models stems from student and lecturer needs discovered through a need analysis, which is a preliminary study conducted as one of several phases in the research and development method. Another reason is that the blended learning model is a technological learning model that suits the characteristics of students in this era. It is widely acknowledged that the youth of this era is very close to technology, such that one might metaphorically describe technology as their breath (Adekeyin & Soykan, 2020; Cilliers, 2017; Firmadani, 2020). Moreover, the blended learning model synergistically integrates the inherent benefits of both offline and online learning.
modalities (Dakhi et al., 2020). Multiple studies corroborate the effectiveness of blended learning models in addressing challenges encountered within writing instruction (Arta et al., 2019; Hosseinpour et al., 2019; Turmudi, 2020). Lastly, the project-based learning model is an innovative learning model that is product-oriented with clear and systematic steps. These characteristics are in accordance with the characteristics and principles of writing. Various studies also report the reliability of this model in improving students' writing skills (Argawati & Suryani, 2020; Maros et al., 2021; Soleh, 2021).

The novelty of the learning model developed in this research is attributed to several factors, such as combining the reliability of two innovative learning models, namely blended learning and project-based learning; using various multimedia, such as e-learning, learning videos, online workshops, flipbooks, and other media; and complying with learning standards, blended learning principles, and writing principles. Because this research is a part of research and development, the researcher has designed a blended learning model combined with a project-based learning model for scientific writing. This model prototype has been validated by media, material, and language experts. Then, the practicality of this model prototype is determined in the stage of a small group test. Therefore, the research problem in this study is “How is the practicality of the developed learning model that integrates blended learning and project-based learning models in Indonesian Students’ Scientific Writing?”.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Learning Model

Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun state that learning models are educational products that are used to help students acquire information, ideas, skills, values, ways of thinking, and ways of expressing themselves and teach them how to learn (Joyce et al., 2009). Arrends highlights that the term learning model refers to a particular approach including its objectives, syntax, environment, and management system (Arrends, 1997). A learning model is needed to ensure the attainment of the learning objectives for successful learning. As something conceptual and used as a guideline in carrying out learning activities, it contains everything that is complex in the sense that it is based on scientific thoughts and actions, student success in learning, learning environments, and an effective and efficient learning management system.

Furthermore, Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun put forward several keywords that we need to understand as components of a learning model, namely learning structure, reaction principle, social system, and support system (Joyce et al., 2009). The learning structure is a phasing model that details the phases of the model activities. It basically contains a number of activities that students must carry out during the learning process. The reaction principle is the relationship that must exist between teachers and students. The relationship in question is the appropriate reaction given by the teachers to the activities carried out by the students and the various norms (principles) that must be adhered to and developed for the benefits of the learning model. Additionally, the social system includes three main definitions, namely: (1) a description of the various roles of teachers and students; (2) a description of the hierarchical/authority relationship between teachers and students; and (3) a description of various rules to encourage students. Finally, the supporting system means elements that must be conditioned accurately and appropriately to support the implementation of the teaching model. The model support system starts from the questions of what support is needed by a model to create a special environment.

B. Scientific Writing

Writing is an important part of language learning (Eryilmaza & Yesilyurt, 2022). Writing is a complex process involving a variety of skills. Because of the complexity of these skills, extra time is needed to complete compositions in writing (Jeanjaroonrsri, 2023). During the writing process, a series of activities are carried out through certain stages to produce a piece of writing (Oktarina et al., 2017; Oktarina, 2021; Oshima, 2007). Therefore, writing cannot be done just on a single try. There is a process that writers must go through to produce their writing at its best.

One type of writing is scientific writing which must be distinguished from writing in general. The difference lies within the flow of thought. Writing scientific papers needs a linear line of thought; that is, the writer will think and reason scientifically and use various scientific languages in accordance with applicable scientific requirements (Akhadiah, 2015).

Students in higher education are required to possess proficient scientific writing skills, thereby fostering an expectation for their mastery of such skills. We all know that writing activities are an inseparable part of the entire learning process experienced by students while studying in higher education. Good scientific writing skills greatly influence a student's academic excellence. In other words, writing is one of the keys for students to be successful in the academic field (Piamsai, 2020).

Enhancing proficiency in scientific paper writing requires three important aspects. Firstly, training, acclimatization, and motivation are essential for achieving optimal results (Darmuki et al., 2021; Burhanuddin, 2021). Secondly, the use of various learning models is paramount (Alston et al., 2021; Burhanuddin, 2021; Oktarina et al., 2018). Lastly, technology integration in instructions also plays a vital role (Oktarina et al., 2022; Balqis et al., 2021; Zhang & Chen, 2022). This current trend in writing adapts to the advancements in science and technology.
C. Blended Learning

Blended learning represents an instructional approach that seamlessly integrates the benefits of traditional face-to-face (offline) instruction with those of online learning methodologies (Aminah, 2021; So & Lee, 2013). In this learning model, students are facilitated to be able to study and review learning materials independently for one part of the session through online learning materials and resources, and another part of the session is carried out face-to-face in the classroom. Blended learning is not only about integrating technology into classroom learning but also about facilitating students in exploring learning materials as well as gaining independent and enjoyable learning experiences so that they can learn anytime and anywhere (Alipour, 2020; Alebaikan & Troudi, 2010). Various studies report that the application of blended learning for writing has a positive impact (AlRouji, 2020; Burhanuddin, 2021; So & Lee, 2013). However, in its implementation, there are three challenges, namely unsupportive culture and environment, poor learning design, and unsuitable time planning (Alebaikan & Troudi, 2010).

D. Project-Based Learning (PBL)

Project-based learning (PBL) is a learning model that is based on constructivist learning theory (Yuliansyah & Mutiara, 2021). PBL encourages full involvement and is based on authentic experiences that can be applied to various scientific disciplines. In this case, we will together develop a project-based learning design. The characteristic of project-based learning is a product as a form of learning outcome (Miller et al., 2021). The project-based learning model is reported to be able to train 21st century skills in the era of globalization, especially in Indonesian language learning. Project-based learning has the potential to improve higher-level thinking skills - analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Sakran, 2021). Various studies have reported the success of this model, especially in learning scientific writing (Hidayati et al., 2023; Sari & Angreni, 2018; Soleh, 2021).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Methods

The method used in this research is the research and development method which combines qualitative and quantitative approaches (Gall et al., 2007). This research is part of research and development based on Borg and Gall’s theory at the product design development and initial operational testing stages. More details are presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Research and Development Stages](image_url)

B. Subjects of Research

The research subjects in this study are 12 students (8 female and 4 male) of the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program. They were involved in the practicality test stage or small group test.

C. Data Collection Technique

The data collection was carried out through tests, a questionnaire, and an interview. Firstly, 12 students participated in a pre-test and post-test on the learning material of writing a research proposal. Then, they completed a questionnaire through a Google Form. The questionnaire consists of 5 components, namely learning structure, reaction principle, social system, and support system. The learning structure, reaction principle, social system, and support system consist of 18, 2, 7, and 18 statement items, respectively, as shown in Table 1.
### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Item Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning Structure</td>
<td>1. Standards of the learning process</td>
<td>4,5,6,8,10,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. The learning process in accordance with the principles of writing</td>
<td>1,2,3,9,12,13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Blended learning process</td>
<td>14,19,20,21,22,23,24,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaction Principles</td>
<td>1. Lecturers as facilitators in the learning process</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Lecturers as motivators in the learning process</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Systems</td>
<td>1. Patterns of interaction between lecturers and students</td>
<td>28,29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Atmosphere in the learning process</td>
<td>30,31,32,33,34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support System</td>
<td>1. Lesson plan</td>
<td>35,36,37,38,39,40,41,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Teaching materials</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. E-Learning</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, an interview was carried out with three students to obtain in-depth information regarding student perceptions on the development of the blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model. The interview question specification is presented in Table 2.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Components of the developed model</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning Structure</td>
<td>Strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Reaction Principles</td>
<td>Weaknesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Social Systems</td>
<td>Suggestions for improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Support System</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### D. Data Analysis Technique

In this research, the data were analyzed using quantitative and qualitative techniques. The data obtained from the tests and questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively. To analyze the data from the tests in the research proposal writing, an assessment rubric was used as displayed in Table 3.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Weight (W)</th>
<th>Score (S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The quality of the introduction, literature review, methodology</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The originality of the research topic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The consistency and appropriateness of the use of methods and the research problems</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The contribution to the application and development of science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The conformity to the in-house style and use of written language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Final Score = S x W</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the quantitative data from the questionnaire was analyzed using a Likert scale ranging from very inappropriate, inappropriate, appropriate, and very appropriate. Meanwhile, the interview data was analyzed qualitatively by organizing the data; reading, describing, classifying, and interpreting the data into codes and themes; interpreting the data; and presenting the data.

### IV. Research Results

To find out the practicality of the developed learning model by integrating blended learning and project-based learning models to increase students’ creativity and productivity the learning of scientific paper writing, a small group test was done. This stage was carried out by involving 12 students within 6 meetings of instructions through writing a scientific research proposal as the learning material. The data in the small group test phase were obtained from the tests, the questionnaire, and the interview.

#### A. Pretest and Posttest Data

To find out the practicality of the developed learning model, a small group test was carried out by conducting tests on 12 students taking scientific writing courses. The tests included a pretest and posttest on writing a research proposal. The results of the pretest and posttest are available in Figure 2.
Figure 2. Pretest Dan Posttest Scores

As depicted in Figure 2, the pretest scores within the small group test yield results below 60. Following an assessment conducted in adherence to the research writing assessment rubric, the average score is 49.66. It implies the persistent challenge among students in grasping foundational concepts encompassing introduction, literature review, and research method. Furthermore, the findings reveal that the research topics are not original, and their papers lack consistency between research methods and research problems, contribution to the development of science, and understanding of in-house style.

In addition to the pretest outcomes, students’ posttest scores range from 84 to 87, with a mean score of 85.25. Comparative analysis reveals a significant improvement in the average score by 34.59 points when compared to the pretest results. Concerning this, it can be inferred that a significant difference exist in students’ performance before and after the implementation of the project-based learning model integrated with blended learning.

B. Questionnaire Data

After implementing this learning model, the researcher distributed a questionnaire to 12 students consisting of 52 statements in terms of learning structure, reaction principles, social systems, and support systems to assess the practicality of the blended learning model combined with project-based learning model to learn how to write scientific papers through writing a research proposal. The findings derived from the questionnaire are delineated as follows.

(a). Learning Structure

The first component in the learning model is the learning structure. In this model, there are 7 stages of learning structure, namely the project orientation and determination, project exploration, interpretation, analysis and brainstorming, project planning, project implementation, project presentation and discussion, project revision and assessment, and project publication phases. Following the tests, the students’ evaluations regarding the practicality of the model structure under development are presented in Table 4.
The structure of this learning model includes writing stages (prewriting, writing, and postwriting). The structure of this learning model combines all language skills. This model as appropriate (58.3%) and very appropriate (41.7%) with the stages of the writing process. Second, the authentic structure of this model is rated as appropriate (33.3%) and very appropriate (66.7%). Furthermore, the structure of this learning model is integrated. They also deem it appropriate (91.7%) and very appropriate (8.3%) that this structure of this learning model is prioritized a scientific approach that is rated as appropriate (33.3%) and very appropriate (66.7%). The learning structure is contextual. Moreover, the structure of this model prioritizes a scientific approach. Then, they also rate it as appropriate (66.7%) and very appropriate (33.3%) that the learning structure is designed by considering the characteristics, time, and needs of students. In addition, they rate it as appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%) that the learning model structure makes students work in solid groups. The structure of this learning model makes students independent in seeking and discovering knowledge. Additionally, it is deemed appropriate (33.3%) and very appropriate (66.7%) that the learning model structure gives students learning material according to their individual needs and abilities.

### Table 4: Students' Perceptions of the Practicality of the Model Structure of Blended Learning Combined With Project-Based Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The learning structure of this learning model includes writing stages</td>
<td>Very Inappropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(prewriting, writing, and postwriting).</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The learning structure of this learning model combines all language</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The learning structure of this learning model is authentic.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model encourages a comprehensive and</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>broad mindset.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model is integrated.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The structure of the learning model is contextual.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model prioritizes a scientific approach.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The structure of the learning model is student-centered.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The structure of the learning model creates group interaction patterns and</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>an atmosphere that is in accordance with the characteristics of scientific</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The learning model structure provided optimizes the roles of lecturer</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s and students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The learning model structure is designed by considering the characteristics,</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time, and study materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model makes students work collaboratively.</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model is able to produce maximum projects</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(products).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model combines online and offline learning</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to its maximum level.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model makes it easier for students to</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>produce scientific writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model is able to make students work in</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>solid groups.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model prioritizes the development of</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>students' creativity, capacity, personality, and needs and develops</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>independence in seeking and discovering knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model prioritizes efficient writing</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>practice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model provides opportunities for</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>interaction between students and lecturers via the website.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>This learning model structure provides opportunities for discussion</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>between lecturers and all students via the website.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model makes students independent in</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The structure of the learning model makes the learning process flexible</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>because this learning is not limited by time, place, teacher, and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>learning materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>The structure of this learning model presents materials by displaying</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>texts, audio, and video teaching objects in the Moodle E-Learning system.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>The learning model structure allows students to learn at a pace</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>according to their individual needs and abilities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>This learning model structure gives students opportunities to access</td>
<td>0(0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>learning material through a non-linear manner on a website.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, the findings indicate that the structure of the developed learning model is deemed appropriate (53.3%) and very appropriate (46.6%) by the students, in alignment with established standards of the learning process, principles of writing, and principles of blended learning with the following details. First, students rate the structure of this model as appropriate (58.3%) and very appropriate (41.7%) with the stages of the writing process. Second, the structure of this model is appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%) because it combines all language skills. Next, the authentic structure of this model is rated as appropriate (33.3%) and very appropriate (66.7%). Furthermore, the students rate it as appropriate (41.7%) and very appropriate (58.3%) for the structure of this model that encourages a comprehensive way of thinking. Then, they also rate it as appropriate (66.7%) and very appropriate (33.3%) that the structure of this model is integrated. They also deem it appropriate (91.7%) and very appropriate (8.3%) that this learning structure is contextual. Moreover, the structure of this model prioritizes a scientific approach that is rated as appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%). Then, this learning structure is designed to be student-centered and is rated as appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%). These students also deem it appropriate (41.7%) and very appropriate (58.3%) that the structure of this model is able to create group interaction patterns and an atmosphere that is in accordance with the characteristics of scientific writing. Additionally, it is deemed appropriate (33.3%) and very
appropriate (66.7%) that the structure of the learning model optimizes the roles of lecturers and students.

Furthermore, for the eleventh statement, they also rate it as appropriate (75%) and very appropriate (25%) that the structure of this model is designed by considering characteristics, time, and learning materials. Twelfth, these students deem it appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%) that the structure of this learning model makes them more collaborative. Next, it is deemed appropriate (58.7%) and very appropriate (45.5%) that this model structure results in products. The students also deem it appropriate (66.7%) and very appropriate (33.3%) that the structure of this learning model combines online and offline learning. They also rate it as appropriate (58.7%) and very appropriate (45.5%) that the structure of this model produces scientific writing that is easy. Additionally, that the structure of this model is able to make students work in solid groups is deemed appropriate (66.7%) and very appropriate (33.3%). Then, they perceive that the structure of this learning model is appropriate (45.5%) because it prioritizes developing creativity, capacity, personality, needs, and independence in seeking and exploring knowledge. Moreover, they believe that the structure of this model is appropriate (58.7%) and very appropriate (45.5%) because it prioritizes efficient writing practices.

Next, for the nineteenth statement, according to students, the structure of this model provides an opportunity for interaction between students and lecturers carried out via a website, which is rated as appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%). They also rate it as appropriate (58%) and very appropriate (45.5%) that this model structure provides opportunities for discussion between lecturers and all students via a website. Furthermore, that the structure of this learning model makes students independent in learning is rated as appropriate (75%) and very appropriate (25%). Then, students perceive that the structure of the learning model made the learning process flexible with scores of 25% for appropriate and 75% for very appropriate). Students also agree and rate appropriate (25%) and very appropriate (75%) that this model presents materials by displaying text, audio, and video teaching objects in the Moodle E-Learning system. Additionally, the structure of the learning model allows students to learn at a pace according to their individual needs and abilities which students rate it as appropriate (58.7%) and very appropriate (45.5%). Finally, students believe that it is appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%) that the structure of this learning model gives them opportunities to be able to access learning material in a non-linear manner on a website.

(b). Reaction Principle

The second component of the learning model is the reaction principle. The reaction principle developed in this model is related to the role of lecturers in learning, in this case, as a facilitator and motivator. The following results are students' perceptions of the reaction principles developed in this model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Inappropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>This learning model optimizes the role of lecturers as facilitators in learning.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>This learning model optimizes the role of lecturers as motivators in learning.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that the reaction principle is deemed appropriate (54.15%) and very appropriate (45.85%), which means that this model optimizes the role of lecturers as facilitators and motivators.

(c). Social System

The third component of the learning model is the social system. Table 6 presents students' perceptions of the social system developed in this model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Inappropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>This learning model creates interaction between lecturers and students.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>This learning model creates interaction among students.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>This learning model is able to build an interactive atmosphere indicated by group learning in discussions as well as giving each other input/criticism on each other's writing.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>This learning model is able to build a democratic and open atmosphere.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>This learning model is able to build a conducive atmosphere.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>This learning model is able to build a collaborative atmosphere.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>This learning model is able to build active and creative learning.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 indicates that the students consider it appropriate (25%) and very appropriate (75%) that this learning model creates good interactions between lecturers and students. Additionally, they rate it as appropriate (33.7%) and very appropriate (66.3%) that this learning model creates interactions among them. Also, they deem it appropriate (58.3%) and very appropriate (41.3%) that this learning model is able to build an interactive atmosphere indicated by the students being in groups throughout discussions and giving input/criticism to each other's writing. Furthermore, they rate that this learning model is able to build a democratic and open atmosphere with a percentage of 66.7% (appropriate) and 33.3% (very appropriate). Next, that this learning model is able to build a conducive atmosphere is rated as appropriate (83.3%) and very appropriate (16.7%). For the statement that this learning model is able to build a collaborative atmosphere, 50% of the students deem it appropriate, 4.7% of them believe that it is very appropriate, and 8.3% of them rate it as inappropriate. Lastly, that this learning model able to build active and creative learning is believed to be appropriate (58.3%) and very appropriate (41.7%).

(d) Support System

The final component in the learning model is the support system which is a pivotal element to design for achieving an optimal learning model. Within this study, a comprehensive semester plan has been devised, encompassing a lesson plan, instructional resources, a Moodle E-Learning system, and learning tools, all constituting integral components of the support system of this model. Table 7 presents the results of students’ evaluations.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Inappropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The lesson plan is made systematically.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Course descriptions are formulated clearly and completely.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Course learning objectives include aspects of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Course learning objectives are formulated clearly and accurately.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Final learning objectives are formulated based on course learning objectives, using verbs that are operational, short, concise, and clear.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Instructional materials contain the main materials that are relevant to the abilities that will be achieved.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The learning experience creates interaction patterns and an atmosphere that is in accordance with the characteristics of scientific writing.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Assessment refers to the course learning objectives and per-meeting objectives.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The instructional resources are in line with the student's final achievements and abilities.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The instructional resources have accurate and up-to-date information.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The language used in the instructional resources is easy to understand.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The instructional resources make students active and interested in learning.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The features presented in this course make students interested and involved in learning</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The facilitated materials and student activities on Moodle are easy for lecturers and students to use.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>This e-learning Moodle course provides many opportunities for students to engage in new learning experiences.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The learning tools can support the successful implementation of this learning model.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>The use of learning tools can make students interested and involved in learning.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The use of learning tools can stimulate student creativity.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that students believe that the support system in the model developed is appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%). In terms of the lesson plan, students rate it as appropriate (52.08%) and very appropriate (47.92%). Also, instructional resources are deemed appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%). Furthermore, students rate the other two components as appropriate (58.7%) and very appropriate (41.3%) for the E-Learning Moodle System and appropriate (50%) and very appropriate (50%) for learning tools.
C. Interview Data

To find out more about the practicality of the blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model in scientific writing courses, an interview was conducted with three students who had received treatment using this model. The interview focuses on strengths, weaknesses, and suggestions for future improvements to the components of the developed learning model. The results of the interview indicate that the advantages of this learning model are that it enables students to produce scientific work collaboratively, students find variations in learning, the availability of all materials in E-Learning makes it easier for students to write, and the coherent learning stages make the writing process easier for students. In addition to the strengths, the weaknesses of this learning model are also identified, such as the unstable internet connection, inactive team members, and lack of interaction during online learning. Suggestions are also discerned for the improvement of this model which include the use of the language laboratory for stable internet connection and clear role descriptions among group members.

V. DISCUSSION

The integration of blended learning and project-based learning models constitutes a novel pedagogical synthesis aimed at enhancing effectiveness in scientific writing instruction. The blended learning model is a form of technological advancement in the field of education that combines conventional and online learning. This learning model is an effort to overcome the diversity of demands for student success and to improve the quality of learning (Alipour, 2020). Moreover, this learning ensures that students participate actively in the learning process by integrating technological advancements. Additionally, this model adeptly circumvents constraints about spatial and temporal limitations inherent in conventional learning frameworks. However, teaching staff are required to be technologically literate. In implementing this model, technological skills are required (Zhang & Chen, 2022). Meanwhile, the project-based learning model is also an innovative learning model that is product-oriented. This model is used because it suits the characteristics of writing which must produce written products. The reliability of this model has been proven to be able to improve scientific writing skills as proven by many studies (Soleh, 2021; Mohammad, 2018). The reliability of these two models is the reason for combining these models. This has also been proven for learning academic writing (Miller et al., 2021; Maros et al., 2021; Sakran, 2021). Apart from that, the learning model in this research is developed based on an analysis of student needs (Oktarina et al., 2023).

The small group test carried out in this research aims to determine the practicality of this learning model from the perspectives of students. In this research, the data were collected using tests, a questionnaire, and an interview. These three data collection techniques were used to obtain in-depth information about the practicality of the model being developed. If weaknesses are identified in this phase, the learning model will be revised to obtain better result in the next test phase.

The results from the tests indicate that the post-test results show significantly higher scores than those of the pre-test results in students' scientific writing, in this case writing a research proposal. The average posttest score is 85.25, while the average pretest score is 49.66. This indicates that there is a significant improvement in the average score by 34.59. It implies that there is a difference in the students’ scores before and after implementing the project-based learning model combined with blended learning. This is because the learning model consists of important components starting from the learning structure, reaction principles, social systems, and supporting system data, combining the reliability of the two innovative learning models. Project-based learning is a learning model that uses projects/activities as a learning process to achieve competency in attitude, knowledge, and skills. The emphasis on learning lies in students’ activities to produce products by applying the skills of researching, analyzing, creating, and even presenting learning products based on real-time experience. Implementing project-based learning allow students to think critically and enable them to develop their own creativity through developing initiatives in producing a product (Sakran, 2021; Argawati & Suryani, 2020). Meanwhile, the technology-based blended learning model is very suitable for the current millennial generation (Cilliers, 2017; Oktarina, 2023). The existence of technology is more focused on facilitating students in exploring instructional resources and gaining independent and enjoyable learning experiences so that they can learn anytime and anywhere (Alipour, 2020; Alebaikan & Troudi, 2010). Various studies report that the application of blended learning for writing has a positive impact (AlRouji, 2020; Burhanuddin, 2021; So & Lee, 2013). When combined, these two models can improve students’ abilities in scientific writing. This has been proven by the results of this small-group test.

The results of the questionnaire also show positive results regarding students’ perceptions on this learning model. In terms of the learning structure, students rate the learning structure of this model as appropriate (53.4%) and very appropriate (46.6%). They agree that the model structure complies with learning standards, writing principles, and blended learning principles. For the reaction principle, it is perceived by students as appropriate (54.15%) and very appropriate (48.85%) that this model optimizes the role of lecturers as facilitators and motivators, characteristics sought after by students. This has an impact on achieving the learning objectives (Arfandi & Samsudin, 2021). Regarding the aspect of the social system, the interactions developed in this model are deemed appropriate (53.5%) and very appropriate (71.5%). A good engagement during learning between lecturers and students will create a pleasant learning atmosphere so that students are motivated to learn. Interaction in learning is a pivotal aspect that lecturers need to know (Dakhi et al., 2020). Moreover, concerning the support system, students believe the lesson plan, materials, e-learning, and learning tools designed in this model are appropriate (52.69%) and very appropriate (47.31%). This favorable
The findings of the research indicate that in general, this learning model is practical in facilitating the acquisition of scientific writing skills. Specifically, the findings reveal a significant improvement in the posttest average score compared to the pretest average score (34.59) in scientific writing. Furthermore, insights derived from student surveys highlight that all components of the blended learning model combined with the project-based learning model that have been developed, namely the learning structure, reaction principles, social systems, and support systems, are considered by students to be appropriate and very appropriate. For the learning structure, students rate the learning structure of this model as appropriate (53.4%) and very appropriate (46.6%). Regarding the reaction principle, it is perceived by students as appropriate (54.15%) and very appropriate (48.85%) that this model optimizes the role of lecturers as facilitators and motivators. Concerning the aspect of the social system, the interactions developed in this model are deemed appropriate (53.5%) and very appropriate (71.5%). About the support system, students agree that the lesson plan, materials, e-learning, and learning tools designed in this model are appropriate (52.69%) and very appropriate (47.31%). However, the results of the interview reveal that there are weaknesses in the learning model, such as unstable internet connection, inactive team members, lack of interaction during online learning, and some technical issues with new features on the website at the beginning of the lesson. Therefore, it can be concluded that this learning model is practical to be used by Indonesian students in learning scientific writing despite its weaknesses. These weaknesses will be addressed to enhance the developed learning model in the next test phase, specifically the field test, allowing for the evaluation of its effectiveness.

VI. CONCLUSION

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Examining the Impact of Tanzania's Language Policy in Education on Promoting the Chinese Language in Tanzania

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Xiao Hong
Department of Chinese Language and Literature, Wuhan University, Wuhan, China

Abstract—This paper examines the impact of Tanzania’s language policy on the promotion of the Chinese language within Tanzania. The objective is to delve into the evolution of Tanzania’s language policy across different eras, understand the factors influencing language policy in Tanzania, and analyze how the present Tanzanian language policy affects the dissemination of the Chinese language. The results reveal that Tanzania’s current language policy has both positive and negative effects on the promotion of the Chinese language within the country. Based on the research findings, the authors propose strategies to further enhance the teaching of the Chinese language in Tanzania.

Index Terms—Tanzania’s language policy, language educational policy, promotion of Chinese in Tanzania, Chinese language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the initiation of the Belt and Road Initiative, the relationship between Tanzania and China has witnessed remarkable achievements. Given the strong ties between the two countries, it is crucial for the people of both nations to engage, learn, and understand each other’s cultural norms and customs. Language, as a vital element of culture, plays a crucial role in promoting diplomatic relations and cooperation between the two nations. Learning each other's language allows for a deeper understanding of society, encompassing people’s lifestyles, traditional norms, and customs.

Tanzania’s language policy encourages the teaching of foreign languages to enhance diplomatic relations with other countries. In 2019, the Tanzanian government officially integrated Chinese into the national education system, marking a significant step towards promoting the Chinese language and culture within Tanzania. Prior to its formal inclusion in the Tanzanian education system, Chinese was offered as an elective course in various higher education institutions. Recently, Chinese has become part of the secondary education curriculum and is a prerequisite for the university entrance examination. Language policy and planning are crucial as they profoundly impact politics, the economy, culture, social stability, and the overall living conditions of individuals in the nation (Fei, 2018).

While the field of language policy in Tanzania has been thoroughly explored by many scholars (see, for example, Swilla, 2009; Sa, 2007; Mbaabu, 1996; Polomé & Hill, 2017; Roy-Campbell, 2001; Rubagumya, 1990), the majority of their work focuses on the language policy concerning English and Swahili. To our knowledge, there has been no in-depth research conducted on the influence of language policy in Tanzania specifically related to Chinese as a foreign language. Thus, this area of research remains relatively unexplored. This paper aims to investigate Tanzanian language policy by addressing the following questions: What is the historical evolution of language policy in Tanzania? What factors shape language policy in Tanzania? How does language policy impact the promotion of Chinese in Tanzania? What language policy measures can be implemented to enhance the teaching of Chinese in Tanzania?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Framework

Language policy and language planning (LPLP) are closely related concepts, and at times, it can be challenging to differentiate between the two. In LPLP literature, some scholars use these terms interchangeably (Spolsky, 2009). The term ‘language planning’ (LP) was initially introduced by Haugen in 1959. He defined LP as ‘the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community’ (Haugen, 1959, p. 8). Haugen (1972, p. 162) further elaborated by defining LP as ‘the evaluation of language change’, and later as ‘the activity of a speech community to establish goals, policies, and processes’ (Haugen,
1972). Since then, numerous researchers have provided their definitions from various perspectives. For instance, Fishman (1974) defines the term LP as the organized search for solutions to language problems, generally occurring at the national level. Additionally, Taulli (1968) defined LP as 'the activity of adapting and improving existing languages or creating new regional, national, and international languages'.

The term language policy is defined by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, p. xi) as a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the society, group or system. Spolsky (2004) divided the language policy of a speech community into three components. First, language management; according to Spolsky (2004) is defined as "the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy regarding language use, usually but not always written in a formal document. Second, Language practice which comprises agreed-upon conventions about the informality and formality of communication, as well as principles of appropriation in terms of different languages and specialized languages in multilingual circumstances. Third, language belief or ideology is concerned with the appropriation of usage and language (Spolsky, 2004).

Hornberger (2006) highlights that LP almost always occurs in multilingual and multicultural contexts. In a multilingual society, LPLP play a crucial role as they can effectively address problems associated with multilingualism. Scholars like Rubin and Jernudd (1971), Fishman (1974), Karam (1974) and Weinstein (1980) assert that the primary objective of LPLP is to resolve language-related issues. This is achieved by exploring and evaluating various approaches to address language challenges. In Tanzania, shortly after gaining independence, the government actively promoted the use and dissemination of Swahili throughout the country. Concurrently, the use of vernacular languages in official settings, including education, politics, and media, was prohibited. This measure was implemented due to the belief that local languages could potentially foster tribalism (Petzell, 2012).

**B. Analysis of Tanzania’s Language Policy in Education**

Language policy in Tanzania has evolved through various historical phases, including the colonial era and the post-independence period. Post-independence, Tanzania has adopted diverse ideologies, encompassing both capitalist and socialist ideologies. These ideologies significantly influenced educational policies, with changes in policies corresponding to shifts in the national ideology. These policies dictated the usage of the language of instruction (LoI) at various levels of education (Swilla, 2009).

(a). **Tanzania’s Language Policy in Education During German Colonial Rule**

Tanzania, formerly known as Tanganyika, was under the rule of two different colonial powers at different periods. For instance, from the 1880s to 1919, Tanganyika was under German colonial rule, and from 1919 to 1960, it was under British colonial rule. Both the German and British colonial administrations adopted capitalism and took control over primary production facilities. They established schools, granting limited access to education for a select number of Africans. The educational methods and the language of instruction (LoI) used at all educational levels were based on capitalist ideology. The curriculum imposed by the colonial regime was designed to align with colonial goals, which included restricting the development of African (Swilla, 1992).

Before the German colonial invasion, the significance of Swahili had already been acknowledged. Many missionaries, explorers, and businessmen utilized Swahili to conduct and facilitate their activities upon entering East Africa (EA). In the early stages of the German invasion of Tanganyika, they encountered fierce resistance from the Swahili people. Upon the official annexation of EA colonies by the Germans, they established Swahili as the official language of the colonial government. One reason for this was to appease the Swahili people in the coastal areas, encouraging the use of Swahili and allowing them to collaborate with the colonial rule. Through the appointment of ruling agents, the Germans swiftly gained obedience from the coastal tribes. Given the special status of Swahili and the Swahili people in the colonial government system of German EA, the Swahili language further proliferated throughout the inland areas of the East African coast (Mazrui & Zirimu, 1990).

At that time, the language situation in German EA was highly complex, with over 100 different languages being used simultaneously in the region. The diverse and non-uniform nature of languages in the inland areas of EA significantly impeded cultural diffusion. Upon the German government's official acquisition of the EA colonies in 1890, Swahili was established as the official language governing German EA. Swahili language users were appointed as grassroots managers within the colonial government system to foster unity with the colonies. In pursuit of their governing objectives, the German colonial government actively promoted Swahili language education in coastal areas and regions beyond the trade center (Polomé & Hill, 2017).

In 1892, the first government school was introduced by the German colonial administration in Tanga (Gottneid, 1976). The Germans, during their colonial rule, officially introduced Swahili as a LoI and for use in colonial administration in the late 17th century (Sa, 2007). However, not all Germans supported the adoption of Swahili in education and administration. Some opposed it and advocated for the propagation of the German language. They strongly believed in promoting the German language to counter the rapid spread of English in East Africa. Additionally, they were of the opinion that Swahili was too closely tied to the Islamic religion, posing a potential threat by uniting African people of various tribes against German rule (Wright, 1971). Moreover, Germans were concerned that teaching advanced European culture to Africans might instill a sense of equality with Germans (Roy-Campbell, 2001). The Germans believed that if the people of Tanganyika successfully learned German and embraced advanced European
Culture through the German model, this elevated culture would eventually become a tool for the Tanganyika people to resist German colonialism (Pike, 1986).

Although there were various debates among Germans regarding whether to promote German or Swahili, Swahili was eventually established as the language of colonial rule. This decision was primarily influenced by the fact that by the time Tanganyika was officially declared a German colonial empire, Swahili had already been extensively used and spread throughout the mainland. As a lingua franca in East Africa, the advantages of Swahili were unquestionable. It allowed rulers to strengthen control over different regions, reduce administrative expenses, and facilitate the smooth transfer of officials between regions. Germany relied on the Swahili people for effective colonial management and adopted Swahili as the language of colonial administration, a move that also helped appease the early Swahili population who vehemently opposed German rule (Rubagumya, 1990). Consequently, for the German colonists, utilizing Swahili extensively for administration and education significantly curtailed administrative expenses, promoting centralized management. Additionally, Germans believed that Africans couldn’t learn German proficiently, further justifying the use of Swahili in education and governmental (Brock-Utne & Hopson, 2005).

Initially, Germans established numerous German schools in coastal areas such as Tanga. However, they encountered challenges in promoting the German language. A significant portion of coastal residents were Swahili people who practiced Islam, and they were reluctant to have their children study in these schools (Henderson, 1965). Consequently, Germans abandoned the idea of using German as the teaching language in these schools (Kiango, 2005). Ultimately, Swahili became the primary LoI in colonial education at the primary school level, and German began to be taught as a subject starting from the fifth grade (Mbaabu, 1996).

In summary, German rule in Tanganyika significantly contributed to the widespread use of Swahili. Due to certain reasons, such as concerns about Africans adopting European culture, Germans chose not to propagate the German language. Instead, they promoted the use of Swahili in government administration and education, facilitating their colonial rule.

(b). Tanzania’s Language Policy in Education During British Colonial Administration

After World War I, Tanganyika, previously under German control, came under British authority. The British government, upon taking charge, maintained Swahili as the primary LoI for the first five years of elementary school. However, in secondary schools, the LoI transitioned to English (Rubagumya, 1990). Starting from the late 1920s, Swahili became the teaching language at the Foundation Stage for all African public schools in the British East African colony, encompassing Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Kenya, and Uganda. English instruction began at the fourth grade level. As students progressed to middle school, English replaced Swahili as the teaching language, with Swahili remaining a compulsory course. At higher levels of education, Swahili usage gradually diminished (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1995).

After the outbreak of World War II and the rise of African movements for national liberation, the language policy of British colonial rule began to shift. The British government started reevaluating the educational policies in its East African colonies prior to World War II. British colonists recognized that Africans from various nationalities were forming a modern national and anti-colonial consciousness through a common language, Swahili. As a result, policymakers within the British colonial government began opposing the adoption and promotion of Swahili in East Africa. With this change in Britain’s language policy, Swahili was phased out from the Ugandan education system, and its adoption in the Kenyan education system diminished. Aside from coastal areas, many elementary schools began using English as the LoI from the first grade onwards, causing a significant decline in the status of Swahili. However, in Tanzania, due to a multitude of native languages and the absence of dominant ethnic groups, Swahili continued to be used as the LoI in the early stages of basic education for practical reasons. Nonetheless, its prestige and status greatly declined due to the influence of British language policy (Mbaabu, 2007).

After World War II, the LPLP of the colonies shifted from promoting Swahili and English to endorsing indigenous languages alongside English. However, this shift posed significant challenges to the educational efforts in the colonies. All countries in East Africa were characterized by multilingualism and multi-ethnicity, with Tanganyika having over 120 indigenous languages and Kenya having over 40. The education departments in these colonies struggled to standardize and use all indigenous languages for teaching, resulting in the selection of the most prominent ones for standardization and adaptation to educational needs. Consequently, many people found that the language used in schools was not their mother tongue.

(c). Tanzania’s Language Policy in Education in Post-Independence

The language policy in Tanzania after independence can be categorized into three distinct periods: the first, from 1961 to 1966, during which the country embraced capitalism; the second, from 1967 to 1980, when Tanzania adopted socialism; and the third, from the late 1980s to the present, during which the nation reverted to a capitalist approach. Tanzania initially adopted a capitalist philosophy during the first post-independence era, spanning from 1961 to 1966. This period witnessed significant educational reforms, notably the abolition of school fees in 1963, making secondary education more accessible to Tanzanian youth. Despite eliminating school fees and implementing other changes in the educational system, Tanzania continued to use the colonial educational curriculum and LoI, employing Swahili for the first five years of elementary school and English from the sixth grade through the secondary level (Swilla, 2009).
Tanzania underwent a significant transformation in the field of education during the second post-independence period, spanning from 1967 to the 1980s. During this time, Tanzania adopted the socialist doctrine proposed by Julius Nyerere, the country's first president. He introduced the concept of Ujamaa to counter capitalist ideology and establish a society in Tanzania based on equality, freedom, and unity (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003). Tanzanian education witnessed notable changes during this period, such as the implementation of free education at all levels, aimed at providing increased access to education for Tanzanians and reducing ignorance.

Because socialism is grounded in the nationalization of primary means of production, Tanzania's government took a significant step in 1969 by nationalizing all schools through the enactment of the Education Act 50. This move brought about two major changes in the educational system: the initiation of 'Education for Self-Reliance' and the adoption of Swahili as the primary LoI (Swilla, 2009). In 1967, approximately 825,000 pupils were enrolled in elementary education, a number that surged to 3 million students from grades one to three in 1977. Concurrently, the age for primary school enrollment was raised from 5/6 to 7 years (Tabetah, 1982). During the 1970s, policymakers aimed to shift from English to Swahili at the secondary level. In 1978, the National Kiswahili Council commissioned a study to assess the expectations for this policy change. By 1984, a statement from the Ministry of Education outlined the utilization of both English and Swahili as the LoI, with an emphasis on improving English across all educational levels. In that same year, President Julius Nyerere declared the need to enhance English at the secondary level to encourage Tanzanians to learn it (Lwaitama & Rugemalira, 1990).

In the 1970s, the Ujamaa policy began facing various challenges that ultimately led to its demise. Following the initiation of this policy, numerous issues arose, both internal and external, which impeded its success and continuity. Many of these problems were inherent to the policy itself, including internal conflicts between opposing groups regarding the Ujamaa concepts, diminished agricultural production due to unreliable rainfall, economic decline caused by the war between Tanzania and Uganda, and a lack of knowledge among the populace about the Ujamaa policy (Keskin & Abdalla, 2019). These factors, coupled with external influences from entities such as the USA, World Bank, and IMF, ultimately contributed to the collapse of the socialist ideology, paving the way for the rise of capitalism.

Tanzania underwent a transition from a centralized economy to a laissez-faire economy, leading to the privatization of primary means of production. The privatization extended to education in the 1990s, allowing the establishment of private elementary schools through the enactment of Education Amendment Act No. 10 of 1995. Prior to this, in 1992, the Tanzanian government had already permitted English as the LoI in private elementary schools. However, in public elementary schools, Swahili continued to be the LoI (Swilla, 2009).

In today's Tanzanian education language policy, Swahili serves as the LoI in pre-primary and primary education, with English being a compulsory subject. As students progress to secondary and higher levels of education, English becomes the primary LoI for all subjects. In 2015, a new education policy proposed an increased role for Swahili across all educational levels (Tanzania, 2014). However, doubts regarding the implementation of these recommended political commitments have been raised (Lugongo, 2015). Politicians have even cautioned that preparing for the changes proposed in the policy might take decades. Additionally, Brock-Utne and Holmardsottir (2004) note that despite repeated commitments to shift the LoI, the situation in schools has remained largely unchanged.

Tanzania recognizes the crucial role of foreign languages in fostering diplomatic relations and promoting economic growth. Foreign languages facilitate communication with individuals from diverse nations and are instrumental in conducting international business activities. Even with Swahili as the LoI, Tanzania continues to engage with other countries using foreign languages in various domains. Thus, there is a need to emphasize foreign language teaching in schools (Tanzania, 1997). Initially, the official education system in Tanzania only incorporated English and French as foreign languages. However, in recent times, Chinese has also been officially integrated into the Tanzanian education system.

In summary, the integration of Chinese language education in Tanzania stems from the strong relationship between China and Tanzania. This relationship strengthens people-to-people connections, highlighting the importance of studying and learning each other's languages to enhance communication and understanding of one another's way of life, traditional customs, and norms. Tanzania officially introduced the teaching of Chinese at the secondary education level in 2019, aligning with the objectives outlined in Tanzania's cultural policy of 1997, which emphasizes the teaching of foreign languages at various educational levels.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a literature review and a descriptive method as the primary means of data collection. A literature review involves synthesizing information from various research papers, books, journals, and other sources to derive comprehensive conclusions or insights in literary analysis. Given that the field of language policy encompasses various disciplines, including linguistics, law, history, education, and political science, this study compiled literature data from diverse relevant fields related to language policy. The data collection involved an extensive range of sources, including journal articles, government reports, dissertations, books, and research reports. A descriptive study, on the other hand, focuses on portraying and interpreting the characteristics, behaviors, and occurrences of a particular subject. Its main objective is to present a detailed and accurate account of the subject under study without manipulating or altering the involved variables.
IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Factors Influencing Language Policy in Tanzania

In a multilingual society, LPLP are crucial as they enable the government to address language-related challenges by determining the languages to be used in education and various government organizations. LP involves considering diverse factors that influence the selection of a particular language for education or within different government institutions. These factors can vary based on a country's history, geography, social demographics, religion, or linguistic situation. In this paper, the authors analyze the various factors influencing LPLP in Tanzania, as outlined below:

(a). Ideological Factor

To a significant extent, language policy in Tanzania during colonialism and post-independence was heavily influenced by political ideology. Tanganyika, known as Tanzania today, was colonized by the Germans from 1885 to 1919. Following World War I, the colony came under British colonial rule from 1919 until 1961. Swilla (2009) asserts that a nation's policies across key domains—social, cultural, economic, and political—are shaped by ideology. In its post-independence history, Tanzania has adopted both capitalist and socialist ideologies at various junctures. Depending on whether the nation was embracing a capitalist or socialist worldview, educational policies, including language policy and the LoI, have varied. For instance, during colonyization, both Germany and Britain adopted a capitalist ideology. The choice of language was aligned with the objectives of colonialism. For example, the Germans used Swahili as an LoI and implemented it in various colonial government institutions to facilitate their administrative rule. In the British education system, Swahili was initially adopted as the LoI at the primary level and later English became the LoI from the fifth year onwards, extending to secondary and higher-level education.

Following independence, Tanzania initially maintained a capitalist ideology with some adjustments in the education sector. However, from 1967 to the 1980s, Tanzania shifted from capitalism to socialism, leading to policy changes in education to align with socialist objectives. As Nyere (1967) points out, colonial education resulted in socioeconomic disparities among Tanzanians, creating a small educated elite and a vast majority of uneducated individuals. The socialist philosophy aimed to guide the nation towards building an equitable society. Under this ideology, Tanzania made significant changes in the education sector, introducing 'education for self-reliance' and retaining Swahili as the LoI. From the late 1980s, due to internal and external factors contributing to the decline of socialist ideology, Tanzania once again embraced a capitalist ideology. This shift also influenced the language policy in education. For example, although Swahili continued to be the LoI in government-run elementary schools, the government approved the adoption of English as the LoI in private elementary schools by 1992. Presently, in Tanzania's language education policy, Swahili serves as the LoI at the elementary level. In private elementary schools, secondary, and higher levels of education, English is the LoI. Moreover, it is offered as a compulsory course at the elementary level.

(b). Social Demographic Factor

The number of language speakers and their geographic distribution play a significant role in language planning. Language planners consider both the majority language and the languages spoken by minority groups when choosing a specific language for use in education and various government organizations. As noted by Tibategeza (2010), Tanzania is a multilingual society with approximately 150 native languages spoken throughout the country, reflecting its diverse ethnic groups. Despite this linguistic diversity, a considerable portion of Tanzania's population can speak Swahili. According to Abdulaziz (2017), as of 20 years ago, around 90% of Tanzanians could speak Swahili. In contrast, Ngonyani (1995) states that in 1971, approximately 10% of Tanzania’s population spoke Swahili as their mother tongue. This widespread usage of Swahili influenced its selection as an official and national language for use in education and various government offices.

(c). Religious Factor

Religion significantly influences language policy in Tanzania. Swahili, in Tanzania, has deep connections with the Islamic religion. To a great extent, the Swahili vocabulary has been shaped by the Arabic language, with a large number of Swahili words borrowed from Arabic. This influence is rooted in the early interactions between the Swahili people and Arabs, especially along the coastal areas of Tanzania, prior to colonial rule in Tanganyika. During these early encounters, Arabs played a significant role in the widespread adoption of the Islamic religion in the coastal areas. As stated by Whiteley (1971) by 1957, 30% of Tanganyika’s population identified as Muslims, with areas like Tanga, Pwani, Morogoro, and the southern part of Tanzania having a substantial Muslim population. Consequently, the choice of the Swahili language did not face strong opposition, unlike in Uganda, for instance, where the Islamic religion fiercely competed with Christian missionaries.

In summary, political ideology, social demographics, and religious factors have significantly influenced language policy in Tanzania. Despite Swahili and English being chosen as the official languages after independence, Tanzania's language policy has faced numerous challenges. These include debates and contradictions, particularly in determining the language to be used as the LoI across all levels of education. The ongoing discourse revolves around whether English or Swahili should be the LoI at all educational stages.
B. Impacts of Language Policy on Promoting the Chinese Language in Tanzania

The language policy in Tanzania has both positive and negative impacts on the promotion of the Chinese language. This section delves into how Tanzania’s language policy affects the promotion of Chinese in the country.


1. Expansion of the Chinese Language Student Enrollment Base in Secondary Schools and Higher Levels of Education

In 2019, Tanzania officially integrated Chinese into the country’s secondary school education system, and it became a part of the university entrance examination. This decision aligns with Tanzania’s cultural policy (Tanzania, 1997) that encourages foreign language teaching and learning, enabling effective communication with other nations. On July 1, 2023, the Confucius Institute at the University of Dar es Salaam (CI UDSM) celebrated its 10th anniversary in Tanzania. Ambassador Chen Ming Jian of China to Tanzania extended sincere greetings to the attendees and commended the CI on its achievements over the past decade. She emphasized CI’s dedication to promoting Tanzanians in learning Chinese language and culture. The CI has established numerous teaching sites, trained nearly 50,000 Chinese language learners, and facilitated people-to-people exchanges and cooperation between China and Tanzania through Chinese language courses, assistance in local teaching materials and syllabuses, and organizing visits to China. The inclusion of Chinese in the education system will significantly increase the interest in learning Chinese for Chinese language studies in Tanzanian secondary schools and higher education institutions.

2. Opportunity for More Tanzanians to Learn Chinese and Help in the Cultivation and Growth of More Local Chinese Language Teachers

The establishment of the CI has marked a significant milestone in the teaching of the Chinese language in Tanzania. Recently, there has been a growing interest among Tanzanians in learning Chinese to pursue their personal and professional interests. The inclusion of Chinese language education in Tanzania offers ample opportunities for Tanzanian individuals to delve into the rich tapestry of Chinese culture. Tanzanians opt to learn Chinese for a variety of reasons, including advancing their career prospects, gaining a deeper understanding of Chinese culture, enhancing communication with Chinese individuals, facilitating business engagements, and seizing opportunities to study in China through scholarships provided by the CI and the Chinese government. Each year, the CI offers scholarships to students studying Chinese, presenting a rare and valuable opportunity for those interested in Chinese language.

Furthermore, Tanzania’s language policy significantly influences the development of local Chinese language educators. To address the need for more specialized Chinese language teachers, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) partnered with Hanban to introduce a Chinese language degree program. Additionally, UDSM offers Bachelor of Arts with Education programs, allowing aspiring Chinese language teachers to major in Chinese alongside other languages like English, Swahili, or French. Despite the scarcity of Chinese language teachers in Tanzania, the CI, in collaboration with Hanban, regularly sends experienced Chinese language teachers to Tanzania to instruct students. These teachers not only conduct teaching sessions but also promote Chinese culture through activities such as Kungfu demonstrations, martial arts displays, dragon dances, and showcasing Chinese cuisine and attire. These cultural initiatives, conducted in partnership with the Chinese Cultural Centre, aim to provide Chinese language learners and prospective teachers with a rich understanding of Chinese culture. Moreover, the CI collaborates with the Chinese government and several Chinese higher education institutions like Zhejiang Normal University to implement programs fostering and nurturing local Chinese language teachers, contributing to the sustainable advancement of Chinese language education in Tanzania.

3. Improvement of Chinese Language Learning Resources and Infrastructure in Tanzania

The establishment of the CI in Tanzania can be viewed as an integral part of the LPLP aimed at promoting foreign language teaching in the country. Initially, the Tanzania Policy of Culture in 1977 gave priority to English, French, Portuguese, and Russian languages. English was mandated as a required course in elementary and secondary schools, and it was designated as the LoI for higher levels of education. Additionally, emphasis was placed on teaching French, Portuguese, and Russian (Tanzania, 1997). Since the introduction of Chinese language teaching in Tanzania, there has been a notable increase in interest and enthusiasm for learning Chinese. The CI in Tanzania has played a pivotal role in promoting the Chinese language. The agreement between UDSM and the CI to establish a CI Centre at UDSM was made in 2013, further emphasizing the importance of promoting Chinese language teaching in Tanzania. This policy stance indicates that the Tanzanian government has been favorably disposed towards launching and advancing Chinese language instruction in the country. Moreover, the agreement and paperwork associated with the formation of the CI can be seen as integral to the language policy, showcasing Tanzania’s successful efforts in promoting the Chinese language. Overall, the establishment of the CI in Tanzania has significantly contributed to the promotion of Chinese in the country, offering various scholarship opportunities for Tanzanian students to study in China and serving as a strong motivation for learning the Chinese language.

(b). Negative Impacts of Language Policy on the Promotion of Chinese in Tanzania

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1. Instability and Poor Implementation of Tanzania Language Policy

The instability in Tanzania’s language policy hampers the promotion of Chinese in the country. The current language policy in Tanzania lacks specific policy support and government backing. For instance, the Tanzania Policy of Culture from 1977, which is still in use, underscores the importance of foreign language teaching. However, it lacks concrete strategies and a clear policy on how to effectively implement the teaching of foreign languages. Chinese, as a foreign language, has not yet received full support from Tanzania’s language policy. Presently, the CI in Tanzania plays a pivotal role in promoting Chinese, taking on responsibilities such as developing the secondary school curriculum following the official inclusion of Chinese in Tanzanian secondary schools, fostering learning motivations among Tanzanian students through scholarship opportunities and exchange programs to China, and providing essential teaching and learning resources. Swilla (2009) points out the inconsistencies between government papers and policy implementation. For instance, while the government stated that Swahili was the LoI in elementary education and that English was a compulsory subject in 1995, it had already made English a legal language of instruction in private elementary schools in 1992. This highlights the existing discrepancies between Tanzania’s language policy and its actual implementation.

2. Competition From Other Languages

Tanzania is a multilingual society with over 150 ethnic groups, each having its own ethnic language. In addition to these ethnic languages, a majority of Tanzanians can speak Swahili as a second language. Multilingualism brings about a natural competition between languages. Swahili holds the status of a national language in Tanzania, and officially, both Swahili and English are recognized as the country's official languages. However, there has been an ongoing debate regarding the language to be used as the LoI at all levels of education. For instance, the conflict between Swahili and English persists. Both languages are official in Tanzania, making it challenging to determine which should be the primary LoI in education. Despite Tanzania’s language policy placing significant emphasis on foreign language teaching, the promotion of Chinese in Tanzania faces fierce competition from other foreign languages such as English and French.

Due to inconsistencies in Tanzania’s language policy, there has been a contradiction in selecting the LoI. For instance, the current language policy designates Swahili as the LoI in elementary schools; however, English takes this role at the secondary level. Nonetheless, some education policymakers do not fully support English as the LoI at the secondary level, sparking an ongoing debate regarding the appropriate LoI in education. Moreover, there is competition between Chinese and other foreign languages, including French, which was incorporated into the Tanzanian education system earlier than Chinese. Alongside French, other foreign languages taught in Tanzania include Korean and German.

3. Shortage of Learning Resources

One of the challenges hindering the promotion and development of Chinese in Tanzania is the shortage of Chinese language learning resources. The official incorporation of Chinese in Tanzania is a result of Tanzania’s language policy, which emphasizes the importance of teaching foreign languages. However, the policy did not adequately consider the issue of learning resources. Currently, in Tanzanian schools where Chinese is taught, there is a problem of limited Chinese instructors. Due to the limited number of local Chinese teachers, the Confucius Institute usually provides volunteering opportunities for Chinese language teachers from China to come to Tanzania and engage in Chinese language teaching. A study by Saidia (2019) focused on investigating teachers’ teaching and students’ learning, specifically analyzing the situation of Chinese teaching in the classrooms of the CI in Dodoma Muslim Middle School. The study revealed that there are incomplete teaching facilities and a low utilization rate of multimedia classrooms. The results indicated that the lack of teaching facilities, including specialized workplaces necessary for office and lesson preparation, as well as daily teaching supplies like office supplies, teaching aids, recording tools, and printing and copying machines, was due to the unreasonable allocation of resources by the Confucius Institute. Additionally, issues such as synchronized class hours and shared office and teaching locations were noted. Moreover, problems like a standardized curriculum and limited class hours have indirectly led to the school's insufficient attention to the conditions of Chinese language teaching.

C. Strategies for Chinese Language Promotion in Tanzania

Based on the current challenges faced by Tanzania’s language policy in promoting Chinese language teaching, this section presents strategies that the Tanzanian government can employ to implement language policy and advance the teaching of the Chinese language in Tanzania.

(a). Develop Appropriate Chinese Language Learning Resources and Promote the Training of Local Chinese Language Teachers

Developing and disseminating Chinese language learning materials, including office supplies, teaching aids, filming equipment, printing and copying machines, textbooks, Chinese-Swahili and Swahili-Chinese dictionaries, audiovisual resources, and tailor-made online courses for the Tanzanian context, can enhance the accessibility and engagement of learning Chinese. Presently, in Tanzania, the CI is making efforts to provide teaching and learning facilities. However, since Chinese has been integrated into Tanzania’s education system, the demand for Tanzanians to learn Chinese has increased significantly. To meet these rising demands, a collaboration between the Tanzanian government and the CI is
necessary to develop more suitable Chinese language learning resources. Moreover, offering more language scholarships to young Tanzanian talents for studying in China will serve as a learning incentive for Tanzanian students and contribute to the cultivation and growth of local Chinese language teachers.

(b). Improvement and Expansion of Chinese Language Learning Channel Networks

The development of science and technology has had a significant impact on foreign language learning, making it easier and more convenient. In developed countries like China, there have been improvements in the learning environment, such as internet network accessibility, which allows language learners to have greater access and various channels for learning a language, including through the internet and different media. In countries like Tanzania, there still exists a challenge in accessing the internet. Not only that, but also, few people can afford internet costs, limiting their access to media that could aid them in learning foreign languages. In Tanzania, television and radio broadcasting are the main sources of information. Therefore, the author recommends the utilization of TV and radio stations as a way to promote Chinese in Tanzania. Mass media, such as TV, radio, and newspapers, play an important role in learning a specific language. Chinese language promotion institutions can collaborate with TV and radio stations to host Chinese language learning programs and segments, which can be conducted in an entertaining way, such as through animations and cartoons.

(c). Formulation of Clear Foreign Language Policies and Enhancing the Implementation

Currently, Tanzania’s language policy lacks a clear framework and robust support for foreign language teaching. It is undeniable that the Tanzanian government emphasizes foreign language teaching to enhance international relations and boost economic development. However, the existing language policy does not provide adequate support for the promotion of Chinese in Tanzania. There are no specific policies aimed at developing Chinese language teaching in Tanzanian schools. Therefore, the author suggests that the Tanzanian government needs to formulate new policies that will support Chinese language learning and promotion in the country’s schools.

V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, this study investigates language policy in Tanzania and its influence on the promotion of the Chinese language. The study employs a literature review and a descriptive method as the primary research methods to investigate the language policy and its impact on the promotion of Chinese in Tanzania.

Aligned with the research objectives of this study, it was found that language policy in Tanzania has evolved through two distinct periods: the colonial rule (under both German and British colonial rule) and the post-independence era, which can be further subdivided into three significant phases: 1961-1966, 1967-1980s, and 1980s to the present. The language policy during these times underwent continuous change in response to shifting political ideologies and governmental objectives.

In addition, the study finds that language policy in Tanzania has been significantly influenced by political ideology, social-demographic factors, and religious factors. The current language policy has both positive and negative impacts on the promotion of Chinese in Tanzania. The author finds that the positive impacts can be seen in the expansion of the Chinese language student enrollment base in secondary schools and higher levels of education, providing more opportunities for Tanzanians to learn Chinese and contributing to the cultivation and increase of local Chinese language teachers, as well as improving Chinese language learning infrastructure. On the other hand, the negative impacts can be observed in the current Tanzanian language policy concerning the promotion of Chinese, including instability and poor implementation of Tanzania’s language policy, competition from other languages, and a shortage of learning resources.

Based on the above research findings, the authors, considering language policy, suggest several strategies to promote Chinese in Tanzania. These include developing appropriate Chinese language learning resources and bolstering the training of local Chinese language teachers. Furthermore, there is a need to improve and expand Chinese language learning channel networks, such as utilizing mass media for Chinese language promotion. Lastly, it is essential to formulate new foreign language policies and enhance their implementation to facilitate foreign language learning.

REFERENCES

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Apology Strategies Used by Native Speakers of Kabyle

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Abstract—The present study investigates the strategies of apology used by 30 native speakers of Kabyle (15 males and 15 females) living in Bejaia city, Algeria. The data were collected through the use of a written discourse completion task (WDCT) consisting of nine hypothetical scenarios. The results of the study showed that Kabyles used different types of strategies. Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs) were the most frequently used strategy. Concern for the hearer, however, was the least frequently used strategy. Moreover, new strategies appeared in the Kabyle data. Examples of these include asking the hearer not to be angry, requests for patience, religious wishes and minimizing the degree of the offense. These semantic formulas are culture-specific. Furthermore, the findings of the study indicated that there were differences in the total number of strategies employed according to the social status of the interlocutor and in the choice of some apology strategies.

Index Terms—native speakers of Kabyle, semantic formulas, strategies of apology

I. INTRODUCTION

The term ‘speech act’ is defined as the minimal unit of discourse (Searle, 1969). In everyday conversations, people do not just produce utterances but they perform speech acts such as assertions, warnings, requests, promises, predictions, refusals, apologizing, and so on. Yule (1996) stated that “In attempting to express themselves, people do not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words, they perform actions via those utterances” (p. 47). To put it simply, every utterance encodes a particular speech act. Searle (1969) stated that “The reason for concentrating on the study of speech acts is simply this: all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts” (p. 16). So, by studying speech acts, we simply study how speakers and hearers use language and the communicative intentions behind the utterances they produce such as requesting, ordering, asserting, refusing, thanking and apologizing.

Searle (1976) classified illocutionary acts into five categories: representatives (or assertives), directives, commissives, expresives, and declarations. Apologies belong to the class of “expressives” through which speakers express their attitudes, psychological states and feelings about something.

Apologising is one of the speech acts that people frequently use in everyday conversations. The word “apology” is defined in the Collins Online Dictionary as: ‘something that you say or write in order to tell someone that you are sorry that you have hurt them or caused trouble for them’. Reiter (2000) defined apologies as “compensatory action for an offence committed by S which has affected H” (p. 44). A speaker apologizes to a hearer when he commits an offence that affects the hearer so as to restore relationships between them. Holmes (1990) stated that “An apology is a speech act addressed to B’s face-needs and intended to remedy an offense for which A takes responsibility, and thus to restore equilibrium between A and B” (p. 159).

It goes without saying that expressing apology is a universal linguistic phenomenon which plays a crucial role in restoring and maintaining interpersonal relationships between language users, however, the way people express apologies may differ from culture to culture. Although there are researchers who argued that speech acts operate by universal pragmatic principles, which means that they are performed in similar ways in different languages (e.g., Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), others have indicated that different social factors that are culture-specific cause variation in the realization of speech acts, which means that speakers of different languages differ in the way they perform speech acts (e.g., Wierzbicka, 2003). Studies that focus on the realization of speech acts in a single language or culture are known as “Intralingual Studies”.

The present study aims to identify the apology strategies used by native speakers of Kabyle. Kabyle is a dialect of the Amazigh language (or Tamazight). It is spoken by the Kabyle people in the northeast of Algeria- particularly in Bejaia and Tizi Ouzou cities. The study also aims to find out whether the social status of the interlocutor (equal, lower or higher) affects the way the subjects perform the speech act of apologizing. In short, the current study attempts to answer the following questions:
1) What are the strategies of apology used by native speakers of Kabyle?
2) What is the influence of social status on the realization of the speech act of apologizing in Kabyle?
II. Literature Review

Several studies have been conducted to explore the way people realize the speech act of apologizing in different languages, dialects and cultures (e.g., English; Arabic; Persian).

Shariati and Chamani (2010) examined the strategies of apology used by Persian speakers. The study was based on a corpus of 500 naturally-occurring apology exchanges performed in different real-life settings like universities, streets, shops and homes. The exchanges were produced by 1250 interlocutors of different ages and genders in spoken standard Persian. The data were collected by the researchers and two other MA students through an ethnographic approach to observation. The exact words used in the apology exchanges were written down. The findings of the study showed that the Persian speakers used different types of apology strategies, namely, *IFIDs*, *acknowledgment of responsibility*, *explanation*, *offer of repair* and *promise of forbearance*. *IFIDs*, followed by acknowledging responsibility, were the most frequently used strategy. *Promise of forbearance*, however, was the least frequently used strategy. Moreover, the findings indicated that *a request for forgiveness* (bebaxsˇid meaning forgive me), which belongs to the category of illocutionary force indicating devices (*IFIDs*), was the most frequently used strategy and this is attributed to the fact that Iran is a religious country in which people respect the rights of others. In addition, most of the apologies included a combination of strategies rather than a single *IFID*. The most common combination pattern of strategies included *an explicit expression of apology + an acknowledgment of responsibility*. The results of the study, on one hand are in line with some previous studies which suggest the universality of apology strategies and on the other hand, they support the idea of the researchers who argue that the choice of apology strategies is culture-specific.

Jebahi (2011) examined the strategies of apology used by native speakers of Tunisian Arabic. Data were collected from 100 Tunisian university students (50 males and 50 females) studying different subjects other than English. The ages of the subjects ranged from 19 to 25 years. A written discourse completion task consisting of ten situations was used as a tool to collect data. The situations were written in Tunisian Arabic. The results of the study revealed that *statement of remorse strategy*, which is expressed through the use of explicit apology expressions, was the most frequently used strategy by the Tunisian participants. The highest percentages of explicit apologies were reported in the three following situations: the lost package, coming late to meet the supervisor and not helping an elderly woman to cross the street. The second most frequently used strategy was *account or explanation*. Moreover, it was found that kinship terms such as ‘xuya’ (brother) and ‘ummi’ (mother) were used with statements of remorse to show that the offence committed by the apologizer was not intentional. In addition, other strategies such as *assuming responsibility*, *self-castigation, invoking Allah’s name*, *intensification*, *blaming the victim* and *offer of repair* were not frequently used by the Tunisian subjects.

González-Cruz (2012) investigated how speakers of Canarian Spanish perform the speech act of apologizing. The participants of the study were 100 university students (50 males and 50 females) studying English at the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (Canary Islands, Spain). Their ages ranged from 18 to 26 years. A discourse completion test consisting of eight situations was used as a tool to collect data. The results of the study showed that the Canarian participants employed 8 different apology strategies. *IFIDs* were the most frequently used strategy. The participants used the expression “Lo siento” meaning “I’m sorry”. The second most frequently used strategy was *giving an explanation*, followed by *humour strategy*. *Promise of forbearance* was the least frequently used strategy. The Canarian subjects used other strategies, namely, *offering redress, minimizing the offense, acknowledging responsibility* and *denying responsibility*. In addition, the results of the study indicated that there were differences between the male and female subjects with regard to the frequency of use of some strategies; for instance while men opted for *humour strategy*, women favoured giving *explanations*. The female participants also used *promise of forbearance* and *minimizing the offense* more than the male participants did.

Similarly, Sari (2016) investigated the apology strategies used by 30 native speakers of American English living in Kentucky, USA. Their ages ranged from 20 to 40 years. To collect data, the researcher used a discourse completion task consisting of 12 scenarios. The results of the study showed that the American native speakers used different types of strategies which differed in their frequency of occurrence. *Direct apologies (IFIDs)* were the most frequently used strategy which indicates that native speakers of American English use simple strategies to apologize. *Offer of repair*, followed by *taking on responsibility*, was the second most frequently used strategy which shows that Americans always try to correct their mistakes. *Promise of forbearance* was the least frequently used strategy. As for *alerters, explanation, concern to the hearer* and *downgrading strategies*, they appeared in small percentages. In addition, it was found that American native speakers do not frequently use greetings even if the status of the speaker is lower than the one of the hearer. Moreover, the results of the study indicated that the degree of the offence, social situation and social status are factors that influence the choice of apology strategies by native speakers of American English.

Alrshoudi (2020) investigated the apology strategies employed by 53 native speakers of Qassimi Arabic (a variety of Najdi Arabic spoken in central Saudi Arabia). Data were collected via direct observation; the researcher observed 34 naturally occurring apology performances during a period of 43 days. The apology exchanges were performed in different real-life settings like malls, university campuses and social media (Twitter, WhatsApp, Instagram, Snapchat and so on). The results of the study indicated that Qassimi Arabic speakers used different strategies to express apologies. Apologizing by using a combination of *illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs)* and explaining *the cause of the fault* was the most common strategy among the participants. This strategy was adopted so as to express the sincerity of
the apology. In addition, the participants tended to use an explicit expression of apology (IFID) alone such as saying “I am sorry” because they believe that it is sufficient to remedy the offence they committed. Moreover, the taking responsibility for committing the offence strategy was often used when the offended person has authority over the person apologizing like in the case where there is a student and a teacher. The strategies of offering repair and promising that the offence will not happen again, however, were not commonly used by Qassimi Arabic speakers. Furthermore, a new strategy, which was not reported in the previous literature, appeared in the Qassimi Arabic data where the offended person apologizes to the offender in order to avoid conflict with him.

Farenkia (2022) conducted a study in which he dealt with the realization of the speech act of apologizing in Cameroon French. Two groups of university students participated in the study. In the first group, there were 142 students (97 females and 45 males) studying at the universities of Douala and Yaoundé I. Their ages ranged from 18 to 30 years. As for the second group, it consisted of 80 students studying at the University of Yaoundé I (64 females and 16 males). A discourse completion test consisting of two scenarios was used as a tool to collect data. In the first situation, the participants apologize to a friend. In the second situation, the subjects apologize to a professor. The results of the study showed that the participants used different types of apology strategies depending on the nature of the offence committed and the social status of the speaker and the hearer. The Cameroon French speakers produced more direct apologies (explicit expressions of apologies) than indirect apologies which include taking responsibility, explanation, offer of repair and promise of forbearance. While the participants favoured the use of direct apologies in the friend situation, indirect apologies were the most preferred strategies in the professor situation. In addition, three types of direct apologies were found in the Cameroon data, namely expression of regret, offer of apology and request for forgiveness. Offer of apology, followed by expression of regret, was the most frequently used type of direct apologies. Contrary to the expression of regret strategy that was more frequent in the friend situation, the offer of apology strategy had a higher frequency in the professor situation than in the friend situation. With regard to the use of indirect apologies, taking responsibility, followed by explanation, was the most frequently used type of indirect apologies. Offer of repair was the most common strategy and it mostly appeared in the friend situation. Promise of forbearance was the least frequently used strategy. Contrary to the explanation and promise of forbearance strategies that were more frequent in the professor situation, the taking of responsibility strategy had a higher frequency in the friend situation than in the professor situation. Moreover, supportive acts such as greetings and self-introductions were also used by the subjects. Furthermore, the findings of the study showed that the Cameroon French speakers used nominal address terms in the friend situation to show closeness and affection and honorific terms to show respect to superiors. Codeswitching was also used by the Cameroon French speakers as a persuasive strategy.

The way people express apologies in different languages and dialects has been widely investigated in the existing literature. However, in the Algerian context, studies on the speech act of apologizing are scarce. To be more specific, no previous studies have been conducted to investigate the realization of the speech act of apologizing in Kabyle. Thus, the present study fills this gap by investigating the strategies of apology used by Kabyle native speakers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The subjects of the study were 30 native speakers of Kabyle (15 males and 15 females) living in Bejaia city, Algeria. They ranged in age from 22 to 65 years. The researcher selected the participants who were convenient and accessible.

B. Method of Data Collection

The data of this study were collected through the use of a written discourse completion task (WDCT). A DCT is the most frequently used data collection instrument in interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics. It is used to elicit particular speech acts. It consists of situations to which respondents are asked to respond as they would do in everyday life.

Based on previous research, the researcher of the present study prepared a DCT consisting of nine hypothetical scenarios. The situations were given in Kabyle. They varied in terms of the social status relationship between the interlocutors, that is, there were scenarios requiring apologies to someone of an equal status (equal-equal), other situations required apologies to someone of a higher status (low-high), and others required apologies to someone of a lower status (high-low). The nine scenarios were adopted from different researchers. Scenarios 1 and 2 were adopted from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). Scenario 3 was adopted from Nureddeen (2008). Scenarios 4, 5, 7 and 8 were adopted from Hussein and Hammouri (1998). Scenarios 6 and 9 were adopted from Al Ali (2012). A few minor changes were made to some of the scenarios.

C. Procedures

The researcher collected data from the Kabyle participants in Bejaia city, Algeria. A consent form was distributed to each participant. It gives information about the study and explains that the participation in the study is voluntary. The person who agrees to take part in the study fills out the consent form first then responds to the situations given in the questionnaire (the discourse completion task) in Kabyle. The majority of the participants did not use the Amazigh letters when writing their answers and wrote the words as they were pronounced.
D. Method of Data Analysis

The participants’ responses were coded according to the model adopted by Al-Zumor (2011) which is based on the schemes proposed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981, pp. 113–134), Olshtain and Cohen (1983, pp. 22–23) and also based on the CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns) coding manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) with the addition of a sub-category of illocutionary force indicating devices which is ‘offer of apology’ as a separate sub-category. The strategies for the expression of apology are as follows:

1. Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs) also known as explicit expressions of apology:
   a. An expression of regret, e.g. I’m sorry
   b. An offer of apology, e.g. I apologize
   c. A request for forgiveness and accepting the apology, e.g., Please forgive me/please accept my apology, excuse me

2. Explanation or account: any external mitigating circumstances, “objective” reasons for the violation, e.g.
   a. Explicit: the Traffic was terrible.
   b. Implicit: traffic is always so heavy in the morning.

3. Taking on responsibility:
   a. Explicit self-blame, e.g., It is my fault/my mistake.
   b. Lack of intent, e.g., I didn’t mean it.
   c. Expression of self-deficiency: I was confused/I didn’t see/you forgot.
   d. Expression of embarrassment, e.g., I feel awful about it.
   e. Self-dispraise, e.g., I’m such a dimwit!
   f. Justify hearer, e.g., You’re right to be angry.
   g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt:
      – Denial of responsibility, e.g., It wasn’t my fault.
      – Blame the hearer, e.g., It’s your own fault
      – Pretend to be offended, e.g. I’m the one to be offended.

4. Concern for the hearer, e.g., I hope I didn’t upset you/Are you all right?

5. Offer of repair

In cases where there were different types of IFIDs within the same apology, they were counted individually, whereas the repetition of the same strategy was considered as one occurrence.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Strategies of Apology Used by Native Speakers of Kabyle

Based on the analysis of the participants’ responses, we came out with the results shown in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs)</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. An expression of regret</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. An offer of apology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. A request for forgiveness and accepting the apology</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>41.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Explanation or account</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Explicit</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Implicit</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Taking on responsibility</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Explicit self-blame</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Lack of intent</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Expression of self-deficiency</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Expression of embarrassment</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Justify hearer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Refusal to acknowledge guilt:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Denial of Responsibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Concern for the hearer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Offer of repair</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Promise of Forbearance</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above shows that Kabyle native speakers used six different strategies to perform the speech act of apologizing. IFIDs were the most frequently used strategy accounting for 43.4% of the whole responses. The second most frequently used strategy was explanation. In the third place, taking on responsibility and offer of repair scored the
same percentages (16%). The fourth strategy with respect to the frequency of use was promise of forbearance which accounted for 2.6 % of the responses. Concern for the hearer was the least frequently used strategy (0.4%). This result is consistent with Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) who concluded that the classification of apology strategies may be universal. In other words, the main strategies that were found in other languages also appeared in the Kabyle data.

(a). Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) or Explicit Expressions of Apology

As it is shown in Table 1 above, the Kabyle subjects employed the three sub-categories of IFIDs. The request for forgiveness ‘sambah’/surfiyi’, ‘yelha smah’ (forgive me) was the most frequent strategy in the Kabyle data accounting for 41.4 % of the whole responses. The second most frequently used strategy was an expression of regret ‘shafqe atas’ (I’m so sorry). However, this expression is not frequently used by Kabyles in everyday conversations as it is used in the Amazigh language (the standard language) not in the dialect. Some of the participants expressed regret by using the French word ‘Désolé’. In cases where the word ‘désolé’ was used, it was counted as an example of expression of regret since the Kabyle dialect is very influenced by French. The least frequently used strategy was offer of apology. It was also expressed by the use of the French expression ‘Je m’excuse’ meaning ‘I apologize’ as it has no equivalent in Kabyle.

The use of the three sub-categories of IFIDs by the subjects is shown in the following examples:

Surfiyi aflaadil agi i3adligh aka felak (Forgive me for being late). Scenario (2)

Ise3wej Rebbi ifassen-iw. Le vae am wagi brij-as ar lqa3a. Ur zriy amek ara ak-d-telbye smah. (I have very clumsy hands. I dropped such a beautiful vase. I don’t know how to ask for forgiveness). Scenario (4)

Samhiyi achaf. Tikelt thangarouth. (Forgive me Boss. This is the last time). Scenario (8)

Yelha smah a Madame. TIeyawale. (Forgive me madam. I am in a hurry). Scenario (9)

Shafqe atas. D tidet yelqey. (I’m so sorry. It’s true, I made a mistake). Scenario (8)

Désolé pour le retard. D la réunion importante i nes3a. (Sorry for the delay. We had an important meeting). Scenario (2)

Je m’excuse, awid ak-d ssehagh. (I apologize. Let me correct this). Scenario (4)

(b). Explanation or Account

The second most frequently used strategy in the Kabyle data was explanation. This is consistent with Jebahi (2011) who found that IFIDs and accounts were the most frequently used strategies by Tunisian Arabic native speakers.

As it is shown in Table 1 above, the majority of the participants opted for explicit explanations, that is, they provided reasons for why they committed the offense to lessen the blame assigned to them. The following are examples of explicit accounts given by the participants:

Désolé pour le retard. D la réunion importante i nes3a. (Sorry for the delay. We had an important meeting). Scenario (2)

Semhiyi, idara3 webrid. (Forgive me, the road was closed). Scenario (5)

Azul fellak, zriy bell gessvah tet3assad wellah mmis negma iwwiy ar lvaccin. (Hi, I know that you have been waiting for me for a while. I swear that I took my nephew to the vaccination centre). Scenario (5)

Semhiyi, ryawalay (Forgive me. I am in a hurry). Scenario (9)

As for implicit accounts, the following are examples taken from the data:

Semhiyi aymadakul af retard agi. Thuillwallid lhala n transport amek. (Forgive me my friend for the delay. You know very well that there is always a problem of transport). Scenario (5)

Semhiyi kan, lweti agi n les examens yeztid fellay 3egu. (Forgive me, we are so tired during the examination period). Scenario (3)

(c). Taking on Responsibility

Table 1 shows that the subjects used different strategies to take on responsibility. In the first place, lack of intent and expression of self-deficiency strategies scored the same percentages (5.8%), followed by expression of embarrassment. Explicit self-blame was the third most frequently used strategy to acknowledge responsibility. Justify hearer comes in the fourth place. Denial of responsibility was the least frequently used strategy. The following examples illustrate the use of the different sub-categories of acknowledgment of responsibility.

1. Self-deficiency

The speaker takes on responsibility by admitting his/her inadequacy.

Tughtth I forgot your book). Scenario (1)

Ise3wej Rebbi ifassen-iw (I have very clumsy hands). Scenario (4)

Semhiyi, ur kmidwalagh ara (Forgive me, I didn’t see you). Scenario (9)

2. Lack of Intent

The participants resorted to this strategy to show that the offense was not intentional.

Semhiyi macci met3amed. (Forgive me, I didn’t do it on purpose). Scenario (4)

3. Expression of Embarrassment

Alahchoumath!! Machi exprèz, semhiyi. (This is so embarrassing!! It was not intentional, forgive me). Scenario (4)
Samhiyi melih welah sethagh, welah mazemragh amthendaragh thoura. Saveriyi chitoh ma ma3lich. (Forgive me, I swear I am embarrassed. I can’t return it now. Please be patient with me). Scenario (6)

4. Explicit self-blame
The strategy was used to show that the speaker explicitly accepts responsibility for the offence.
Samhiyi a l’étudiant. Alghalta thakad sghori. (Forgive me, my student. The error is on my part). Scenario (3)

5. Justify hearer
Samhiyi tes3id lbaq attfaq3ath. (Forgive me, you are right to be angry). Scenario (6)

6. Denial of Responsibility
The speaker completely rejects responsibility for what happened.
Machi d la fautiw. (It’s not my fault). Scenario (8)

(d). Offer of Repair
Cohen and Olshtain (1985, p. 183) define offer of repair as follows “the apologizer makes a bid to carry out an action or provide payment for some kind of damage which resulted from his/her infraction”. This strategy was employed by the subjects in different situations. The following are examples of offer of repair given by the participants:
Azeetta sur ak-i-id awi! (I will surely bring it tomorrow). Scenario (1)
Ma ufgh yiwen am agi am thidghermegh (If I find a similar vase, I will replace it for you). Scenario (4)

(e). Promise of Forbearance
This strategy is generally used in situations where the offence has been committed repeatedly. It was reported in situation 8 only. The apologizer makes a commitment not to let the offense happen again.
Sameb iyi, ur stt3awadey ara ass niq-n (Forgive me, this will not happen again)

(f). Concern for the Hearer
The apologizer uses expressions that show concern for the hearer’s well-being. This strategy appeared only in the situation where the speaker stepped on the professor’s foot.
Samhiyi, iniyyid ma yella ukemyu wayra (Forgive me, tell me if you are okay). Scenario (9)

B. New Strategies Found in the Data
New strategies appeared in the data. They are not found in the model followed in this study. Even though these strategies appeared in small percentages (There are strategies which appeared only once in the data), they are all shown in Table 2 below as some of them are culture-specific.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A request for patience</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking the hearer not to be angry</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request time to repair</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lying</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious wishes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laughing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimizing the degree of the offense</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being rude</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proverbs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determinism</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking the hearer to understand the apologizer’s situation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking the hearer not to shout at the offender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request a chance to repair</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the new strategies by the subjects is shown in the following examples:

(a). A Request for Patience
This strategy is mainly used in situation 6 where the speaker borrowed money from his colleague a year ago and didn’t return the money on time and cannot return it now.
Semhiyi oulach dachou ara khedmagh, sebriyi (Forgive me, there is nothing I can do, be patient with me).

(b). Asking the Hearer not to Be Angry
This strategy is mainly used in situations 6 and 9. The use of this strategy is linked to the assumption that the speakers already know that the hearers are angry (The scenarios clearly show that the hearers are angry). The use of this
strategy could also be linked to the assumption that the speakers will meet the hearers again and they don’t want the offence to affect their relationship. This strategy was found in other studies (e.g., Tahir & Pandian, 2016; Allili, 2016). "Ur feqṣara felli lažnayam (Please don’t be angry with me). Scenario (6)

(c). Request Time to Repair

This strategy is used in situation 6. The apologizer requested time to return the money.

Semhiyi our s3iyya idrimen thoura. Arnouyi chuiya nelwaqth. (Forgive me, I don’t have the money right now. Give me some time).

(d). Lying

This strategy was used in the situation where the student lost the book that he borrowed from his professor. This is may be due to the speaker’s fear of the professor’s reaction if he knows the truth.

Ziy telha mlih la literature Américaine, mazal ur tfuke ara. (The American literature is so good. I haven’t finished reading it). Scenario (7)

(e). Religious Wishes

This strategy appeared in scenario 4. One of the participants used the following expression:

Semhiyi. Amdikhlef Rebbi s wayen yelhan. (Forgive me. May God replace this with good things). This example shows that the speaker wishes that God will give the hearer something good as a replacement.

(f). Laughing

Two participants used this strategy in situation 4. The use of this strategy might be linked to the way the subjects perceived the offence (not severe) and to their relationship with the hearer (a friend).

Athan tw3iḍ machi expres hahaha. (You know that it was not on purpose hahaha). HHHH. Matchi bet3emedh itkhedmegh (HHHH. I didn’t do it on purpose).

(g). Minimizing the Degree of the Offense

This strategy was also employed in situation 4. It is used to say that what happened (dropping a vase) was not a big thing. This strategy was found in other studies (e.g., Hussein & Hammouri, 1998; Al-Adaileh, 2007).

Aha kan normal, semhiyi asid! (It’s nothing, forgive me, though.)

Iweze3 lxir. (This expression is used to say that something good has happened).

(h). Being Rude

The subjects employed this strategy in situation 9. This may be due to the pride that Kabyles have. They don’t like when others shout at them even if they are the ones who made a mistake.

Cc ahaywayi !! {Yeah, I wanted to do it}

Waa exprès! (You think it was or purpose or what!)

(i). Proverbs

This strategy occurred once in the data. It was used in situation 3. This strategy was also found in previous studies (e.g., Hussein & Hammouri, 1998; Al-Adaileh, 2007).

Ur yeqris uyeddid ur nyilen wann (The proverb means that it’s not late and the problem can be solved).

(j). Determinism

This strategy occurred once in the data. It was used in situation 4. This can be attributed to the effect that religion has on the way people think. In other words, Kabyles see that everything is controlled by God and everything that happens is linked to fate. The strategy has appeared in previous literature (e.g., Banikalef et al., 2015; Allili, 2016).

Allah ghaleb d lemektub semhiyi kan (It’s fate, forgive me).

(k). Asking the Hearer to Understand the Apologizer’s Situation

This strategy occurred once in the data. It was used in situation 6.

Ad seyigh aniddebra le plus vite possible, vraiment semhiyi, inchallah ayithfahmed (I will try to get the money as soon as possible, forgive me, I hope you understand my situation).

(l). Asking the Hearer not to Shout at the Offender

The strategy was employed in situation 9. This can also be due to the pride that Kabyles have. They don’t like when others shout at them even if they know they are at fault.

Sameh iyi a madame ce n’est pas exprès! Ur tt3igid ara felli! (Forgive me madam, it was not on purpose! Don’t shout at me!)

(m). Request a Chance to Repair

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This strategy was used in situation 8. The apologizer requested a chance to correct his behaviour.

Situation 8: Ernuyi tikelt agi kan, je te promets ma eqleɣ as 3awdeɣ (Give me a last chance, I promise I will not do it again).

The analysis of the data also revealed that when Kabyles apologize, they tend to swear by using the word ‘Wellah’ (I swear to God) to show that they are not lying. They also tend to use expressions like ‘Allah Ghaleb’ to say that what happened was out of their control.

C. Apology Strategy Use According to Social Status

Table 3 below shows that the Kabyle subjects used the highest number of strategies (185) when apologizing to someone of a lower status. This result may be due to how the participants viewed the severity of the scenarios provided in the questionnaire. Mistaking a student’s exam paper for another due to the similarity in their names and failing him, for instance, is considered as a serious offense. 167 strategies were used in situations requiring apologies to someone of a higher status (student-professor/ employee-manager). This may be due to the ability of the professor and the manager to exercise power and affect the future of the student/ employee. The lowest number of strategies was reported in the scenarios requiring apologies to someone of an equal status (equal-equal). The subjects may have thought that their relationship with friends or colleagues doesn’t call for the use of a great number of strategies.

As far as the choice of strategies in relation to social status is concerned, IFIDs were the most frequently used strategy regardless of the status of the interlocutor. With regard to explanation strategy, it was used more often with high (23.35%) and low (21.62%) status interlocutors compared to equal status interlocutors (19.59%). When it comes to taking on responsibility, Kabyles are found to acknowledge responsibility more when apologizing to low and equal status interlocutors. The offer of repair strategy was used more with low status interlocutors compared to both high and equal interlocutors. Promise of forbearance and concern for the hearer strategies were used only with high status interlocutors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Higher-Lower N/Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Equal-Equal N/Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Lower-Higher N/Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs):</td>
<td>72 (38.91%)</td>
<td>72 (48.64%)</td>
<td>73 (43.71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. An expression of regret</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. An offer of apology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. A request for forgiveness and accepting the apology</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Explanation or account</td>
<td>40 (21.62%)</td>
<td>29 (19.59%)</td>
<td>39 (23.35%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Explicit</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Implicit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Taking on responsibility</td>
<td>28 (15.13%)</td>
<td>30 (20.27%)</td>
<td>22 (13.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Explicit self-blame</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Lack of intent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Expression of self-deficiency</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Expression of embarrassment</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Justify hearer to acknowledge guilt:</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Denial of Responsibility</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Concern for the hearer</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>2 (1.19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Offer of repair</td>
<td>45 (24.32%)</td>
<td>17 (11.48%)</td>
<td>18 (10.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Promise of forbearance</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>13 (7.78%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>185 (100%)</td>
<td>148 (100%)</td>
<td>167 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. CONCLUSION

The current study investigated the strategies of apology used by Kabyle speakers. To sum up, the answer to our first research question is that Kabyle native speakers used six different strategies which are as follows: IFIDs> explanation or account> taking on responsibility and offer of repair> promise of forbearance> concern for the hearer. All the basic
strategies that are found in other languages appeared in the Kabyle data. In addition, the participants employed new strategies that were not found in the model followed in the present study such as asking the hearer not to be angry, requests for patience, religious wishes, minimizing the degree of the offense and determinism. These strategies are culture-specific.

The answer to our second research question is that the social status of the interlocutor had an influence on the way Kabyle native speakers performed the speech act of apologizing. The analysis of the data showed that there were differences in the total number of strategies employed according to the social status of the interlocutor and in the choice of some apology strategies. The lowest number of strategies was reported in the scenarios requiring apologies to someone of an equal status. In addition, explanation, for instance, was the second most frequently used strategy with high status interlocutors. Offer of repair and taking on responsibility, however, were the second most frequently used strategies with low and equal status interlocutors, respectively. Moreover, it was found that promise of forbearance and concern for the hearer strategies were used only with high status interlocutors. These findings show that the subjects varied their strategies according to the status of the interlocutor.

Overall, the results of the study, on one hand are in line with some previous studies which suggest the universality of apology strategies and on the other hand, they support the idea of the researchers who argue that the choice and use of certain semantic formulas is related to culture.

Future research may examine the speech act of apologizing as performed by Kabyles who live in other cities such as Tizi Ouzou and Bouira, and of course it is preferable to increase the number of subjects.

APPENDIX THE ENGLISH VERSION OF THE DCT

Section One: Personal Information:
Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
Age: ................................................
Country of residence: ..................................
State: ............................................

Section two: Apology situations:
(Imagine yourself in these situations)
Higher-lower
1. You are a university professor. You promised to return the student’s term paper that day but you forgot to bring it. Your student asks you about it. What would you say?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

2. You are a staff manager and you have kept a student waiting for an hour for a job interview because you were called to an unexpected meeting. What would you say?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

3. You are a university professor. You mistook a student’s exam paper for another due to the similarity in their names and failed him. You know that you made a mistake, and the student knows what happened and comes to see you. What would you say?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

Equal-equal
4. You are at your friend’s house, you ask him to show you his favourite vase. When you hold it, it falls and smashes. What would you say?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

5. You were supposed to meet your friend with whom you are working on a joint paper at 12 p.m but you were one hour late. What would you say?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
6. You borrowed 1000 $ from your colleague a year ago, and you didn’t return the money on time because you could not afford it and cannot return it now. Your colleague is angry with you. She/He comes to see you and asks you for the money as she/he really needs it to fulfil her/his obligations. What would you say?

Lower-Higher

7. Your professor lends you a book about American literature, and you lose it. Two weeks later, he asks you about it, what would you say?

8. You go to your work late for the third time. The manager had warned you several times. Now you are face to face with your manager. If this situation were real, what would you say?

9. You are a first-year university student and you are late for class. You are running to class and on your way, you step on your professor’s foot in the corridor. She says angrily “Hey, watch out!” What would you say?

REFERENCES


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The Effect of Implementing Cornell Note-Taking Strategies on New Students’ Performance in Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—This study investigated the effect of employing Cornell note-taking strategies to improve new students’ performance in listening comprehension at Albaha University in the Faculty of Science and Arts, Al Mandaq. The study’s population consisted of 40 first-year male students enrolled in the preparatory year program for various science subjects, including Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Mathematics, in the academic year 2021–2022. These students were enrolled in a listening course, making them suitable candidates for the study. They were divided equally into two groups: the control group and the experimental group. The experimental group underwent a training program using Cornell note-taking strategies, while the control group received no training and just completed the course as normal. The data was obtained and framed using a descriptive qualitative method. To collect the data, a pre-test and post-test were designed to measure the students’ performance before and after the training program. The data was then analyzed using the SPSS program. The findings revealed clear progress in the performance of the experimental group compared to the control group. The poor performance of the control group was attributed to their lack of knowledge about note-taking strategies and their insufficient practice of and feedback on Cornell note-taking strategies.

Index Terms—Cornell note-taking strategies, listening comprehension, listening classes, preparatory year program, Albaha University students

I. INTRODUCTION

Notes are condensed summaries of source material, typically created by recording information as it is being conveyed by listening, studying, or observing (Kiewra et al., 1989). They serve as a means of gathering information during various learning situations, such as lectures or when reading books. In essence, they act as external memory aids that feature more or less explicit content.

Note-taking can be challenging, often resulting in inadequate notes or missing information, which is a common issue among students (Zuckerman, 2016). This is a problem that needs to be addressed because learning note-taking techniques is crucial for students, as it enables them to retain knowledge that they would otherwise forget. Effective note-taking involves more than just recording everything heard; it also entails accurately summarizing critical ideas in one’s own words, drawing connections between concepts presented in different lectures and lessons, and writing down any questions that come to mind in order to enhance comprehension and clarity (Blog, 2018).

The actual setting or context in which instruction and note-taking take place is a crucial factor in determining how effectively one learns while taking notes (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2013). Even though a classroom is the most typical place to take notes since it offers more immersive and engaging benefits than other settings, potential distractions may affect a student's ability to learn and take notes from other students. Moreover, in regard to studying and taking notes during lectures, many students frequently struggle. These challenges often manifest as difficulties in staying focused during lectures, keeping up with the fast pace of the material, comprehending one’s notes after class, ensuring readability, and deciding what information is most important to record. These issues frequently lead to incomplete or partial lecture notes (Tolliver, 2017).

The notes that students take in class or while studying for a test are crucial learning resources. Many students and teachers see note-taking as a straightforward and intuitive talent, but few consider the practices required to optimize note-taking. Ironically, many students are either unaware of the benefits of effective note-taking or do not understand why they should learn how to do it throughout their academic careers. Taking good notes may help students to stay focused in class, improve study habits, achieve higher scores, and remember more of what is read. A clear demonstration of the significance of notes is that students predominantly rely on memorization of notes while studying for high-stakes tests (Morehead et al., 2016).

Given that notes serve as the foundation for what students learn, it is critical to understand where and when students take their notes and the strategies they use to review their notes to increase recollection and retention of the course

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content. Success in school, in the workplace, or in broader life typically hinges on one’s ability to take notes. For instance, in situations where it is impossible to re-listen to a presentation or lecture, note-taking becomes an indispensable skill. Consistent note-taking and storage of information for future use are fundamental to overall academic performance. People take notes for multiple purposes, including learning, improving long-term memory, and keeping track of occurrences (Bohay et al., 2011). By taking notes, users may transfer their knowledge to an external source, such as paper, and make information explicit for subsequent use.

It may be intimidating and overwhelming for first-year college students to sit in large lecture rooms with hundreds of other students. High school graduates who are used to working in smaller discussion groups and therefore need to familiarize themselves with university settings can benefit from developing new listening skills, such as taking notes and using them as a cognitive learning technique (Hismanoglu, 2000).

One of the most crucial variables for good academic learning is the capacity to take notes during lectures (Carrell et al., 2004). As a result, taking notes is one of the key strategies by which students learn and a compelling means by which they may take control of their learning (Burns & Sinfield, 2012).

The challenges that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students face in taking notes and understanding what they hear have been identified as underlying causes of their difficulties (Ferris & Tagg, 1996). These difficulties often lead students to disengage in class because they cannot understand the teacher's verbal instructions. According to research, students who take lecture notes experience considerable improvements in listening comprehension and test scores (Aminifard & Aminifard, 2012).

Studies exploring the link between note-taking and the retention of lecture content have led to modifications in the technique and style of note-taking. Notes are typically hand-written or typed on a computer, but, due to the recent increase in the use of computers for note-taking during lectures, researchers have grown concerned about how this new technology may affect students’ ability to recall and apply the knowledge they acquire in class (Grahame, 2016; Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2016; Numazawa & Noto, 2016).

Note-taking is a challenging task (Nakayama et al., 2017). Students struggle the most with taking complete and correct notes, recalling lecture subjects and details, and concurrently writing them down with a suitable degree of linguistic competence. In addition, the limited vocabulary of EFL students and the intense mental stress required on their part while taking notes can have a negative impact on both the quality of the notes they take and their exam performance. In other instances, students may lack the required abilities to take appropriate lecture notes and therefore ask for the teacher's help. The teachers must offer to help these students with note-taking and encourage them to identify crucial points addressed during class (Jacobs, 2014).

Objectives of the Study

This study investigates the effect of employing Cornell note-taking strategies on improving new students’ performance in listening comprehension at Albaha University Faculty of Science and Arts. More specifically, we assess the effect of employing Cornell note-taking strategies on listening comprehension; describe various types of note-taking; shed light on note-taking sequences in learning; emphasize the significance of note-taking in long-term success; and make recommendations regarding how to raise students’ performance in listening comprehension. To address these objectives, we formulated the following research questions and derived three hypotheses based on them.

Research questions:

Q1 Do students use Cornell note-taking strategies in listening classes?

Q2 Are students aware of the relationship between note-taking strategies in listening classes and academic success?

Q3 Why do students struggle in listening comprehension classes?

Hypotheses:

H1 Students do not employ Cornell note-taking strategies in listening classes.

H2 Students are unaware of the relationship between note-taking strategies in listening comprehension classes and academic success.

H3 The difficulties that students face in listening comprehension classes are due to many factors.

II. Literature Review

According to studies on how individuals acquire a second language, numerous note-taking techniques can be employed to assist, arrange, and recall information from classroom lectures. An infallible methodology of six practical note-taking approaches is as follows (Pauk, W. & Owens, R.J.Q, 2013):

Outlining Note-Taking Method

It is a common practice to use bullet points and indentation while outlining (Hayati & Jalilifar, 2009). There is no need to use integers, alphabetic letters, or Roman numerals. The first step calls for taking careful notes by listening meticulously and indenting each subject in the correct sequence. The left side of the graph is where most of the time and effort should be concentrated. An extra right-justified indentation is required for each successive level of detail. The simplicity of this technique, which requires minimal modifications and can be examined rapidly, is one of its fundamental characteristics. However, more in-class preparation is necessary for its implementation, and the method cannot be applied if the material that needs to be absorbed is being presented too quickly.
Charting Note-taking Method

If the structure of a lecture or lesson is understood, the chart note-taking method can be used. This technique involves organizing the document in the form of a table by drawing columns and labeling suitable headers. While listening to the lecture, the students organize acquired information such as words, sentences, and important concepts in order to keep track of ideas and connections, thereby reducing the amount of required writing. This method provides an efficient way to review your notes, making them suitable for memorization, as well as for making comparisons and connections between different pieces of information (Thomas, 2021).

Mapping Note-taking Method

Mapping is a unique form of note-taking that connects each fact or concept to every other piece of information or concept, thereby creating a graphical representation of a lecture's content. It is a strategy that optimizes active engagement, facilitates instant comprehension, and stresses critical thinking. This approach allows one to visually follow the lesson regardless of the environment. There is no mental effort required, and connections are readily apparent. In addition, it is simple to alter notes by adding numbers, symbols, and color-coding. The main ideas may be written on flash or note cards and assembled into a table or broader structure and reviewed by reviewing lines and connections for memory drills.

Sentence Note-taking Method

This note-taking method requires students to number each new idea, piece of information, or event as they write it on a separate line. This approach results in a well-organized set of notes that is more structured than traditional paragraph-style note-taking. However, the sentence technique cannot discern major/minor points from the numerical sequence and the full extent of the lecture's organization and structure may not be immediately clear until the notes are reviewed and connections are refined through editing. This technique is typically used when the lecture is well-organized but contains a large amount of information.

Cornell Note-taking Method

The Cornell note-taking method is presented in a manner that should be easily understandable for any student. This line of investigation tries to address whether this kind of note-taking helps students retain the concepts that are presented during class lectures. For this evaluation, a tried-and-tested technique that takes a more comprehensive approach was selected: the Cornell method (CM). When it was initially designed, its principal purpose was to simplify the note-taking process for Cornell University students. A standard Cornell note-taking template is provided in Table 1. This practice provides systematic frameworks for both note-taking and analysis. Students who are just beginners in note-taking and want to avoid wasting time and effort on irrelevant information will profit immensely from this method since it makes it easy to extract the most important words and ideas. The Cornell system is both a note-taking and a study system. It consists of six steps:

- **Record** Prepare notepaper, summarize, paraphrase, and indicate topic changes.
- **Question** Formulate test questions based on the information recorded in notes and write them in the recall clues column on the left-hand side of the notes.
- **Recite** Recitation means explaining the information in the notes in your own words. This improves learning, ensures understanding, and facilitates retrieval.
- **Reflect** Reflection is the act of drawing insights from the material learned.
- **Recapitulate (summarize)** Write a summary of the main ideas using your own words.
- **Review** A good guideline is to review your note several times during the week by reciting, not merely reading, them.

Sketch Noting Method

Also known as graphic notes or visual note-taking, sketch noting, as its name suggests, is the practice of taking textual notes that are embellished with images, symbols, structures, doodles, and basic drawings (Bell, 2015; Neill, 2019). Drawing is not only enjoyable and stimulating but has been demonstrated to be a more effective method for improving memory and later retention than writing alone (Wammes et al., 2016). Additionally, including visuals in note-taking should be a highly enticing notion (Elmore & McPeak, 2017). When done correctly by either students or teachers, sketch notes not only record ideas but also convey a narrative.

It is important to highlight that many students have adapted their note-taking strategies by incorporating digital tools. Instead of using traditional notepads, they now rely on note-taking applications on computers or mobile devices. However, interestingly, traditional note-taking methods, like photos of the text on the board, are still being used. This demonstrates that note-taking has remained popular despite the rapid advancement of technology (Hseyin & Okan, 2019). Indeed, a survey on note-taking practices conducted between 2012 and 2013, which involved 99.6 percent of 435 university students, found that 93.8 percent of them frequently took notes (Peverly & Wolf, 2019). Moreover, 53.4 percent of survey participants said they sometimes took notes on a computer, but as many as 96.5 percent of students prefer
said they took notes on paper occasionally.

Some academicians support taking notes on a laptop instead of paper when attending a university. Students have a variety of note-taking options, including typing notes on a laptop or tablet or taking notes longhand in a notebook, or utilizing an electronic device. When studying which method is most effective in real-world classes, taking notes by hand has typically resulted in performance outcomes that are as good or even better than digital alternatives (Carter et al., 2017; Peteranetz, Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2016).

Surprisingly, though, one study found that laptop note-taking resulted in improved memory test performance (Schoen, 2012). Additionally, an interaction effect was also observed, which revealed that typing notes during lectures resulted in better performance, while longhand note-taking during lectures resulted in worse performance. No difference in memory performance existed between note-taking methods when the course material was provided as text. A plausible explanation for this interaction effect is that no new information is supplied while taking notes from the printed text (Aragón-Mendizábal et al., 2016). Further information is offered only while listening to a conversation or watching a video lecture. This means that students must split their attention between listening to the lecture and taking notes, so, given that typing notes is faster than writing them by hand, typing on a laptop may be more effective for recording information.

### Table 1

**Cornell Note-Taking Format Sample** (Centre, 2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recall Clues</th>
<th>Record</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Utilize concise sentences to summarize important information.</td>
<td>Record notes here:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Produce and draft credible study material.</td>
<td>• Any content, including illustrations, issues, and solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Include verbal examples, questions, and answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Include any relevant, remarkable comments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary**

Create a summary of the lecture:

- Encourages critical thought regarding the issue at hand.
- It may contain words, equations, problems, answers, diagrams, and drawings.
- The overview section should also assist in determining which details require clarification.

**The benefits of note-taking**

Taking notes provides students with several significant advantages. It allows them to avoid the necessity of reading an entire book (Bahrami & Nosratzadeh, 2017; Saravani, 2019; Umaadevi & Rekha, 2019); it improves their cognitive abilities by drawing their attention to the reading or listening material, which prevents them from missing any of the information presented in class; it promotes independence; and it helps students retain crucial information. As in the example mentioned earlier, 96.5 percent of students indicated they took notes on paper sometimes, while 53.4 percent of survey participants claimed they took notes on a computer occasionally. Thus, note-taking can help students excel in listening and recalling consequential details about the subjects taught, as well as improving their writing skills through a range of methods and techniques (Walker et al., 2017; Roy et al., 2016). Taking notes provides more than a transcript of a class discussion or lecture (Slotte & Lonka, 2003); it is a crucial study tool that offers the following benefits:

**Enthusiasm**

Taking notes keeps the body active and engaged, which in turn keeps the mind alert and prevents feelings of exhaustion or distraction.

**Promotes notion**

Note-taking actively engages the mind in the content being presented. By paying close attention and choosing what to include in their notes, students become more involved with the material.

**Classified material**

Organizing notes by selecting and highlighting essential information, and underlining supporting topics within a presentation, makes it easier to draw connections between what is learned in class and what is read in the textbook.

**Concise research archive**

A series of concise, well-organized notes from each class session provides everything needed to study, learn, and review after class.

It might even be claimed that note quality cannot be appraised by anybody other than the user of the notes, as a specific note format suitable for one person may not be the most effective or suitable means of conveying content for another (Bui et al., 2013). Moreover, the process of encoding knowledge into words or images creates new neural connections in the brain, which strengthens its storage in long-term memory, as opposed to information simply being passively absorbed (Gonzalez, 2018). Storing information in new areas of the brain in this way allows for easy retrieval and reinforces the retention of acquired knowledge. In general, one of the most important things teachers can do to help students take notes is to provide material in a clear and structured manner. The organizational structure of the content must be understood not only by the instructor but also by the students (Reynolds & Tackie, 2016). One method to accomplish this is to give students guided notes that make the organization clear to them. This might be as simple as an outline with space for students to write notes to solve example issues.
III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study involved 40 participants who were students in the preparatory year program at Al-Baha University, specifically from the College of Science and Arts in Al-Mandaq. These students take a listening and speaking course, which aligned perfectly with the focus of this study. The participants were randomly selected and divided equally into two groups: the experimental and control groups. The age range of the participants ranged from 18–19 years, and they had each studied English for approximately eight years. Therefore, it was assumed that the participants’ proficiency levels would be equal. The research was conducted in the academic year 2021/2022. In the experimental group, the researcher and other college instructors took part in the note-taking program, while the control group was taught the regular English course by their usual instructors.

Data Collecting Tools

For this study, the following instruments were carefully chosen to collect the necessary data:

Pre-listening test

The pre-listening test was administered for both groups. The students listened to the audio material twice and answered the twelve written multiple-choice questions. The achievement of both groups was documented for further investigation and manipulation to obtain reliable data. With appreciated cooperation from the department staff, the researcher conducted the test.

Post-listening test

Before running the post-listening test, the experimental group received explicit learning and training using the Cornell note-taking method during listening classes. The control group, by contrast, did not receive any kind of training with respect to taking notes and participated in the course as normal. The post-listening test was the same as the pre-listening test and was conducted for both groups. By employing the SPSS program, the result of the post-test was documented, analyzed, and compared to the result of the pre-test to determine whether there was any difference between the performances of the two groups.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

After completing the analysis and manipulating the data, the following results were produced:

Pre-listening test

The test was carefully designed to meet the needs of the study. It was driven by an audiobook, Graded Reader. The listening passage entitled Mr. Bean in Town included short conversations (Appendix). The listening material was selected wisely to suit the students’ level. The students listened to the passage twice and then answered the questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question No.</th>
<th>Correct Answer</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Incorrect Answer</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Correct Answer</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Incorrect Answer</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>58.33%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41.66%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41.66%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>58.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41.66%</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>66.66%</td>
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</table>
Table 2 and Figure 1 show the performance of the control and experimental groups in the pre-listening test. The student’s scores across the two groups were broadly similar—that is, the participants did not score high grades on this test, which means they were unfamiliar with note-taking strategies.

The highest correct score for the control group was 58.33% (for questions 1 and 3); the lowest score was 25% (for questions 6 and 9). For the experimental group, meanwhile, the highest score was 58.33% (for question 8), while the lowest percentage was 16.66% (for question 6).

On the other hand, the highest incorrect percentage for the control group was 66.66% (for questions 7 and 10), while the lowest percentage was 41.66% (for question 1). Concerning the experimental group, the highest incorrect percentage was 83.33% (for question 6), while the lowest percentage was 41.66% (for question 8).

Generally, variation in the performance of the two groups was not expected. However, the process was only designed to compare the early achievement of the students across the two groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Post-Listening Test of the Control and Experimental Groups</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THE CONTROL GROUP</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question No.</td>
<td>Correct Answer</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
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</table>
Figure 2. Post Listening Test of the Control and Experimental Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEST TYPE</th>
<th>PRE-TEST CORRECT</th>
<th>PRE-TEST INCORRECT</th>
<th>POST-TEST CORRECT</th>
<th>POST-TEST INCORRECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>7.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>6.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ANOVA Computation**

The ANOVA computation conducted in this study involved a comparison of four means. Two of these means represented the correct and incorrect means of a pre-test, while the other two means represented the correct and incorrect for a post-test of the two groups (Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MEAN BETWEEN GROUPS</th>
<th>SUM OF SQUARES</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MEAN SQUARE</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>SIG.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct scores of the control group in the pre-test</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect scores of the experimental group in the pre-test</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect scores of the control group in the post-test</td>
<td>40.042</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.042</td>
<td>15.477</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct scores of the experimental group in the post-test</td>
<td>45.375</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45.375</td>
<td>21.429</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The computation of ANOVA for the post-tests revealed a statistically significant difference between the total means of correct and incorrect scores of the pre-test of the experimental groups, with a p-value of 0.001. However, the computation of the pre-test does not show any statistically significant difference between the total means of the correct and incorrect scores in the control and experimental groups because of the p-value of 0.867, which is more than the proposed value of 0.05 / 0.001. These results indicate the consistency in the performance of students in the post-test in comparison to their performance in the pre-tests, which may be attributed to the training they received.
V. DISCUSSIONS

This research set out to demonstrate how Cornell note-taking strategies affect students' achievement in listening comprehension classes. To effectively perform the research, precise hypotheses were generated in order to make the results more realistic and authentic.

According to the first hypothesis, the students did not employ Cornell note-taking strategies in listening classes. To investigate this hypothesis, a listening test was designed to determine whether the students had pre-knowledge about Cornell note-taking strategies. The test results were poor and demonstrated that the students had not employed such strategies in listening classes. The second hypothesis posited that the students were unaware of the relationship between note-taking strategies in listening comprehension classes and academic success. This hypothesis was evaluated through a written test, which revealed that many students selected the incorrect option because they had not been taking notes during listening activities. The third hypothesis suggested that students’ difficulties in listening comprehension classes are due to many factors. According to the test results and the students’ performance, it was indeed found that miscellaneous factors were accountable for the students’ poor achievement. Students were observed to be unconcerned about taking notes during listening comprehension classes and to demonstrate a lack of focus and concentration. It was also evident that students needed more exposure to note-taking techniques, as they had not been previously familiar with them.

VI. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The outcomes of this study show the extent to which students apply Cornell note-taking approaches. It was found that neglecting the use of these techniques in listening classes is a common occurrence among students. The results also revealed that many students are unaware of the relationship between note-taking strategies in listening classes and academic success, leading them to encounter difficulties in listening classes. Therefore, teachers should allocate considerable time for students to practice note-taking techniques to improve their learning. To do so, the syllabus designers must introduce more topics on note-taking strategies for teachers. In this way, learners of English-related skills and other subjects can acquire valuable skills and reap the benefits of faster learning. The note-taking process is one of the most critical aspects of conducting listening classes effectively and accurately.

APPENDIX

Pre- and Post-Listening Test

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zPjEMwK5d9Y

1- How could Mr. Bean make his birthday an important day?
   a- He went to the beach  b- H stayed at home
   c- He celebrated with a friend  d- He went out to a restaurant
2- Did Mr. Bean often eat in restaurants?
   a- Yes, he did  b- No, he didn’t
3- How did Mr. Bean prepare himself for that evening?
   a- He invited his friends  b- H had his hair cut
   c- He put on new clothes  d- He lent money
4- Where was the restaurant?
   a- In the center of the town  b- In the outskirt of the town
   c- By the beach  d- In the dreamland
5- When did Mr. Bean arrive at the restaurant?
   a- At seven o’clock  b- At eight o’clock
   c- At nine o’clock  d- At ten o’clock
6- How was the restaurant look like?
   a- It was horrible  b- It was very nice
   c- It was dirty  d- It was untidy
7- Where did the manager meet Mr. Bean?
   a- At door  b- In the yard
   c- In the car parking  d- In the hall
8- How did the manager behave?
   a- Politely  b- Carelessly
   c- Impolitely  d- Arrogantly
9- What did Mr. Bean take out of his pocket?
   a- A cigarette  b- A sweet
   c- A flower  d- A birthday card and an envelope
10- What did Mr. Bean write on the card?
12- Did Mr. Bean seem to have friends?
   a- Yes, he did   b- No, he didn’t

11- What did Mr. Bean pretend to see?
   c- The cost of the dinner d- A complaint

   a- Happy birthday my friend   b- Happy birthday Bean


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A Mystery or a Route? A Systematic Literature Review of Transcreation and Translation Studies

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Abstract—Transcreation is an inter-cultural and inter-linguistic activity, which has obtained particular academic interest recently. However, few studies have reviewed the current status quo on transcreation systematically, although transcreation has been applied in various fields such as literature and advertising translation. In this study, a systematic literature review is conducted to shed light on this topic by identifying and analysing genres, foci, methods, and theories related to transcreation. The databases cover Scopus, Web of Science and CNKI from 1995 to 2023. A total of 61 publications were identified with PRISMA 2020. The qualitative findings showed that (1) most studies of transcreation focus on literary and advertising, while other fields of audiovisual, news and political, training and interpreting need to be explored; (2) research foci of transcreation strategies, culture and ideology gain more attention while transcreation process and evaluation, localization and persuasion have not been much examined; (3) content analysis is most frequently adopted while other qualitative methods are less used. Besides, there is a lack of using quantitative and mixed methods; (4) systematical functional linguistics is often used as a pointcut to examine strategies of transcreation. Besides, multimodal social semiotics is used to explore transcreation through texts, pictures and videos. Other linguistic theories and cross-disciplinary theories remain unexplored in transcreation. In conclusion, this study provides a review of transcreation and translation studies and reveals some research gaps that could enlighten future studies.

Index Terms—PRISMA, qualitative analysis, systematic literature review, transcreation, translation studies

I. INTRODUCTION

In an academic context, transcreation was introduced by scholar Lal (1957, 1964) in the Indian tradition of translation, where he put forward the requirements for translators to edit, reconcile, and transmute when translating. Moreover, the purpose of transcreation as intended by Lal is to capture the spirit of the text and recreate it in a different language to engage the reader. Although it originated in literature, transcreation has been introduced in advertising, audiovisuals, news and political translation recently.

Transcreation vs. Translation

The definition of transcreation has long been debated since its occurrence. Some scholars regard it as a kind of translation strategy in projects requiring linguistic and cultural adaptation (Kassawat, 2020; TAUS, 2019), which denies the independence of transcreation as a professional practice. On the contrary, some scholars stress distinctions between transcreation and translation. One of the obvious distinctions is creativity, indicating that transcreation is not just a translation of the source text, but the creation of new text content (Rike, 2013). In other words, transcreation gives more freedom for translators to modify, omit and even add elements to the adapted materials (Mangiron & O’Hagan, 2006, p. 20).

By contrast, some scholars didn’t attribute differences to creativity but to cultural adaptation (Ray & Kelly, 2010). Transcreation is basically understood as an effective way to ensure that message is culturally relevant and appropriate for the target audience, which puts transcreation between translation and copywriting or copy-adaptation. The same case in marketing and advertising, transcreation is regarded as a service or an economic activity (Carreira, 2022, 2023) which
transfers brands and messages from one culture to another, making texts more appealing to the target consumers (Pedersen, 2014).

As can be seen in the development of defining transcreation, the scope of transcreation has been expanded from initial literary to advertising and audiovisual translation. The reason transcreation has been widely applied in advertising lies in the fact that transcreation puts more emphasis on cultural adaptation. For instance, translation is not enough when global brands aim to access local markets; it is necessary to speak to the audience using the right cultural nuances (Pedersen, 2014). In this opinion, transcreation is considered an added value for translation, since translation transfers words from one language to another while transcreation transfers brands and messages from one culture to another. Besides, transcreation has been applied in game localization, where creativity remains the most important element that gives greater freedom for translators to adapt texts to offer the same game experience to the targeted audience (Gaballo, 2012). Furthermore, it is noticed that transcreation is also used in some fields that are less connected with creativity such as medical field and law (Hu & Wu, 2020; Simmons et al., 2011). In these domains, transcreation also works as a way to adapt materials to the targeted culture and make them more understandable for targeted readers.

Since studies on transcreation have been increasing and applied in different fields from literary to advertising, the research status quo and gaps in transcreation need to be figured out in this study, which is hoped to have a better understanding of transcreation and translation studies.

Research Questions

This study provided an overview of current literature on transcreation with the following research questions:

1. What is the research status quo of transcreation and translation?
2. What are the limitations and research gaps of current studies?

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A systematic literature review is carried out based on PRISMA 2020 in this study due to its detailed flow of charts delineating different phases of systematic literature review: identification, screening, eligibility, and qualitative syntheses (Liberati et al., 2009).

A. Database and Search Strategy

The systematic literature review was conducted based on these three databases: Scopus, Web of Science and China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI). Scopus was selected due to its largest single abstract and indexing database (Burnham, 2006). Web of Science was chosen due to its most comprehensive database covering the most peer-reviewed journals in social sciences (Steinhardt et al., 2017). CNKI is chosen as ‘the largest academic Chinese journal full-text database worldwide covering various disciplinary studies’ (Li, 2020, p. 41). Besides, studies published in core journals were selected in CNKI to ensure high quality. This choice of three databases increases the quality of the included studies.

Year 1995 was chosen as the starting point for it is the earliest study on transcreation in three databases; thus, the duration of studies included is from 1995 to 2023. Considering the relevant theme focused, the searching keyword is “transcreation” in searching titles, keywords, and abstracts in Scopus and Web of Science while “创译” (chuang yi, transcreation) is chosen in CNKI database. All searches were conducted between October 1, 2023, and December 31, 2024. The criteria for the inclusion and exclusion of studies are listed below (see Table 1).

<table>
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<th>TABLE 1 INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION CRITERIA</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Criteria</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Inclusion</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Exclusion</strong></td>
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B. Data Extraction and Quality Assessment

There are 433 publications from CNKI, 190 from Scopus, 127 from Web of Science and 5 from snowballing (see Figure 1). The total number is 654 after the removal of duplicates. At the screening stage, 378 articles from CNKI were removed because only articles from core journals were included. 108 articles were excluded for their irrelevance with translation as they fell into the fields of medical and public health based on their abstracts. 18 articles not written in English or Chinese were excluded due to the author’s language ability. A total of 115 full-text articles were assessed for their eligibility. After 50 articles that mentioned transcreation but were not focused on translation were excluded, 65 articles were included. After quality assessment based on critical appraisal (Crowe, 2013), 4 studies were excluded because they only referred to transcreation while focusing on other themes. Finally, 61 articles were extracted and analysed.
III. DATA EXTRACTION AND SYNTHESIS

There are four sections in results interpretation, research genres, research foci, methods applied in transcreation studies, and theories applied in transcreation studies. In general, there is an increasing trend for publications (see Figure 2).

In Figure 2, the result presents the distribution of transcreation studies between 1995 and 2023. First, from 1995 to 2009, the number of studies on transcreation has a relatively slow increase and there are totally three studies. Second, the number of studies on transcreation has increased rapidly from 2009 to 2019. More specifically, there was an outstanding rise in the number of studies from 2015 to 2019 with totally 21 articles included. Third, compared with the previous period, the number of studies on transcreation continued to increase steadily from 2019 to 2023 with 28 studies included. Basically, the number of studies related to transcreation has been on the rise since its first occurrence in 1995, but at different paces in different periods.

A. Research Genres

The genres of relevant studies most concentrate on literary and advertising, combined with other genres of audiovisual, news and political, medical, training and interpreting and law (see Figure 3).
As shown in Figure 3, advertising and literature are relatively most focused on studies of transcreation. Specially, there are sixteen articles focusing on advertising texts and the included studies mainly concentrate on luxury advertising (Ho, 2021; Zhu et al., 2023) and corporate website content (Al-Omar, 2020; Kassawat, 2020; Wang et al., 2021). It should be noticed that one study selected texts from both the corporate website and YouTube of a beer company called Estrella Damm (Corrius & Espasa, 2023). As for literary, there are twelve articles concentrating on literary texts, involving poetry (Chakravarty, 2021; Wu, 2022), comics (Borodo & Wood, 2023; Nam & Jung, 2022), novels, short stories and lyrics (Nishimura & Itoh, 2020). It is notable that one study selected adventure comic Thorgal as a sample and compared its two translated versions of US and UK, proving transcreation is used in textual and visual aspects (Borodo & Wood, 2023).

Compared with other genres, studies of transcreation in legal contexts are relatively scarce. There are only three articles focusing on law transcreation and the texts include legal language and law terms. For example, legal language is focused on one study to verify the existence of transcreation in legal translation (Husa, 2017). Besides, studies of other genres including audiovisual, news and political, medical, training and interpreting are medium in number. Specifically, seven articles discuss audiovisual translation with games (Fernández, 2014; Mangiron & O’Hagan, 2006), subtitles (Chaume, 2018), dubbing (Yahiaoui, 2022), and transmedia projects (Malenova, 2018). Besides, five studies are relevant to news and political translation, involving news translation, political books and Chinese diplomatic discourse (Zhang & Fan, 2022). In addition, there are six articles focusing on the translation of medical texts involving smoking cessation materials, cancer prevention messages and traditional Chinese medicine. At last, other genres involve food tags, public signs and the definition of transcreation.

B. Research Foci

As shown in Figure 4, there are 8 research foci listed in columns. Most studies of transcreation examine transcreation strategies and culture and ideology. Besides, some efforts are being made to explore the definitions of transcreation, teaching and training, process and evaluation, localization, persuasion and untranslatability.

Firstly, most studies discuss transcreation as one of the translation strategies parallel to literal translation and free translation, but give no specified framework for transcreation (Ai, 2014; Galván, 2019; Gao & Hua, 2021). For example, transcreation was put forward as a translation strategy together with free translation and literal translation in the English translation of science fiction Three-Body. However, there are five studies offering categorizations of transcreation strategies. For instance, Untari (2023) classified the transcreation strategies of online news headlines into three aspects: bombasting, referencing, and bamboozling. Pedersen’s (2014) transcreation strategies were adopted to examine the advertising translation of fragrance products, which include substitution, specification, direct translation, and retention. Another study conducted by Morón and Calvo (2018) categorised transcreation strategies into omission, addition, modification and domestication. While these frameworks of transcreation are only suitable for texts in limited fields, there is a need to develop more complete frameworks of transcreation in future studies.
Secondly, culture and ideology receive much attention in studies of transcreation, which cover various texts of political, medical, comics and advertising. There are three studies focusing on the ideology of transcreation. For example, one article discusses ideological differences reflected by the transcreation of news articles on two web portals Blic and N1, which indicates that the motive of transcreation is to influence the general opinion, beliefs, and attitudes of people (Petrović, 2023). Apart from ideology, culture is also discussed in transcreation, including cultural adaptation, stereotypes, the translator’s role, cultural images and cultural references. More specifically, there are studies related to medical texts analysing how to employ methods of transcreation to make translated texts more adapted to the targeted readers and meet the health literacy and informational needs of the group (e.g., Piñeiro, 2018). It is noticed that two studies focus on the translator’s role in cultural mediation (Katan, 2016; Rike, 2013), giving evidence of the translator’s invention in texts by transcreation. Besides, there is a study taking Xu Yuanchong’s English translation of Tang poetry as an example to examine the reshaping of cultural image by transcreation strategy (Wu, 2022).

Thirdly, studies also involve practical teaching and training of transcreation. For instance, it has developed an expert-validated competence model for transcreation teaching in higher education (Díaz-Millón & Olvera-Lobo, 2023), and another transcreation training project named TeCreaTe offers practical experience in commercial transcreation. In addition, there are several studies discussing workflows and quality evaluation of transcreation (Carreira, 2021; Risku, et al., 2017). For example, a study mentioned that the typical translation evaluation grid used in transcreation makes fewer errors, showing its feasibility in advertising text (Benestello, 2018).

Fourthly, compared with other research foci, localization, persuasion and untranslatability have not been examined sufficiently. Specifically, it seems that localization is more linked to games than other fields. Besides, persuasion is often used in exploring textual content on websites such as tourism and corporate. For example, a study carried out by Ho (2021) compared the way that how persuasion effect is achieved between the source text and the target text.

C. Methods Applied in Transcreation Studies

As shown in Figure 5, qualitative research method domains were included in 85% of studies, showing its feasibility in transcreation. The quantitative method accounts for 8% of studies, mainly referring to corpus-based analysis. Mixed methods usually include both qualitative and quantitative methods, accounting for 7% of the total studies. The quantitative method and mixed method are illustrated in detail and the qualitative method will be discussed later.
As for the quantitative method, it refers to corpus-based analysis, which is often used in discussing persuasion and strategies of transcreation. For example, one study selects parallel articles in English and Chinese from the websites of the three best-selling luxury fashion brands to build a corpus and examines the optional shift of evaluative epithets to compare how persuasion is achieved between the source texts and the target texts.

Besides, the mixed method is used in four articles. One study was done by Díaz-Millón and Olvera-Lobo (2023), who applied NVIVO and SPSS to analyze the data to develop an expert-validated competence model for transcreation teaching. Another study was carried out to develop an interactive visual lyrics transcreation system. Preliminary experiments with 19 participants were made to determine the best combination of user interface components.

Not surprisingly, among those articles reviewed, content analysis appears to be the primary method of studies in transcreation; other qualitative research methods such as multimodal discourse analysis, Spradleyan analysis, DPT surveys and ethnographic field studies are also used in several studies (see Figure 6).

Most studies use content analysis to examine transcreation strategies, culture and ideology and localization. Studies relating to transcreation strategies usually offer some exemplifications of transcreation in case studies. For example, when analysing advertising translation, Ai (2014) adopted transcreation as one of the translation strategies along with literal translation, addition and omission. Another study carried out by Hu and Wu (2020) used content analysis to deal with translation of Chinese law terms such as “人民调解” (ren min tiao jie, people’s mediation) and “恶势力” (e shi li, evil forces), which well explained transcreation strategies under law context. However, these studies provide some examples to explain transcreation rather than use a framework of transcreation, lacking theoretical support for analysis. Meanwhile, content analysis is used in cultural studies of transcreation. For instance, a study on the translation of Bengali Dalit short stories adopted content analysis to analyse transcreation guided by different cultural dimensions (Pal & Bhattacharjee, 2022). Besides, transcreation is more linked to website and game localization. For instance, one study analysed the transcreation of a case study from a superhero game: Batman Arkham Asylum, giving some examples of using transcreation as a compensation strategy.

Meanwhile, multimodal discourse analysis has received attention in recent years. Although translation has been largely focused on conventional written texts, it should be seen in a broader perspective from multimodal features (Rike, 2013). One study from Al-Omar (2020) focused on adjusting the ideological values to the target language audience through the transcreation of both verbal and non-verbal elements in advertisements. Two studies examined the transcreation of texts and pictures from adventure comics and medical materials to make them more adaptable to the culture of the target language. Considering current studies using multimodal discourse analysis are concentrated on culture and ideology, there is a need to explore transcreation in other research foci such as localization.

In addition, a study was carried out with an ethnographic field study at a marketing implementation agency in London, during which a group of transcreation managers was followed over a period of four weeks, which provided a case for exploring the process and workflow of transcreation. Besides, two studies using the DPT survey to explore the definition of transcreation were by a common author, Carreira (2022, 2023), focusing on economic characteristics, the dual definition of service and strategy of transcreation through interviews with transcreation professionals. At last, one study adopted Spradleyan analysis as a method (Untari et al., 2023), which included four stages of domain analysis, taxonomy analysis, componential analysis and cultural theme analysis, to realise the click baiting purpose through the transcreation of news headlines.

D. Theories Applied in Transcreation Studies

There are several articles using linguistic theories to study transcreation. These theories involve systematic functional linguistics (Fang & Song, 2014; Ho, 2021; Malenkina & Ivanov, 2018; Wang et al., 2021) and multimodal social
semiotics (Rike, 2013). One study focused on interactional metadiscoursal markers on tourism websites to uncover rhetorical and persuasive means of promotion and communication (Malenkina & Ivanov, 2018). Besides, a study conducted by Fang and Song (2014) focused on how actual transcreation happens through lexicogrammatical choices in Australian health product labels made by the translators, which refers to the addition of new content. Another study adopted Martin and White’s appraisal framework to compare the persuasion effect between source text and target text. These studies indicate the feasibility of systematic functional linguistics applied to transcreation and provide potential studies for exploring relevant linguistic theories.

Another study adopting multimodal social semiotics gave a description of the semiotic resources including verbal text, images, animations and layout, showing how the communicative purpose is achieved through transcreation (Rike, 2013).

IV. DISCUSSION

Firstly, as mentioned in 3.1, transcreation focuses most on advertising texts and least on law texts. There are two underlining reasons. Firstly, advertising can be classified as operative text according to Reiss’s (2000) text typology. It is acceptable to deviate from the content and form of the original text to a large extent when translating, aiming to infect readers with equivalent expressions. This opinion falls within the definition of transcreation, which also allows translators to modify, omit and even add elements to deliver a similar effect on target readers. Besides, there are lots of creative wordplay, assonance and alliteration in advertising, which require transcreation rather than straightforward translation. Thus, transcreation has been frequently applied in advertising field in recent years. More specifically, advertising texts of luxury and corporate websites are most concentrated, showing a neglect of studies focusing on other kinds of texts such as household, electronic products, and cosmetics. Secondly, compared with advertising, law text belongs to informative text, where faithfulness comes first in translation to ensure source text information is transmitted accurately and completely. Consequently, transcreation in law context seems to be scarce compared with other genres. Apart from law context, it shows a neglect in other texts such as technology, food, public signs and interpreting. At last, some studies selected materials from websites for online advertising and corporate profiles. Other channels of social media such as Facebook and Twitter can also become sources of materials.

Secondly, transcreation strategies receive the most attention compared with other research foci, showing the study of transcreation has reached a stage where a transcreation framework needs to be formed. Besides, several studies focus on the definition of transcreation, which indicates it is at the primary stage of studying transcreation and the academic aims to distinguish transcreation from translation and figure out the characteristics of transcreation. Culture and ideology in transcreation are also focused, offering evidence that transcreation has been explored to explain specific social phenomena at a linguistic level. Besides, localization and persuasion should gain more attention. Localization can be examined through transcreation studies mainly in games and websites, which make translation more culturally adaptable to the target language. Besides, advertising and audiovisuals can also be explored in localization and transcreation in the future studies. Although persuasion is less focused in transcreation studies, its natural connection with language makes it more feasible in later studies. Currently, most studies on persuasion use systematic functional linguistics to examine shift through translation, but there is a large space for other linguistic theories that can be used. At last, research foci such as localization, persuasion, teaching and training, process and evaluation, and untranslatability should be given more attention in transcreation.

Thirdly, as mentioned in 3.2, qualitative methods are most frequently used in studies of transcreation, while mixed method and quantitative method are relatively scarce. The reason can be attributed to the definition and characteristics of transcreation. Since transcreation is the combination of translation and creativity, and there are few quantitative measurements to identify creativity in translation, most studies on transcreation adopt the qualitative method. Therefore, there is a need to study transcreation with quantitative methods, especially in measuring the reception effect and persuasive effect of the target readers in transcreation projects and teaching. Besides, most studies adopted content analysis as a research method, which indicates textual limitations have not been broken through in current transcreation studies. There is a potential to use multimodal discourse analysis to study transcreation in foci of game and website localization, culture and ideology.

Fourthly, some studies included aim to analyse how to realise transcreation by borrowing some concepts or frameworks from linguistic theories. Specifically, some concepts from systematic functional linguistics such as metafunctions, appraisal framework and lexicogrammatical choices are borrowed to explore transcreation. It has been seen that most studies of transcreation only use some concepts from linguistic theories, while concepts and theories from other disciplines, such as advertising and literature, can also be used in transcreation studies to promote more independent and complete transcreation theories.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study offers a systematic literature review of transcreation in translation studies from 1995 to 2023 to examine the research status quo of transcreation in four aspects: research genres, research foci, methods applied in transcreation and theories applied in transcreation studies. Firstly, involved genres in transcreation developed from
literary at first to advertising and audiovisual, mainly because the concept of transcreation is in line with advertising in new markets. Other genres such as news and political, medical, training and interpreting and law need to be further explored in the future. Secondly, research foci mainly focus on transcreation strategies, culture and ideology. While most studies of strategies don’t give a framework for transcreation, which needs to be improved in later studies. Besides, studies on localization, persuasion and untranslatability in transcreation need to be explored in future studies. Thirdly, qualitative methods are most frequently used in transcreation studies, while quantitative methods and mixed method are relatively less used. In the qualitative methods included, content analysis domains are most frequently used method. Other methods such as multimodal discourse analysis, ethnographic field, Spradleyan analysis, and DPT survey are less used. Besides, multimodal discourse analysis should be more used in game and website localization. Fourthly, systematic functional linguistics is often regarded as a pointcut to study transcreation in current studies, other linguistic theories and theories from other disciplines such as advertising and literature need to be considered in studies of transcreation.

There are some limitations to this study. First, books, chapters, proceedings and theses are excluded and there are only three databases selected in this study, leading to a limitation in the data. Second, this study only selected articles written in Chinese and English, with a neglect of other languages. Third, this study focuses on research genres, foci, methods and theories, while other subjects are also needed to be explored to contribute to the comprehensive findings of transcreation and translation studies.

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Fallacy as a Strategy of Argumentation in Political Debates

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Abstract—This study aims to study argumentation in political debates by figuring out the logical fallacies employed in the debates of Clinton and Trump, the presidential nominees of the 2016 elections, and Biden and Trump, the leading contenders in the 2020 United States presidential election. The study attempts to answer the questions: (1) What relevance fallacies are adopted in the debate between Trump and Clinton? (2) What rhetorical devices are used to influence the audience and gain voters besides fallacies in the debates selected? The study analyses two texts from two arguments using Damer’s (2009) taxonomy of relevance fallacy and rhetorical devices based on Perrine’s (1969) model of communication and interpersonal rhetoric to answer the two research questions. The significance of the pragma-rhetorical study of political debates resides in the role of investigating the pragmatic and rhetorical structure of political debates selected to encourage critical thinking, promote informed decision-making, and build a more effective and substantive political conversation. The analysis revealed that unlike Hillary, Trump uses the wrong reason, conclusion, and genetic fallacy and appeals to irrelevant authority and common opinion. Biden uses rationalisation, appealing to outside authority, and using the wrong reason. In terms of rhetoric, Trump, Clinton, and Biden all employ overstatement rather than other rhetorical devices to boost the shortcomings of their competitors and show them as unreliable in leading America in crisis. Other devices are absent except ‘understatement’, which appears for once, referring to the government’s weak response to the crisis of COVID-19.

Index Terms—argument, debate, fallacy, relevance, rhetorical devices

I. INTRODUCTION

Making a persuasive argument is crucial for politicians to persuade the public to vote for them. In addition, social scientists and historians are interested in tracing the logical progression of politicians' arguments. For example, the book Lincoln, Douglas, and Slavery by Zarefsky (1993) does not explicitly state the benefits and drawbacks of fallacies in political debates. However, the book mentions that fallacies may have beneficial and harmful consequences in political debates. Besides, recognizing relevance fallacies in political arguments is important because they assist individuals to become more selective information users, capable of spotting deceptive strategies and assessing the validity of political arguments. Additionally, recognizing fallacies provides opportunities for opponents to bolster their counterarguments and present more logical and appealing alternative viewpoints and analyses of the arguments and reasoning strategies of presidential candidates. People in academia, media, political candidates, and government all utilize political arguments, which are often circular, with the same facts as premises but presented slightly different.

The present study's focus is on the argumentation of political debates where presidential candidates (Trump and Clinton; Trump and Biden) debate so as to win the election. The present study examines the relevance of fallacies employed to argue, attack and defeat opponents. The public discussion of fallacies in political debates may heighten awareness of the significance of logical reasoning and critical thinking. It helps individuals to become more discriminating information consumers, capable of spotting deceptive strategies and assessing the validity of political arguments. Fallacies may provide opponents with the chance to bolster their counterarguments. By recognizing the logical fallacies in an opponent's argument, one may successfully debate and disprove their arguments, presenting a more logical and appealing alternative viewpoint. While fallacies may help teach critical thinking and expose weak arguments, they should never be used to reject or discredit genuine arguments. Participating in fair, productive conversations that place a premium on logical reasoning and evidence-based arguments is crucial.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The value of any study lies in its contribution to the linguistic bulk of studies done in a particular domain in the sense of adding something new to the knowledge about a particular topic (Abbas et al., 2023). Investigating fallacy as a
strategy of argumentation, a number of studies have been found in this area. Hidayat et al. (2020), in their study entitled “Logical Fallacies in Social Media: A Discourse Analysis in Political Debate” investigate the influence of social media on information consumption and advocate for the application of critical thinking skills among social media users. Their research uses fallacy taxonomy to identify fallacious statements in a transcribed political debate among Indonesian political figures from the YouTube Channel of Indonesia Lawyers Club. Four fallacies are identified: manipulation through language, manipulation through emotional appeal of fear, manipulation through distraction (red herrings), and inductive fallacy through inconsistencies and contradictions. The results have potential pedagogical implications for incorporating practical steps to teach logical fallacies in language learning and everyday life.

Al-Sieedy and Al-Jilihawi (2020) have conducted “A pragmatic study of fallacy in George W. Bush's political speeches”, analyzing the speech Bush presented after the war on Iraq. This study aims to provide pragmatic models for analyzing fallacy, focusing on its structure, forms, methods, and applications. The researchers use existing models from academics and their own observations to develop these pragmatic models. The validity of these models is tested through the analysis of seven speeches by George W. Bush, both before and after the war on Iraq (2002-2008). The results indicate that fallacy operates in stages, each with distinct pragmatic components and strategies, highlighting the effectiveness of the proposed models.

Mahmood and Ali (2022) employ Toulmin et al.’s (1984) model of analysis to investigate fallacies in religious arguments, particularly those between Muslims and atheists. The study, which looks at four discussions, is entitled “A Pragmatic Analysis of Fallacies in English Religious Argumentative Discourse.” The results indicate that while both Muslims and atheists commit fallacies, atheists do so more frequently and in a greater variety. For Muslims, common fallacies include straw man argument, poisoning the well, and attacking the person while atheists commonly use straw man argument, argument from ignorance, hasty generalization, and appeal to compassion.

The existing studies have explored fallacies in different contexts and utilized various approaches, such as fallacy taxonomy, discourse analysis, and pragmatic analysis. However, there appears to be a notable gap in the literature regarding the application of a pragma-rhetorical approach specifically to the study of fallacies in the rhetoric of American presidential candidates. The proposed study aims to fill this gap by examining how fallacy taxonomy and rhetorical devices are interconnected in the discourse of American presidential candidates, particularly during election campaigns. The current study attempts to present a rather distinguished perspective of fallacy by employing the pragma-rhetorical approach since fallacious speech may result from or generate rhetorical devices. The present study employs the rhetorical devices as fallacious patterns used by American presidential candidates in debates related to election campaigns to determine how fallacy taxonomy can be interrelated to the rhetorical devices employed to influence the audience.

A. Defining Argument

Disagreement between two or more individuals is called an ‘argument’. According to Eemeren (2010), the purpose of any debate is to convince the other person that their point of view is more rational than the others’. Even in political discussions, winning an audience is more important than winning over the other side. Arguing about having a solid argument is a huge distinction. When someone makes a claim and backs it up with another claim, they argue even if it is not very strong. Damer (2012) identifies five characteristics of an effective argument. A good structure is related to structural principles. The relevance principle is related to relevant premises, acceptability where premises are suitable and logically acceptable, and effective rebuttal against criticism. In political disputes, fallacies may have both beneficial and harmful consequences. Even though fallacies are often seen as logical, they may play a role in moulding public opinion, influencing political discourse, and showing arguments’ shortcomings. However, the argumentator's blunders may fall short of these criteria somehow. According to Damer (2012), logical fallacies are made when people build or give cases to us. The following section lists the characteristics of an effective argument to distinguish it from fallacious arguments.

Effective Argument

Johnson (2000) proposes the following guidelines for effective argumentation:

1. Acceptability: Hamblin first used it in 1970, and he calls it the “basic rule for evaluating an argument.” Johnson (2000, p. 154) states that “each element in an argument should be put in a way that the hearer finds acceptable.” When this criterion is employed to a specific premise, the arguer should realize whether such premise could be acceptable to the addressee”. Acceptability must be understood regarding the dynamic interaction between a proponent and a response in a particular context.

2. Truth: Grice (1975) first used it as a sub-maximum of the Quality Maxim, which states that a person should only say what he knows to be true and never say anything untrue. Johnson (2000, pp. 197-8) then applies the quality criterion to determine whether an argument is false; it evaluates the veracity or untruth of a given statement and that its violation can lead to an invalid argument. This guideline has been broken in the claim that when the speaker uses the exclusion of specific facts, it is deemed sensible because what is pertinent in one situation may not be relevant in another.

3. Relevance: Grice (1975) used it as one of the cooperative maxims, entailing that the speaker must be pertinent in what he says to the situation in which he is engaged. This measure can be used to assess an argument's fallacy,
according to Johnson (2000, p. 203). Johnson defines it as ‘propositional relevance’, differentiating it from subject relevance and audience relevance.

4. Sufficiency: The goal assertion must be supported by enough proof. It is also regarded as realistic because what is adequate in one situation might not be in another, and it is linked to Grice’s principle of amount (Johnson, 2000, pp. 209, 255).

B. Fallacy: Concept and History

There are fallacies everywhere; individuals create them in their numerous activities, including at home, in the workplace, in advertisements, and in the media. The idea of fallacy has always been stressed within these theories. As with arguments, fallacies have a rich and diverse history encompassing both classical and modern approaches to the issue, making it difficult to establish a specific definition (Mirza, 2016, p. 2; cited in Abdulhussein & Ali, 2022). The fallacy is the foundation of all meaningful argumentation theories, and the correct handling of fallacies may be seen as the validation test for any given argumentation strategy. Effectively addressing logical fallacies indicates an argumentation theory's applicability and explanatory capacity (Eemeren et al., 2009, p. 1). According to Damer (2009, p. 51), a fallacy violates one or more of the five criteria for sound reasoning. These criteria include the argument's structure, relevance, acceptance, sufficiency, and counterargument. This study uses Damer's (2009) method for recognizing erroneous arguments.

In his sophistical rebuttal, Aristotle (2004) was the first to conduct a methodical fallacy analysis. There are 13 logical errors where logic is flawed, according to him. He distinguishes between linguistic and non-linguistic errors. His non-linguistic errors include Accident, Equivocation, Composition, Division, and Figure of Speech. In Medieval Europe, errors were again methodically examined after the Dark Ages. Due to a resurgence of interest in philosophy, logic, communication studies, rhetoric, logic, and psychology, the third significant era of the study of fallacies started in the latter half of the twentieth century.

Johnson (1995, p. 116), an American scholar and the creator of the Informal Logic movement, defines fallacy as "an argument that violates one of the criteria of effective argument that appears with sufficient frequency in discourse." The 'dialectical layer,' in which the arguer can fulfill duties on his opponent, and the 'illative core,' a structure made of the components of premise, justification, and conclusion, are the two types of false arguments that Johnson (2004) concentrates on. Acceptability, truth, relevance, and sufficiency are his four criteria or guidelines for assessing logical fallacies. If a speech fails to meet one or more of these guidelines, it will be rejected as unpersuasive.

Walton (2007) and other academics develop this fallacy theory. He (2007, p. 159) claims that it is a transplanted method of intentional deceit. According to Walton, the setting is to persuade someone to buy into the reasoning. On the other side, Damer (2009) is concerned with what happens when the criteria of acceptability, relevance, truth, and sufficiency are disregarded. There are numerous kinds in his model. He adds the fifth rule, the response criterion, to Johnson's four rules, stating that an argument must effectively refute all expected significant critiques of the argument or the stance it supports. Damer (2009) lists five main criteria of fallacies as follows:

1. A fallacy that violates the structure criterion
2. A fallacy that Violates the Relevance Criterion
3. A fallacy that Violates the Acceptability Criterion
4. A fallacy that Violates the Sufficiency Criterion
5. A fallacy that Violates the Rebuttal Criterion

The current study mainly examines the Fallacies of the Relevance criterion.

C. Fallacies Resulting From the Relevance Criterion

More than one fallacy type results from violating the relevance criterion. These types of fallacies include fallacies of irrelevant premise and fallacies of irrelevant appeal. These two fallacies also have subdivisions, as illustrated below:

1. Fallacy of Irrelevant Premise

Fallacy of irrelevant premise are the arguments that employ beliefs that fail to or have no connection to give support to the conclusions. There are four subcategories of fallacies resulting from irrelevant premises involving genetic fallacy, rationalisation, drawing the wrong conclusion, and using the wrong reasons (Damer, 2009, p. 93). They are explained as follows:

a. Genetic Fallacy entails judging something considering its original setting and applying that judgment to it now while failing to account for any pertinent changes that may have occurred in the interval.

b. Rationalization is concerned with using reasonable-sounding but typically false justifications to support an unpleasant stance.

c. Drawing the Wrong Conclusion deals with using the facts in the argument to back a different inference. The result of the argument fails to consider the most essential aspect of the supporting data.

d. Using the Wrong Reasons is related to attempting to support a claim with reasons other than those appropriate to the claim.

2. Fallacies of Irrelevant Appeal

Several fallacious arguments are sometimes intended to support a claim. This is done by applying questionable appeals to the authenticity of other people or emotional tactics, none of which support the truth. These include:
how political participants communicate since they must adapt to a restricted time frame to articulate their grievances. Political debates involve the utilisation of political contextual allusions and references to prior political contexts for engaging the electorate. During these debates, politicians attempt to communicate their message, including their core values, political objectives, and accomplishments, to garner maximum support from the populace. In order to garner support, politicians frequently employ various rhetorical devices to enhance their communication and persuade or engage their audience. These devices are employed to create emphasis, evoke emotions, and make the communication more memorable. It may be defined as the ability of words to have an impact on the circumstances in which they are said or heard. It is possible to link rhetoric to the fundamental human need to survive, exert control over one’s environment, and influence other people’s actions for the benefit of oneself, one’s family, one’s political and social organizations, and one’s children. This can be done directly, by threatening, bribing, or using force, or indirectly, by utilizing signals. The most important instruments for achieving this goal are written or spoken words.

Rhetoric was used in many ancient societies, sometimes going by several names (Kennedy, 1994, p. 3). Rhetorical devices can be found in various forms, including figures of speech, sound patterns, and structural arrangements. There are various forms of figures of speech. The researchers employ twelve figures of speech, drawing upon Perrine’s theory as a foundation (Perrine, 1969, pp. 164-167). Perrine’s literary work “Sound and Sense: An Introduction to Poetry” organizes twelve distinct types of figures of speech into three categories. These categories include figures of speech based on comparison, such as metaphor, simile, and personification; figures of speech based on association, exemplified by metonymy; and figures of speech based on contrast, including paradox, overstatement, and understatement. Nevertheless, following the fallacy of consensus, the researchers incorporate some rhetorical devices such as metaphor, simile, personification, overstatement, understatement, and paradox which are briefly defined below:

2. Simile: Simpson (2004, pp. 43-44) asserts that a simile is a rhetorical device that directly compares two concepts using the formula ‘is like’.
3. Personification: According to Kövecses (2010, p. 39), personification attributes human characteristics to creatures that are not inherently human.
4. Understatement: According to Kennedy and Gioia (2007, p. 30), understatement can be seen as a rhetorical device characterised by a deliberate and ironic expression that presents a situation in a manner that downplays its true magnitude or significance.
5. Overstatement: According to Kennedy and Gioia (2007, p. 21), the use of overstatement or hyperbole serves as a means of emphasizing a certain point through deliberate exaggeration.

E. Presidential Debate

Due to its distinctive contextual characteristics, the presidential debate can be classified as a sub-genre of political discourse. Presidential debates involve the utilisation of political contextual allusions and references to prior political history, which are recognised and understood by the audience (Chilton, 2004, pp. 72-73). Presidential debates have a distinct role, primarily aimed at presenting the electorate with the objectives and viewpoints of the candidates. Debates possess a distinct framework and regulations that necessitate compliance from the participants. The regulations impact how political participants communicate since they must adapt to a restricted time frame to articulate their grievances. Without a doubt, a notable aspect of presidential debates is the direct interpersonal engagement that occurs between the moderators and the candidates being interviewed.

The interviewer poses provocative questions to the interviewees to engage and captivate the viewers. Additionally, the interviewers include those aspiring to secure the position of president in the next elections. Consequently, they are expected to respond to the questions within a specified time frame. About this assertion, Levinson (1983, p. 304) posits that a question-answer constitutes a distinct type of adjacency pair, serving as a key component of conversational structure. This pair is characterised by the participation of two distinct speakers who produce separate utterances within a specific contextual framework. During discussions, the interviewer presents a question, referred to as the first pair portion, which is subsequently addressed by the interviewee, known as the second pair part. The interviewer establishes an expectation that the interviewee must satisfy through their statement.

Politicians endeavour to effectively communicate their message, including their core values, political objectives, and accomplishments, to garner maximum support from the populace. In order to garner support, politicians frequently engage in public discourse, wherein they deliver speeches or engage in discussions. During these debates, political candidates discourse with their adversaries, ultimately aiming to convince their constituents. Debates represent a compelling classification of political dialogue. Spontaneous spoken communication characterises one aspect of the
discourse, while the content of the discussions frequently exhibits careful deliberation and strategic preparation. To effectively convey a desired message, it is imperative to employ clear and comprehensible language (Shu’e & Yanqing, 2018). The current study is mainly related to two presidential debates to determine the fallacies and the rhetorical devices adopted.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study follows a qualitative research method. Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 2) report that studying objects and phenomena in their natural environments attempts to make sense of or interpret happenings based on the meanings people attribute to them. Moreover, the "situationally constrained" nature of qualitative research makes the social context crucial to understanding the significance of social activities (Neuman, 2014, p. 17). In contrast, quantitative studies rely on numerical measurements of certain aspects of occurrences and are defined using statistical techniques that are easily replicable by other researchers (King et al., 1994). Using statistics, the quantitative method seeks to prove or disprove opposing hypotheses (Williams, 2007). Concerning the qualitative method, the study will interpret two texts from two debates regarding relevance fallacy and rhetorical tropes to examine how candidates attack and argue with each other with fallacious arguments.

B. Data Selected and Model

The data selected for any study should be in line with the research objectives to ensure their achievement (Abbas, 2020). Besides, Mohammed (2016) states that the main challenge researchers face when conducting a study is choosing suitable data. As such, and to study argumentation in political debates, the researchers have chosen two texts from two political debates between presidential candidates. The first debate is between Hillary Clinton and Donald J. Trump, the presidential nominees of the 2016 elections. The second debate concerns Joe Biden and Donald Trump, the leading contenders in the 2020 presidential election. These high-profile debates garnered tremendous notice and substantially affected public opinion. This is why these debates are selected for fallacy analysis. Additionally, they had a large audience and media attention. In terms of contemporary U.S. political history, the debates were momentous. They represent the changing dynamics, topics, and campaign techniques in political campaigns. By analyzing the usage of fallacies in these debates, it is possible to detect patterns, trends, and recurrent fallacious arguments in modern political discourse. The debate script of Hillary and Trump is retrieved from the Politico.com website, while the debate script of Biden and Trump is retrieved from the Commission on Presidential Debates.org. Two texts are selected for analysis according to the rich fallacies underlying them. They represent a comprehensive example of the fallacy in the debates. These texts will be analysed qualitatively by detecting the fallacy markers underlying the debates’ discourse following Damer's (2009) categories of Relevance Fallacy, including Irrelevant Premise and Irrelevant Appeal (cf., 1.3.1), and the rhetoric analysis realising these fallacy types and their significance to the debate contexts.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section the researcher conduct the data analysis by first introducing the extracts from the debates selected. The extracts have a significant and clear fallacious speech to investigate. The names in bold refer to the participants, including the interviewer and the candidates. The whole extracts are written in italics to be highlighted, and the sentences identified as fallacious argument representatives are underlined to analyse the linguistic devices and the types of fallacies they contain. The researchers first analyse the fallacious speech in terms of fallacies and then do the rhetorical analysis to explain how the opponents use rhetorical devices that violate the cooperative maxims and produce the figurative language underlying the fallacious argument. The analysis follows the fallacious arguments according to the types of fallacies that appear successively.

Text 1: Trump and Clinton

“Brock: ... The last presidential debate could have been rated as MA, mature audiences per TV parental guidelines. Knowing that educators assign viewing the presidential debates as students’ homework, do you feel you are modelling appropriate and positive behaviour for today’s youth?

Clinton: Thank you. ... I think it is very important for us to make clear to our children that our country really is great because we are good. ... That’s why the slogan of my campaign is stronger together Obviously, I'm hoping to earn your vote, I'm hoping to be elected in November and I can promise you I will work with every American.

Cooper: Mr. Trump you have two minutes.

Trump: Well I’ll actually agree with that. I agree with everything she said. I began this campaign because I was so tired of seeing such foolish things happen to our country This is a great country. This is a great land. When I watch what’s happening with some horrible things like Obama care where your health insurance and health care is going up by numbers that are astronomical: 68%, 59%, 71%. Whether it's in business and trade, where we are doing so badly. Last year, we had an almost $800 billion trade deficit. But I want to do things that haven’t been done, including fixing and making our inner cities better for the African American citizens that are so great”.

In this extract, Trump employs a fallacious argument to get stronger and escape truthful answers.
Fallacy Analysis of Text 1

Trump uses four types of fallacies: drawing the wrong conclusion, using the wrong reasons, appealing to irrelevant authority, and genetic fallacy.

1. Drawing the Wrong Conclusion

Trump is asked whether he considers himself a good model to young Americans. Yet, he answers with irrelevant statements. He draws a wrong conclusion unrelated to the question focus. He states that “clear to our children that our country really is great because we are good” here he concludes that children should feel great because of the good government system. Thus, Clinton violates the relevance maxim by drawing a wrong conclusion to evade answering the question raised. Then Clinton stated, “That’s why the slogan of my campaign is stronger together.” She states that this is because children feel pride, and the slogans of Clinton are more potent. She uses children in her speech and refers to their significance in the American future and the importance of governmental acts introduced to them in her slogan that they would be stronger with Clinton’s rule. This is illogical, and there is no relationship between reasons, conclusions, and the main argument. Clinton goes forward to conclude that they earned the audience’s voice. This conclusion is irrelevant to the main argument: being a model for younger Americans. She states, “I’m hoping to earn your vote, I’m hoping to be elected.” This indicates that even though unsure, but she has a hope to win the election.

2. Using the Wrong Reasons

Trump gives wrong reasons related to the argument. In the argument about modelling positive behaviours for young people, Trump gives reasons to begin election campaigns: “I began this campaign because I was so tired of seeing such foolish things happen to our country. This is a great country.” Trump claims that Obama’s failure is behind his nomination to stop foolish actions rather than his personal and political affairs.

3. Appeal to Irrelevant Authority

Trump goes away from the argument and gets attention astray to focus on another person, reminding them of Obama’s negativity. He accuses Obama of being careless and causing horrible things rather than mentioning how he could model his behaviour as “When I watch what’s happening with some horrible things like Obama care”. By doing so, Trump draws the audience’s focus onto Obama’s governing to stimulate a negative comparison that may lead to electing Obama as a better alternative.

4. Genetic Fallacy

Trump avoids answering the question directly and uses irrelevant ideas on old government like a failure in business and generalises this failure to current times. Trump describes Obama’s flawed system when he says: “Whether it’s in business and trade, where we are doing so badly. Last year, we had an almost $800 billion trade deficit.” Trump denotes that the government procedures are not doing well; rather, he describes the government performance as “bad”, implying an urgent need for change, which would be true by electing him. He supports his claim with numbers showing the great damages affecting the American trade in Obama’s period reading $800 as trade deficit. Trump counts merely on Obama’s rule in terms of its earlier failure and ignores relevant changes.

5. Appeal to Irrelevant Authority

Again, Trump attributes his statement to implicitly refer to Obama and the things Obama did not do. He claims he will do unfulfilled things, as in, “But I want to do things that haven’t been done including fixing and making our inner cities better for the African American citizens that are so great” Trump implicitly states that necessary things in the country are missing under the rule of Obama. He uses negative statements to highlight that Obama has not done the right things for America and put himself as the corrector and the determining president who will compensate for all the shortcomings under the previous administration. Trump names corrective acts like making better cities for African Americans. He uses the word ‘including’, implying that making better cities is to drop in the sea of his positive acts on the horizon.

Rhetorical Analysis of Text 1

In terms of rhetorical devices, Clinton and Trump employ only two devices representing the fallacious speech. These devices are overstatement and understatement, as explained in the following:

1. Overstatement

Clinton overstates the value of his campaign slogan to be stronger because he considers America great as in “That’s why the slogan of my campaign is stronger together”. Moreover, she overstates the intentions of her campaign to work with every single American individual rather than denoting America as a one entity in saying “I will work with every American”.

Trump uses overstatement to boost the number of voters by indicating how great he and his government are. Yet, Trump employs overstatement to exaggerate the negativity of the current administration of Obama as in “what’s happening is horrible like Obama’s care where your health insurance and health care is going up by numbers that are astronomical: 68%, 59%, 71%” Trump describes the government period of Obama as horrible, and the number of health care insurance as huge. He uses the up-scaling lexis ‘astronomical’ to negatively describe health insurance numbers. Astronomical means that these numbers ’68%, 59%, 71%’ should not be real for health insurance in America but are in the ‘Obama period’. Trump overstates the negativity of Obama’s ruling as ‘horrible’ to overstate the need for change and draw the audience attention to dark period they are going through.

2. Understatement
Trump underestimates the value of government work by indicating that “it’s in business and trade where we are doing so badly”. He negatively describes the government's acts. Trump ridicules Obama’s administration by describing it as “foolish” by saying “I was so tired of seeing such foolish things happen to our country”. Trump indicates that foolish things happen by inefficient or weak government which needs to be changed by electing stronger candidates like himself. This occurs when Trump intentionally represents something as less significant or serious than it is. Here, Trump downplays the reasons for starting his campaign as merely being “tired of seeing such foolish things happen.” This understatement serves to diminish the gravity or complexity of the issues that may have prompted him to enter the political arena.

Text 2: Trump and Biden

“Welker: More than 40,000 Americans are in the hospital tonight with COVID, including record numbers here in Tennessee. ... So please be specific: how would you leave the country during this next stage of the coronavirus crisis? Two minutes, uninterrupted”.

“Trump: So, as you know, more 2.2 million people modeled out, were expected to die. We closed up the greatest economy in the world in order to fight this horrible disease that came from China. It's a worldwide pandemic. It's all over the world. You see the spikes in Europe and many other places right now ... I had it. And I got better and I will tell you that I had something that they gave me — a therapeutic, I guess they would call it Some people could say it was a cure. But I was in for a short period of time and I got better very fast or I wouldn't be here tonight. And now they say I'm immune Whether it's four months or a lifetime, nobody's been able to say that, but I'm immune. More and more people are getting better. We have a problem that's a worldwide problem. This is a worldwide problem”.

“Welker: OK, former Vice President Biden, to you, how would you lead the country out of this crisis? You have two minutes uninterrupted”.

“Biden: 220,000 Americans dead. If you hear nothing else I say tonight, hear this. Anyone who’s responsible for not taking control— ... We’re in a situation where there are thousands of deaths a day, a thousand deaths a day. And there are over 70,000 new cases per day. Compared to what’s going on in Europe, as the New England Medical Journal said, they’re starting from a very low rate. We’re starting from a very high rate. The expectation is we’ll have another 200,000 Americans dead by the time, between now and the end of the year. If we just wore these masks — the President’s own advisors told them — we could save 100,000 lives. And we’re in a circumstance where the President, thus far, still has no plan ... We’re in a situation now where the New England Medical Journal — one of the serious, most serious journals in the whole world — said for the first time ever that this, the way this President has responded to this crisis has been absolutely tragic. And so folks, I will take care of this, I will end this, I will make sure we have a plan”.

Trump and Biden use different fallacies of relevance to attack each other. These fallacies are genetic, rationalisation, the wrong conclusion, the wrong reason, the appeal of irrelevant authority, and the appeal of common opinion.

Fallacy analysis of Text 2

1. Genetic Fallacy

Trump uses genetic fallacy when describing the origin of COVID-19 as Chinese. Here, he was not asked about the origin or starting point of the virus. Thus, Trump avoided responsibility towards the main premise by saying that it is Chinese “more than 2.2 million people, modelled out, were expected to die. We closed up the greatest economy in the world in order to fight this horrible disease that came from China”.

2. Rationalisation

Biden turn the attack against Trump about the latter’s actions taken to face the virus. Biden uses numbers and rational premises to uncover the real consequences faced during Trump’s governing time. Biden argues that “220,000 Americans dead. If you hear nothing else I say tonight, hear this. Anyone who’s responsible for not taking control” Here, Biden makes it clear that if Trump did the right procedures, why coronavirus is still killing people?

3. Using the wrong conclusion

Trump concludes that, by the American vaccine, he got better. While in fact, the vaccine keeps healthy people away from infection. However, Trump is not asked about the activity of the vaccine still he wants to bolster himself “We have Operation Warp Speed, which is the military, is going to distribute the vaccine. I can tell you from personal experience that I was in the hospital, I had it. And I got better, and I will tell you that I had something that they gave me — a therapeutic, I guess they would call it”.

4. Using the wrong reason

Biden uses the same strategy of using the wrong conclusion “We’re in a situation now where the New England Medical Journal — one of the serious, most serious journals in the whole world — said for the first time ever that this, the way this President has responded to this crisis has been absolutely tragic.” Biden asserts that Trump's response is the reason behind the flood, while this flood can destroy our house.

5. Appeal to irrelevant authority

Biden sheds light that Trump has no plan, according to the latter’s advisors. That is, people did not take any responsibility for not wearing masks. The relevance is fallacious since the interviewer is asking about the action taken against COVID rather than his purpose: “And we’re in a circumstance where the President, thus far, still has no plan”.

6. Appeal to Common Opinion
In many countries, Trump deals with COVID-19 as a common fact: "It's a worldwide pandemic. It's all over the world. You see the spikes in Europe and many other places right now." He generalizes the phenomenon of the pandemic as globally common to lessen the audience's criticism of how America deals with the pandemic or fails to stop it. He states that it is not restricted to America, and it is not an individual issue but a greater worldwide phenomenon.

**Rhetorical Analysis of Text 2**

**Overstatement**

Both participants use overstatement to highlight the shortcomings of the current president and the efficiency of their plans and administration. Trump overstates the number of patients with COVID-19 and is expected to die "More than 2.2 million people modelled out, were expected to die". Conversely, Trump overstates the value of the American economy to describe it as the greatest as in "there are over 70,000 new cases per day". Another overstatement by Trump is to intensify the extent of the pandemic and heighten its scope as a worldwide crisis by saying, "It's a worldwide pandemic. It's all over the world. It's a worldwide pandemic. It's all over the world." He intensifies that COVID-19 pandemic is a serious global crisis and not only American, which means that America needs a brave and wise administration to come over it. Trump adds another overstatement by exaggerating the effectiveness of a cure used to treat the COVID-19 virus. Doing so, he intensifies the ability of America to overcome the crisis with a safe and efficient cure by saying, "And I got better, and I will tell you that I had something that they gave me — a therapeutic, I guess they would call it Some people could say it was a cure" He uses the comparative ‘better’, and the intensifier ‘very’ to describe the cure he used. Moreover, he exaggerates the effectiveness of this cure by appraising himself as ‘imminent’, which is a very strong term to describe the effect of the cure. Biden overstates the number of dead people with COVID-19 to highlight the previous government's delay in taking suitable actions against the virus with "220,000 Americans dead... there are over 70,000 new cases per day". Here, Biden puts it in bold that Trump’s government have done nothing to defeat the virus.

**V. CONCLUSIONS**

This study has examined the fallacies underlying two presidential debates in the American elections. The researchers have employed the relevance fallacy and rhetorical devices frameworks to analyse the debates. As such, this analysis has revealed significant conclusions. Firstly, Trump uses the wrong reason, conclusion, and genetic fallacy and appeals to irrelevant authority and common opinion against Clinton to highlight negative aspects of her governing period. Biden uses rationalisation, appealing to irrelevant authority and using the wrong reason to blame and display the shortcomings of Trump’s period. In terms of rhetorical devices, Trump, Clinton, and Biden all employ overstatements to boost the shortcomings of their competitiveness and show them as unreliable in leading America in crisis. Other devices are absent except ‘understatement’, which appears for once, referring to the government’s weak response to the crisis of COVID-19. Thus, the research questions have been answered. According to these conclusions, the researchers recommend extending the research to cover fallacies in reality shows and fallacies in self-development speeches.

**REFERENCES**


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The Perspectives of English-for-Academic-Purposes Instructors Towards the Transfer Climate

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Abstract—This study examines the nature of the transfer climate in an English for academic purposes (EAP) education setting specifically from the perspectives of EAP instructors. The transfer climate refers to the nature of the target context of instruction and the support for learning transfer perceived by a learner in that target context. Therefore, in the case of the EAP education context, the target context of instruction is the discipline courses to which students transition to or take concurrently with EAP courses. These discipline courses may be supportive or unsupportive towards students' transfer of EAP skills. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 22 EAP instructors. The interview transcripts were analyzed using a process of de-contextualizing and re-contextualizing. Firstly, with decontextualizing, a chunk of text is identified as a unit of analysis and is taken out of context from the transcript. Secondly, all the units can be re-contextualized when transferred from the interview transcript to a single category of units that contribute to a similar pattern towards the research question. The findings revealed that EAP instructors perceived both supportive and unsupportive aspects of different components of the EAP transfer climate [opportunities (lack of) in the course structure, support (lack of) for EAP transfer from discipline instructors or peers in the disciplines]. This study's findings also build on existing conceptualizations of transfer climate. Practical implications, implications for future research, and limitations are outlined.

Index Terms—EAP courses, instructor's perceptions, learning transfer, transfer climate

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning transfer is an important goal in English for academic purposes (EAP) education. Perkins and Salomon (1992) defined it as occurring ‘when learning in one context or with one set of materials impacts on performance in another context or with another set of materials’. For example, it can occur in the EAP education context if a student transfers a skill such as referencing from an EAP course to writing in a psychology course. EAP instructors expect students to transfer a set of learning outcomes from their course to discipline courses.

When it comes to the goal of learning transfer in EAP education, it can be impacted by the transfer climate. Transfer climate is an important construct of this current study. It refers to the nature of the target context of instruction and the support for learning transfer that an individual learner perceives in that target context (Burke & Baldwin, 1999). To illustrate, when it comes to transferring of EAP skills, the target context are university discipline courses, such as chemistry or world business. A chemistry course may not support student’s transfer of EAP skills due to a lack of opportunities to use them. Transfer climate has been researched extensively in educational psychology (Perkins & Salomon, 1992, 1994; Fogarty et al., 1992; Haskell, 2001; Detterman, 1993) and workplace training research (Lim & Johnson, 2002; Tracey & Tannenbaum, 1995; Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Martin, 2010). However, in the EAP context, James (2010) is the only study in which the transfer climate was explicitly adopted. He examined 52 EAP students’ perceptions of the transfer climate in whether it is supportive towards EAP skills. They justify the investigation of transfer climate in the EAP context since EAP education involves learning contexts (i.e., EAP courses) and target contexts (i.e., discipline courses) which can present many challenges for students.

Workplace training research has identified a number of different components for transfer climates from which an individual perceives support (or lack of) to transfer knowledge from prior training (Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Holton, 2005; Holton et al., 1997; Holton et al., 2000; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). The table below outlines these components as articulated by James (2010). Also, the right column clarifies what each component would look like in the EAP context:
It is worthwhile to investigate the transfer climate particularly through EAP instructor perceptions. One reason this is worthwhile is because it would complement existing findings from studies that sought out students’ and discipline instructors’ perspectives (James, 2010; Nelms & Dively, 2007). EAP instructors’ perspectives may not align with those other perspectives when it comes to the transfer climate. For instance, if students perceive unsupportive transfer climates and EAP instructors do not, it is possible that EAP instructors are not doing much to prepare students for this. Also, examining how EAP instructors perceive the transfer climate can contribute to broader curriculum development. For example, by investigating how EAP instructors view discipline courses, this might provide information that can be used by various stakeholders (EAP instructors, discipline course instructors, program developers) to create connections between courses and therefore strengthen a curriculum. For instance, EAP instructors may perceive that discipline courses need to incorporate more writing assignments to accommodate students' transfer of academic English writing skills. On the other hand, EAP instructors may perceive that there needs to be more communication between their programs and disciplinary programs in order to facilitate students' transfer of EAP skills. Although EAP instructors may not have authority over discipline instructors, as language instruction experts, they can give an informed opinion on what discipline instructors can contribute to EAP transfer. This can complement research findings that touch upon discipline instructors’ perceptions of whether their courses have a role towards promoting EAP transfer (Zhu, 2004; Jackson, 2005; Jackson et al., 2006; Moskovitz & Kellog, 2011; Stanley & Lewandowski, 2018; Knight et al., 2021).

In response to such existing research, it would be worthwhile to explore EAP instructors’ perceptions of the transfer climate. Therefore, this current study will be guided by the research question: In what ways do EAP instructors think transfer climates in discipline courses are (un)supportive?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To date, no research has directly investigated ways in which EAP instructors think transfer climates can be (un)supportive. However, research has produced findings that are relevant such as investigations of challenges EAP students can face in transitioning to discipline courses (Leki & Carson, 1994; Harlkau, 1994; LoCastro, 1997; Leki, 2006; Evans & Green, 2007; Nelms & Dively, 2007; James, 2010; Gaffas, 2019). These challenges include EAP students and discipline instructors perceiving: a lack of opportunity to transfer EAP skills in disciplines courses (Leki & Carson, 1994; Harlkau, 1994; Nelms & Dively, 2007; James, 2010); a lack of support from discipline instructors to transfer EAP skills in disciplines courses (Evans & Green, 2007; James, 2010; Gaffas, 2019); and a lack of support from discipline course peers to transfer EAP skills in disciplines courses (LoCastro, 1997; James, 2010).

A. Lack of Opportunity to Transfer EAP Skills

The first relevant finding is that EAP students can perceive a lack of opportunity to transfer EAP skills (Leki & Carson, 1994; Harlkau, 1994; James, 2010; Demirkol et al., 2021). Referring to an EAP education study in the university context by Leki and Carson (1994), students were asked to rate how well EAP course prepares them for discipline courses based on the challenges they face. Among the findings, students expressed frustration at the difference between the writing they are assigned in EAP courses and in discipline courses in terms of difficulty level. This mismatch in writing level caused them to perceive a lack of opportunity to transfer skills from EAP courses. Similarly, referring back to James (2010), they explicitly adopted the construct of transfer climate. Their findings revealed that some EAP students expressed that due to discipline courses having less writing involved, this caused a lack of opportunity to transfer EAP skills. Moreover, Demirkol et al. (2021), through a Likert-scale questionnaire, examined the perceptions of former EAP students of how frequent academic language tasks were in Business Administration, education, and engineering courses. Such findings give an idea of whether students perceive opportunities to use EAP skills in discipline courses. Their findings reveal that the task of listening to lectures was frequent, while tasks such as giving speeches and writing discipline-specific texts was not as frequent.

B. Lack of Support From Discipline Instructors to Transfer EAP Skills

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Components of the Transfer Climate</th>
<th>Workplace Transfer Climate</th>
<th>EAP Transfer Climate</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors’ expectation that skills from training will be applied to the workplace</td>
<td>Discipline instructors’ expectation that skills from EAP courses will be applied to their courses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisors’ and colleague’s demonstration of skills from training will be applied to the workplace</td>
<td>Discipline instructors’ and student peers’ demonstration of skills from EAP courses will be applied to the discipline course</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisors’ and colleagues making connections between the workplace and training</td>
<td>Discipline instructors and student peers making connections between the discipline course and EAP course</td>
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<td>Supervisors’ and colleagues demonstrating positive attitudes toward training</td>
<td>Discipline instructors and student peers demonstrating positive attitudes toward EAP courses</td>
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<td>Potential rewards for learning outcomes such as promotions</td>
<td>Potential rewards for learning outcomes such as points towards grades</td>
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The second relevant finding is that EAP students may perceive a lack of transfer support from discipline instructors towards EAP transfer (Leki, 2001, 2006; Evans & Green, 2007; Gaffas, 2019). There have been certain studies with findings that EAP students perceive a lack of support from discipline instructors not making effort to understand EAP students’ English language use (Leki, 2001, 2006). For example, Leki’s (2006) study reported on interview responses from EAP students on their experiences in transitioning to discipline courses. A student described how they perceived discipline instructors classifying them as incompetent users of English, and not making an effort to listen and understand their language use. In terms of James’ (2010) findings, they reveal students perceiving lack of transfer support from discipline instructors stating that writing quality is not important for their assignments. Such behavior can demonstrate a lack of support towards EAP transfer as it shows they do not value academic writing in their course.

C. A Lack of Support From Discipline Course Peers to Transfer EAP Skills

The third relevant finding is that EAP students may perceive that peers in discipline courses do not support transfer from an EAP course. There have been EAP education studies such as LoCastro’s (1997) with findings that reflect the impact of this challenge of lack of peer support. LoCastro (1997) investigated the transfer of the speech act politeness from a remedial English-speaking class. The findings revealed limited transfer partly due to student peers’ lack of expectation for politeness in the group discussion (p. 94). Lack of expectation from peers is one aspect that makes a transfer climate unsupportive. As for James’ (2010) study, one of the aspects of the transfer climate indicated in their data is to do with the discipline course peers’ lack of support due to their attitudes towards using EAP skills. For example, EAP students mentioned perceiving negative attitudes from peers in discipline courses towards EAP skills, complaining that writing is not enjoyable.

III. Method

A. Research Design

The research described in this paper is part of a larger research study. This study followed a qualitative methodology which is suitable because the research question is open-ended in that it asks for participant explanations based on their own individual experiences. In other words, one participant may explain a way in which the transfer climate is supportive that is different from another participant. As Corbin and Strauss (2015) put it, a qualitative research methodology is suitable because it allows the researcher to explore the inner experiences of participants (p. 5). This is a relevant goal, exploring the inner experiences of participants, seeing as this study is an examination of EAP instructor perceptions.

B. Research Setting

This study was conducted in Spring 2022 at three universities in Kuwait. The EAP courses at these universities consist of 3 levels. To illustrate, at one of these institutions, the most basic EAP course is for students who need to improve their reading and writing skills, and their grammar and vocabulary. The consecutive course exposes students to research-based writing and a number of other writing genres. This course takes the students through the relationship between ideas, the structure of a paragraph, paraphrasing, referencing and so on. Finally, with the third course of the highest level, it is assumed that students already have the basic writing skills and are able to write research papers.

C. Participants

The researcher invited EAP instructors from these three universities to be participants in this study. After sending out recruitment emails to a total number of 36 EAP instructors, 22 of them agreed to participate. The participants’ teaching experience varied in terms of length and the kinds of courses they have taught. For instance, some participants have had around 20 years of teaching experience while others have had around 3 years of teaching experience. All the participants are qualified to teach EAP courses; however, there were 5 participants who were also trained in a particular discipline. Therefore, in terms of the participants’ current teaching, all 22 participants currently teach EAP courses, and 5 of them also teach disciplinary courses in sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, traditional linguistics, and business.

The researcher began interview arrangements once the interview instruments were finalized and institutional review board (IRB) approval was obtained. The IRB approval was obtained from Arizona State University’s (ASU) review board at the end of January 2022 and recruitment emails were sent out immediately after.

D. Data Collection

Data was collected using individual semi-structured interviews over 4 weeks during Spring 2022. The researcher arranged an online interview with each participant who consented to take part. The interviews were conducted online given that institutions in Kuwait were still taking precautions of the COVID-19 pandemic. All the participants agreed to use the online conferencing platform Zoom and the interviews took 30 minutes on average.

The appendix shows the interview instruments after they were piloted. After greeting the participants, the researcher asked them a warm-up question on what they think is the purpose of EAP courses. The purpose of the warm-up questions is to give participants a chance to be familiarized with the topic of the interview. After that, the interview involves eliciting the ways in which participants perceive the transfer climate, whether that be supportive or
unsupportive. For the sake of clarity, the researcher did not use the technical terms ‘learning transfer’ and ‘transfer climate’ in the interview. Initially, an inductive question of this nature was asked (i.e., “How, if at all, do you think discipline courses accommodate for the use of skills from EAP courses?”), allowing participants to mention whatever transfer climate components come to mind. After that, the participants were asked three deductive sub-questions (i.e., With regards to the structure of the course and its assignments/curriculum; with regards to discipline instructors’ demonstrating expectations towards EAP skills in their course; with regards to students in discipline courses demonstrating use of EAP skills) in case there were certain components of the transfer climate that participants did not mention.

E. Data Analysis

The first step in the analysis was completing a broad transcription of the interview recordings. To address the research questions, the data was analyzed qualitatively similar to an approach described by Tesch (2013). They describe their process of coding as two-fold with de-contextualizing and re-contextualizing. Firstly, with decontextualizing, a chunk of text is identified as a unit of analysis, when it is taken out of context from the transcript, and it is still meaningful as a unit in and of itself. Secondly, all the units can be re-contextualized when transferred from the interview transcript to a single category. With multiple rounds of coding, the researcher developed an organizational system of categories that were refined over time (Merriam, 2009; Tesch, 2013).

To ensure the quality of the data analysis, a professor who had taught EAP courses for many years was also asked to code the data. This aligns with Creswell’s (1998) use of peer review which involves a second qualified individual to review the data that has been analyzed. This can be done through intercoder-reliability checking. The second coder coded 20% of the total units of analysis from the interview data. A formula provided by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used to calculate the percentage of reliability. Their formula is: reliability = number of agreements / total number of agreements plus disagreements. A percentage of inter-coder reliability was achieved after the other coder’s second round of coding, which came to 92.7%. Also, one month later, the researcher re-coded 20% of the units of analysis. In comparing this new round of coding with the researcher’s previous round, the intra-coder reliability came to 95%.

IV. FINDINGS

Categories will be outlined below with the different participant responses of ways EAP instructors perceive the transfer climate as (un)supportive:

A. Existence of Transfer Opportunities in Discipline Courses

On one hand, some participants mentioned graded opportunities (i.e., assignments, homework, exams, quizzes, presentations) and others mentioned ungraded opportunities (i.e., working in groups) in the discipline course that allow students to transfer their EAP skills. In the following excerpt, the participant lists ways in which discipline courses’ writing assignments require students to transfer EAP skills:

Researcher: how, if at all, do you think the discipline courses accommodate for the use of skills from the academic writing courses?

Participant: yeah yeah, well most if not all discipline courses require different kinds of writing that employ a variety of strategies for different audiences so students may be required to write let's say long essays, or short answers to exam questions. As responses that is. Students, may be asked to write let's say lab reports, you know if they're studying science project proposal or report on the results of experiment, as what you would do in psycho-linguistics. A student may be called upon to write, let's say if business, a report, if they were studying business, and these are only some of the many types of writing a student may be engaged in throughout their academic journey. And so assigned writing in all courses helps students keep their writing skills sharp (Transcript from interview with participant 11).

B. Limited Transfer Opportunities in Discipline Courses

On the other hand, some participants mentioned that there is more focus on skills such as answering multiple choice questions as opposed to there being opportunities for students to demonstrate EAP skills such as academic writing. The excerpt below reflects this category:

Participant: In the other disciplines, there's more and more emphasis on multiple choice exams. Because I would have thought that writing is really where they need to show their, you know their, ability to produce and show their understanding of what they’ve learned in marketing economics, or whatever it is, throughout the semester. Uh, multiple choice has its purpose. But that purpose is not really connected to their ability to produce text (Transcript from interview with participant 17).

C. Discipline Instructors’ Realistic Expectations in Discipline Courses

There were participants who mentioned that discipline instructors expect students to transfer EAP skills, and that these expectations are a good fit with the students’ level of ability. In the following excerpt the EAP instructor confirms to the researcher that discipline instructors do have an expectation from students to use EAP. They justify that the expectation is realistic given that students are qualified to perform these expectations based on their placement:
Researcher: Do you think the discipline instructors themselves are making it clear that they have these expectations that they expect students to have these skills and use them?
Participant: Yeah they do expect that students who are good in the placement test and get direct entry to know academic writing, and they should be able to write all those things (Transcript from interview with participant 10).

D. Discipline Instructors’ Adjusted Expectations of Transfer

There were also participants who mentioned that despite discipline instructors having expectations, they adjust them based on the students’ level of ability in terms of language and writing proficiency. Participants describe this as a form of support for students. In the following excerpt, the EAP instructor also happens to be a discipline instructor of Sociolinguistics. In drawing from their experience as a discipline instructor, they express that discipline instructors’ expectations of EAP transfer are adjusted, meaning are not as high, in order to help students demonstrate their level of understanding:

Researcher: do you think discipline instructors offer explicit expectations in terms of academic skills?
Participant: They do. At the end the expectation is up to you, but to be frank, if I’m going to be teaching first year students, (as a discipline instructor) I’ll give them a bit more information in terms of what I need and what is required, and also, my expectations won’t be that high when I’m actually reading the papers right, because these are new newcomers freshmen that are not used to the university or academic writing (Transcript from interview with participant 3).

E. Discipline Course Instructors’ Unrealistic Expectations of Transfer

Moreover, there were participants who mentioned that there are existing expectations from discipline instructors that students transfer EAP skills to their course, but they are unrealistically high in terms of standard. Participants describe this as a challenge for students. In the following excerpt a participant states that they think discipline instructor expectations towards EAP transfer are unrealistic because they are unaware of the students’ language background:

Researcher: Do you think discipline instructors demonstrate expectations towards skills from the EAP courses that you teach?
Participant: I can tell you, generally, what their expectations are. Their expectations are rather high. I think a lot of discipline instructors don’t fully understand the exit level of our students, so I think a lot of instructors within the disciplines when they receive students from our courses, their expectations are unrealistic in terms of the language production (Transcript from interview with participant 3).

F. Discipline Course Instructors’ Guidance for Using EAP Skills

This category includes participants’ statements that discipline instructors offer guidance on ways to use EAP skills in their course. Such guidance can entail explaining how to write a particular paper or conduct a particular presentation, or offering writing templates as examples. In the following excerpt, a participant explains that discipline instructors tend to offer writing templates, review how to write research papers, and answer questions as a way to guide students through an assignment:

Participant: Most of the students unfortunately don’t have prior knowledge of what they need to know in order to write a research paper. So instructors tend to give them a template for instruction. During the class they tend to review these things, talking about plagiarism, talking about how to cite sources properly using MLA or APA and answer any questions.

G. Discipline Course Instructors’ Encouragement to Use EAP Skills

This category includes participants’ statements that discipline instructors encourage students to make use of EAP skills. The encouragement can be placing emphasis on the importance of EAP skills and pushing students to use them. The following excerpt from an interview is the only data in this category. The participant in this interview also happens to be a discipline instructor. The participant mentions that discipline instructors do encourage students to use EAP skills such as referencing. This encouragement is by stressing to students the importance of referencing:

Researcher: Do you think the instructors in the discipline courses make it clear enough that “I have this expectation from you to use these know skills that we just talked about whether it's presentation skills, short answer writing, essay writing, whatever skills they get from the EAP courses?
Participant: Here in the department, we are encouraging students to use the APA style, then you know, there are different formats and styles for referencing sources, there are the MLA and here in the department, we are all as instructors encouraging students to use the APA style. So then every time they do a search for information [emphasis added]. So of course, these counts, even when I asked them to write a mini research or a paper (in their discipline linguistics course) they have to you know write down the resources, using the APA style and how they do the quotation and referencing in paraphrasing the in-text citation is important, especially in you know assignments in exams sentence structure paragraph is very important (Transcript from interview with participant 7).

H. Discipline Course Peers’ Influence
A participant mentioned that students can influence each other in how they perceive EAP and the transfer of EAP skills to discipline courses. Such influence can be based on the way peers perform with EAP skills. The following excerpt from an interview is the only data in this category. The participant describes how students may be influenced negatively from peers of a higher level than them. That is, students who are not privately educated may feel they are not treated fairly by discipline instructors due to the impact of privately educated students in discipline courses, and this can cause them to feel negativity towards EAP skills.

Participant: a problem, I think, is that the students that are coming out of the academic writing courses, as I said, are foreign language students but when they move into the disciplines, I won't say they're competing, but they're find themselves in the same class as students, that have had a private English education. So, in essence, those students are almost native speakers, so I think the students coming out of academic writing courses are kind of unfairly judged in terms of their academic writing skills, because kind of the benchmark is these native speakers. And I think that leads to a lot of negativity (Transcript added from interview with participant 3).

The findings also extend previous views of the components of EAP transfer climate. One way these findings do this is by offering more concrete examples of each of these components. In referring back to the literature review, it appears that James (2010) is the only EAP education study thus far to examine all components of the transfer climate. Their findings outline concrete examples on how different components of the transfer climate apply to the EAP education context. An example is EAP students perceiving a lack of support from discipline instructors not expecting strong language skills in their course. However, findings of this current study offer additional concrete examples from the perspective of the EAP instructor. For instance, this study’s findings demonstrate that some expectations can support EAP transfer while other expectations may be unsupportive. Compared to James’ (2010) findings which outline lack of support from discipline instructors’ lack of expectation towards EAP transfer, the findings of this current study outline that some expectations from discipline instructors can be realistically balanced and some discipline instructors may also adjust their expectations to the level of the students. This study’s findings also show some participants mentioning that discipline instructor expectations can be unsupportive towards EAP transfer when they are too high a standard:

- **Discipline instructors’ realistic expectations of transfer**
- **Discipline instructors’ adjusted expectations of transfer**
- **Discipline instructors’ unrealistic expectations of transfer**

The findings also extend previous views of the components of EAP transfer climate by offering concrete examples of a supportive transfer climate. Findings of EAP education studies do not reflect concrete examples of support in transfer.
climates as much as concrete examples of lack of support in transfer climates. There has been a body of EAP education research with findings outlining the challenges students faced in transitioning from EAP courses to discipline courses. This current study’s findings illustrate support from the existence of opportunities for EAP transfer in discipline coursework; support from discipline instructors’ expectations of EAP transfer; support from discipline instructors’ guidance on how EAP students can use EAP skills; and their encouragement for EAP students to use EAP skills. It is possible that due to this study’s findings coming from the perspective of EAP instructors rather than students, there are more examples of support as opposed to examples of the challenges that only students may perceive.

A. Practical Implications

What can be implied from the findings is that the interview drew EAP instructors’ attention to the impact of the transfer climate. In reflecting on the findings, participants perceived some aspects of the transfer climate more than others, with the majority of participants perceiving ‘existence of opportunities’ to transfer EAP skills through assignments and perceiving ‘expectations of discipline instructors’ towards EAP transfer in their courses. However, the participants barely mentioned the component concerning student peer influence on the transfer climate. It could be the case that participants did not perceive this component as much as others, or that they did not view it as important and impactful as the other components. Therefore, this is an implication for teacher training of EAP instructors, that both during training and upon entering EAP programs, they can be made informed of the different transfer climate components and their potential impact of learning transfer. For instance, teacher training can involve exposing trainees to findings from workplace training studies that involve each of the transfer climate components and to examples that have emerged from this study’s findings. The findings offer concrete examples of a supportive transfer climate that can give practitioners insight on what kind of support to aim for in the target context, that is, discipline courses.

B. Directions for Future Research

For future research, it would be insightful to conduct a similar study that is open-ended in nature but that examines the perceptions of other stakeholders, such as EAP students and discipline instructors, to see what aspects of the transfer climate they see as the most impactful. While EAP instructors may have more consideration towards the existence of opportunities to transfer, such as in this study, the students themselves may have more consideration towards the attitudes of their peers or the impact of their discipline course grades. Moreover, future research could also seek out what the transfer climate is like in discipline courses for the transfer of EAP skills through research methods such as observations of discipline courses, and analysis of their curriculums. In this current study, it was not possible to gain access to discipline courses; however, it would be insightful to compare instructor perceptions of the transfer climate to data of what actually occurs in the transfer climate.

C. Research Limitations

Lastly, this study is not without its limitations. An aspect of this study that can be considered a limitation is the extent to which the interview instruments were open-ended. The interview could be made less open-ended and more precise by specifying what particular discipline courses participants refer to with regards to the transfer climate. That is, their perceptions of the transfer climate may vary depending on the discipline. For instance, participants’ perceptions of the transfer climate in a physics course may differ to that of a history course, depending on how accommodating the discipline is to EAP skills. With such information from participants on the transfer climate of particular disciplines, the findings can have more depth, and readers would be able to compare the transfer climate in different disciplines.

APPENDIX

Final Version of the Interview

Part 1: Warm-up
● Greeting
● In your view, what do you think is the purpose of EAP courses within the university setting?

Part 2:
● How, if at all, do you think discipline courses accommodate the use of skills from EAP courses?
  o with regards to the structure of the course and its assignments/curriculum
  o with regards to discipline instructors’ demonstrating expectations towards EAP skills in their course
  o with regards to students in discipline courses demonstrating use of EAP skills

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REFERENCES


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A Stylistic Pragmatics Perspective on Metaphors of Emotive Words in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*

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Abstract—There remains to be a scarcity of pragmatic studies that rely on analysis tools in the literary dimension. It is also deemed not too important to relate the linguistics field to understanding the beauty and metaphoric meanings in the literature. This study describes the metaphors in emotive phrases from a pragmatic stylistic standpoint and their pragmatic connotations. This study identified symbolic utterances of a novel's emotive terms. Thus, this study relied on novel excerpts with metaphorical emotive word meanings. Sindhunata's Gramedia Pustaka Utama book *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* provided source data. The data were collected by observation and then analyzed using distributional analysis. The extralinguistic dimensions of this study were analyzed via a contextual method, especially the extra-lingual equivalent method. This study found anthropomorphic, abstract, and animal imagery analogies. The collected data shows that metaphors have four pragmatic meanings: connotative, emotive, introspective, and collocative. Understanding these meanings is not just confined to a purely literary perspective, as literature and language are like two-sided coins; one field cannot be separated from the other. So, there will be more literary studies with an interdisciplinary perspective on literature and linguistics in the future.

Index Terms—emotive words, literary work, metaphors, stylistic pragmatics

I. INTRODUCTION

There remains to be a scarcity of pragmatic studies that rely on analysis tools in the literary dimension. This could be attributed to how people tend to think that the pragmatics field is separate from literature. The linguistics field, including pragmatics, has been determined to examine anything related to its linguistic form and meaning without being aware of its attachment to literature. On the other hand, it is also deemed not too important to relate the linguistics field in understanding the beauty and metaphoric meanings found in the literature. Such a view is incorrect; these two fields are like the two sides of a coin (Clark, 1996, p. 124; Maryelliwati et al., 2018, p. 64; Rahmat et al., 2023, p. 13). Thus, these two entities cannot be separated from one another. Detaching one dimension will not result in a good interpretation of the other, or even at a more extreme level, and the interpretation will be impossible. In that perspective, this study examines the metaphorical entities contained in the monumental literary work *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*, written by Sindhunata; this was published by Gramedia Pustaka Utama several decades ago, and, up until 2020, it still receives requests for re-printing.

*Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* is a work that provides several intertwined metaphors containing semantics language. Metaphors are often intertwined with semantics regarding the figure of speech (Sperber & Wilson, 2002, p. 7; Robinson, 2000, p. 74; Setyaningsih & Rahardi, 2019, p. 717; Rahardi, 2019, p. 266; Rahmat et al., 2023, p. 3). People with metaphorical speech will usually compare certain things, but not by substituting words such as like, as, and the like, but by referencing directly to something that is metaphorized, as what Sindhunata did in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* by starting his story as follows: “Mendung bagaikan bidadari menangis di Negeri Lokapala. Air matanya jatuh berupa batu-batu hitam menutupi kehijauan rerumputan. Kesunyian tanpa binatang. Kesedihan tanpa bulan. Malamnya berhias dengan ratapan awan-awan tebal” (It was cloudy like an angel crying in the Land of Lokapala). Her tears fell in the form of black stones covering the green grass. Silence without animals. Moonless sorrow. The night is decorated

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with lamentations of thick clouds) (Sindhunata, 1999, p. 4). The metaphor contained in the early excerpts of Sindhunata’s work was impossible to analyse purely from a literary dimension without relating it to the conception of emotive words in linguistics. From the linguistic dimension, emotive words in the form of metaphors contain not only one meaning but can be very diverse (Caffi & Janney, 1994, p. 327; Ephratt, 2008, p. 1911; Rahardi et al., 2023, p. 13; Kartika et al., 2023, p. 291). Therefore, an analysis that uses only one perspective cannot possibly describe the diverse meanings of one linguistic entity; thus, a pragmatic stylistic perspective is needed.

As presented earlier, the pragmatic stylistic perspective used to examine the linguistic data in literary works can be seen as a binocular device that combines two different things (Blanks, 2011, p. 149; Setyaningsih & Rahardi, 2020, p. 209; Rahardi, 2022, p. 2648). It is expected that the two-dimensional binocular device can better describe the essence of the metaphor in the emotive words in the literary work of *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*. Furthermore, the problem in this study is formulated as follows: What are the manifestations of form and meaning in each type of metaphor contained in the emotive words in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* by Sindhunata seen from the perspective of pragmatic stylistics? In line with the problem formulation, the specific objectives of this study with a pragmatic stylistic perspective are as follows: (1) to describe the manifestations of the types of metaphors found in the emotive words in Sindhunata’s *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* seen from a pragmatic stylistics perspective, and (2) to describe the manifestation of pragmatic meanings from the metaphors contained in the emotive words in Sindhunata’s *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* seen from a pragmatic stylistic perspective. We believe that this study will be of great benefit as it will provide deeper meaning to literary works than the previous studies conducted independently, not only in terms of the message the writer is trying to convey to the readers but also in terms of the linguistic and pragmatics dimensions of every part of the literary work.

Essentially, life can never be separated from metaphorical entities. One could even say that life is but a metaphor itself. In literary works, metaphors are usually understood as an attempt to transfer images. Images transfer is conducted in literary works to build beauty or aesthetics (Goddard, 2004, p. 1219; Cesaria et al., 2022, p. 91; Tiawati et al., 2022, p. 44; Rahmat et al., 2023, p. 201). In addition to images, entities such as good characteristics can be transferred into a literary work. For example, in Javanese society, people must know the expression “urip mung mampir ngombe”, which means life is short. In this case, life is metaphorized only by “mampir ngombe” or “having a quick drink”. Therefore, it is not good if this short life is not filled with virtues of attitude and behavior in life. Thus, metaphors describe something concrete with something abstract to build its beauty or aesthetics. This metaphor is not present in literary works but in the real practice of people’s daily lives. However, in Javanese society, metaphors color people’s various areas of life. Therefore, it is not wrong to say that life is essentially a metaphor, as stated at the beginning of this article. Understanding life metaphors is impossible without “sanepa” and “sasmita”. People who can grasp both of those things in life tend to be able to run well and smoothly and be calm and happy in life with others. On the other hand, those who cannot grasp the “sanepa” and “sasmita” of that life tend to run into problems, various obstacles, and stumbling blocks in life.

According to Aristotle, metaphors refer to a framework of thinking to be able to understand abstract concepts. Abstract concepts can be more easily understood by comparing them with previously understood concepts (Rahmat et al., 2019, p. 98; Sultan et al., 2023, p. 569). Thus, even from the perspective of this famous philosopher, there are nuances of image transfer, as mentioned earlier. In Aristotle’s view, the main function of metaphor is it being a rhetorical ornament (Rahmat et al., 2022, p. 41; Mayori et al., 2023, p. 128). Therefore, there is a stylistic function in the description of the metaphor. By replacing various figures of speech and language styles, metaphors are useful to beautify rhetorics, whether spoken or textual. There is nothing wrong with the perspective introduced by Aristotle, even though other views of metaphors emerged afterwards. For example, the perspective proposed by Punther states that metaphors should not be limited only to stylistic representations for symbolic purposes to create beauty (Giordano, 2016, p. 144). Metaphors should also be used in everyday interactions with others. Thus, there is an interactional function in describing metaphors, according to this expert. By placing a metaphor, the interactions between each other will be better and smoother. There will not be many obstacles and collisions as metaphors contain unsustainability and non-transparency in conveying meaning. The more transparent the meaning of a metaphor is conveyed, the worse the metaphorical intent is conveyed in the interactions with others (Faisol & Rahmat, 2021, p. 270; Pristianingrum & Damayanti, 2022, p. 102; Riswani et al., 2023, p. 107; Kunjana Rahardi, 2023, p. 2774; Tiawati et al., 2024, p. 27). This expert also emphasizes that the inaccurate understanding of metaphors happens as metaphors are separated from reality and daily life. For centuries, metaphors have only been present in a stylistic sense in literature. Metaphors are not present in a person’s daily life when communicating and interacting with others.

In literary works, the metaphor used by literary writers is not only used to describe the relationships built through communication between the characters told in the literary work because in literary works, one character also interacts and communicates with other characters through the plot of the story. But more than that, metaphor is used in literary works to reach the ethical and aesthetic dimensions of literary works (Maffi, 2005, p. 609; Wincana et al., 2022, p. 8; Putri et al., 2023, p. 65; Faisol et al., 2024, p. 18). The more different types of metaphors are used, the more ethical and aesthetic the literary work will be (Sperber & Wilson, 2002, p. 7; Robinson, 2000, p. 74). The choice of the right and smart metaphoric manifestation by an author will also reflect how truly the level of maturity and greatness of an author (Goddard, 2004, p. 1219; Nurina & Riani, 2022, p. 64; Debi et al., 2023, p. 142; Reflinaldi et al., 2024, p. 13). In other
words, the existence of a metaphor in work can reflect the author's existence. Since the author and the literary work are interrelated, it can also be said that in addition to showing the existence of the author, the proper use of metaphors will also automatically show the quality and greatness of the values of life carried by a literary work (Ephratt, 2008, p. 1912; Rahmat et al., 2023, p. 90). This occurs not only in using metaphors in emotive words as the object of this research in Indonesian but also in literary works found in foreign societies and cultures. International and worldwide literary works that are very classic in the past, such as John Steinbeck's 'Of Mice and Men' (1973), Ernest Hemingway's 'The Old Man and the Sea' written in Cuba (1951), 'Lord of William Golding's Flies' (1954) all employ very beautiful and varied metaphors (Lemke, 1991, p. 114; Alexander, 2006, p. 543). Since the beginning, works of this world's grade have been known to carry exceptional content and life values. It is essential to stress that this existence has been full of metaphors from its earliest days until now. Literary works that struggle with utilizing metaphors in their writing. In everyday life, especially currently when we are living in the modern era, the use of metaphors in communication and connection is becoming increasingly vital.

The experts' views, related to the metaphors above, are considered sufficient as a frame of reference in this study. In this study on Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin by Sindhunata, the author tends to use Aristotle's perspective in interpreting metaphors, especially because the object of this study is related to literary works (Artyati et al., 2018, p. 146; Sari et al., 2020, p. 23; Gusthini & Istiningdias, 2024, p. 7). Thus, the understanding of metaphors is embraced by stylistic figurations, which then can be used as a tool for analysis in this study. A pragmatic stylistic perspective has been used to examine the metaphors in the Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin novel. It should be noted here that pragmatics is always interrelated, especially with the speaker's meaning (Rahardi, 2018, p. 571; Yendra et al., 2018, p. 311). In using metaphors in literary works, a writer must have certain purposes that are not always conveyed explicitly, even though in a quality literary work, the writer's intentions are often conveyed figuratively with various metaphors. Pragmatics operates not only at an interpersonal and textual level with linguistics dimensions but also on texts with aesthetic and figurative dimensions in literary works (Rahardi, 2019, p. 50). Elizabeth Black calls such perspective pragmatic stylistics. There is a synergy between pragmatics and stylistics in pragmatic stylistics (Blanks, 2011, p. 151). Pragmatics exists in a linguistic framework, while stylistics exists in a literary framework. With this interdisciplinary perspective, the pragmatic meaning in a literary text can be understood well, not only by interpreting the figurative-aesthetic linguistics aspects used in it but also by relating it to its context (Yusri et al., 2019, p. 6). Therefore, understanding the writer's meaning, expressed through the lines of literary works, whether poetic or prosaic, can be assisted by using social, societal, cultural, or situational contexts (Rahardi, 2016, p. 96; Verschueren & Östman, 2011, p. 119).

In connection with language meanings, has distinguished seven types of language meanings, namely, (1) conceptual meaning, (2) connotative meaning, (3) social meaning, (4) affective meaning, (5) reflective meaning, (6) collocative meaning, and (7) thematic meaning (Geoffrey Leech, 2014, p. 45). These have been used as a frame of reference to understand the meanings of the utterances in the Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin novel, which is the data source for this study. Furthermore, in terms of the types of metaphors, has categorized the metaphors as follows: (1) anthropomorphic metaphors, which are used to compare the similarity of experiences with what is contained in the metaphorized ones. An example is the emotive expression of "mulut goa" ("mouth of the cave"); (2) metaphors with animal imagery, which are often used to describe the metaphorized natural states. An example is the emotive expression of "buah naga" ("dragon fruit"); (3) abstract metaphors that are used to divert abstract expressions into more concrete expressions (Rahardi, 2018, p. 571; Haula & Nur, 2019, p. 28). An example is the emotive expression of "anak emas" ("golden boy"); and (4) synesthesia metaphors that are used to divert the use of sensory images. An example is the emotive expression "buah bibir" ("hot topic"). The type of metaphor described above is used as an analytical tool in interpreting the metaphors and metaphorical meanings in the emotive words in this literary work.

II. Method

This is a qualitative descriptive study of the metaphorical meanings of emotive words with a pragmatic stylistic perspective found in the Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin literary work. This study aimed to identify and examine the types and metaphorical pragmatic meanings of emotive words in this literary work. Thus, the data of this pragmatic stylistics study were utterances from this novel, which contain metaphorical meanings of the emotive words. Therefore, this study's data source was substantively the text's excerpts from this novel. The locational data source was the Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin, a novel by Sindhunata and published by Gramedia Pustaka Utama (1999). Pragmatic stylistics has been used as a perspective to investigate the metaphorical meanings contained in those emotive words. This research data was collected by applying the observation method, commonly referred to as the listening method in linguistics studies. The data collection method was applied with reading as the basic technique and note-taking as a follow-up technique. The data collected by applying these methods and techniques are then classified and typified (Mulyaningish et al., 2022). The data classification and typification steps generate specific data types and data types, so it is easy to apply data analysis methods and techniques. In this case, the types and types of data are words, phrases, clauses, and sentences containing emotive words with metaphorical meanings. The data then undergo validation. The research data in the form of detailed data types and types are then tabulated and triangulated to related experts by asking for their opinions. Also, theoretical triangulation was done by referring to certain theories related to the data of this
study to obtain research data that are truly valid for analysis. Data analysis methods and techniques were then applied to analyze these well-presented data.

Data analysis was carried out by applying the distributional method with the technique for direct elements because this data is related to linguistic dimensions. In addition, data analysis was also carried out by applying the contextual or the extra-lingual equivalent method. This method is applied to reach aspects outside the language or have a pragmatic dimension. In this case, not all emotive meanings containing metaphors can be found only by looking at the linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions to obtain the correct meaning as desired by the author. Interpreting research data in the form of emotive words containing metaphorical dimensions to find the types of metaphors and their meanings is carried out by observing the context of the speech. The context in question is not only the linguistic entity in front of and behind the research data but also relates it to the overall speech context, especially the extra-linguistic aspects outside the linguistic forms that become the research data. After the data analysis is done well by applying the two methods of data analysis above, the last step is the presentation of the results of the data analysis. Data presentation is done informally. Such presentation is done using ordinary language, not with formulas that are not too commonly used in linguistic-pragmatic research.

III. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Research result

The data collected properly and correctly is then classified and typified carefully. After that, the data is validated by triangulating it with related experts and relevant theories. Data analysis was carried out after the data triangulation step was carried out properly. Data analysis was carried out by applying two data analysis methods in stages to find the types of metaphors in emotive words and pragmatic meanings of speech. The types of metaphors are found by applying the distributional analysis method, while the pragmatic meaning of the metaphors is found by applying the extra-linguial analysis method. From the analysis of the first stage, three types of metaphors were found, namely: (1) anthropomorphic metaphors, (2) abstract metaphors, and (3) metaphors with animal images. As for the next stage of analysis by applying the extra-lingual equivalent analysis method, the following pragmatic metaphorical meanings were found: (1) connotative meaning, (2) affective meaning, (3) reflective meaning, and (4) collocative meaning.

Anthropomorphic metaphors

This type of anthropomorphic metaphor has been determined in the following data: DKMM1 in the sentence that reads “Asmara Prabu Danareja yang belum terpuaskan mengakibatkan alam bermalasan dalam kesedihan.” (Prabu Danareja’s unsatisfied love resulted in nature lazing in sadness).; DKMM2 in the sentence that reads “…cinta yang sudah mengeras seperti batu karang.” (…a love that has become hardened like a rock.); DKMM3 in the sentence that says “Matanya disesapi berbagai warna. Dan hatinya pun terbuka akan suatu makna: rahasia sungai itu ada dalam hidupnya.” (Her eyes were filled with various colors. And her heart opened to a meaning: the secret of the river was in its life.); DKMM5 in the sentence that reads “Jauh dari kerajaan kerendahan hati para kera, seekor burung walik merapat di tangga langit.” (Far from the kingdom of humility of the apes, a guardian wails on the heavenly steps). The same type of metaphor was also found in the following excerpts of utterances: DKMM 10 in the sentence that reads “Ombak samudra raya bergulung-gulung dalam kekejamannya. Gemuruh, jerit teriakannya. Airnya naik hendak merobek keadaan, yang sedang mencium bumi di cakrawala kasih sayangnya.” (The waves of the great ocean rolled in crueltу. Rumbling, screaming. The water was rising about to tear the sky, which was kissing the earth on the horizon of its affection.); DKMM11 in the sentence that reads “Merambati permadani lumut, bagai pelangilah keadaan ikan-ikan bintang laut. Hutan ganggang berhiaskan teratai-teratai segar. Pacar-pacar banyu menjadi mainan ikan-ikan bundaran.” (Crawling through the moss rug, the starfish condition was like rainbow. The algae forest was decorated with fresh lotuses. The plants became toys for fish.); and DKMM13 in the sentence that reads “Tambur dan bende ditabuh keras, dibarengi suara sangkakala yang menjerit-jerit menyayat hati.” (Tambur and bende were beaten hard, accompanied by the sound of trumpets that were screaming heartbreakingly).

Of all these analyzed data, anthropomorphic metaphor has been identified as the most common. In revealing the feelings, attitudes, behaviour, and actions of the characters in this literary work, Sindhunata has used many figurative comparisons in nature for beauty purposes. Forms like “…alam bermalasan dalam kesedihan.” (… nature lazing in sadness), categorizing nature with the human creation of God. Can this universe be “lazy” like humans? Could the universe be “grieving” like humans? In another excerpt that reads “…kerajaan kerendahan hati para kera, seekor burung walik merapat di tangga langit.” (…the kingdom of the humility of the apes, a guardian wails on the heavenly steps), Sindhunata uses anthropomorphic comparisons. Forms such as “kerajaan kerendahan hati para kera” (…the kingdom of the apes) are used figuratively to create beauty. How can it be said that these monkeys have a kingdom of humility? Isn’t it that the creature that can have a humble heart on earth is a human being because this creature has feelings and intelligence? Who can lament if it is not a human being created by God when he is sad? However, Sindhunata mentions “seekor burung walik merapat di tangga langit” (a guardian wail on the heavenly steps).

Lastly, the researcher would like to emphasize again the form of language such as “…dibarengi suara sangkakala yang menjerit-jerit menyayat hati” (…accompanied by the sound of trumpets that were screaming heartbreakingly) is one of the manifestations of Sindhunata eloquence in using metaphors in this novel. He had always screamed truth, faith, and love all his life to humanity because he was a Jesuit monk. His screams of truth, faith, and love are sometimes

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practiced in a desert with very few listeners, but there are also times when he screams in a crowd of humanity. In one of his monumental literary lines, he wrote, “…suara sangkala yang menjerit-jerit menyayat hati” (the sound of trumpets that were screaming heartbreakingly).

**Abstract metaphors**

Meanwhile, abstract metaphors were also found in the following utterances: DKMM6 in the sentence that reads “Gendewa ditarik dengan gerakan tangan yang indah seperti pelangi yang berasal dari gerakan selendang…” (Gendewa is drawn with beautiful hand movements, like a rainbow that comes from the shawl movement.); DKMM7 in the sentence that reads “Hati Barata memang sebening Danau Nirmala.” (Barata’s heart is as clear as Lake Nirmala.); DKMM9 in the sentence that reads “Kehendak rasanya memang bisa menginginkan apa saja, tetapi keterbatasannya menancapkan ketidaksampannya terhenti pada cita-cita belaka.” (The will can desire anything, but its limitations stifled its inability to stop at mere ideals.); DKMM12 in the sentence that reads “Pagi yang malang bagi Wibisana. Demikianlah nasib bagi kejujurannya. Laut yang pernah memeluknya telah menelan harapannya.” (Poor morning for Wibisana. Such is the fate of his honesty. The sea that once embraced him had swallowed his hopes.); DKMM16 in the sentence that reads “Inilah malam wisuda kematian angkara murka.” (This was the death graduation of anger.); and DKMM17 in the sentence that reads “Di sanalah mereka menjadi anak-anak, laki-laki dan wanita, yang tak memikirkan apa-apa dalam hidupnya, kecuali saling mencinta dan dicinta. Mereka berbicara tanpa bahasa, kecuali bahasa cinta.” (There they became children, a boy and a girl, who thought nothing of their life, except to love and be loved. They spoke without language, except the language of love.). Abstract metaphors are evident in the use of “…malam wisuda kematian angkara murka” (…the death graduation of anger). This expression is truly imaginary, and the message is not easy to capture. Sindhunata is very skilled at abstracting the meaning by using words that are full of taste and power as in the linguistic form above.

What is the real meaning of the usage of the form “wisuda kematian angkara murka” (the death graduation of anger), which he used to describe the last night of Rahwana’s meeting with Dewi Sinta who always accompanied Trijata in Argasoka Park. Sindhunata’s expertise in using abstract forms to produce abstract metaphors is also evident in the following form: “…tetapi keterbatasannya menancapkan ketidaksampannya terhenti pada cita-cita belaka.” (…but its limitations stifled its inability to stop at mere ideals.) The author of this literary work can abstract “keterbatasan menancapkan ketidaksampanan” (its limitations stifled its inability), which was then used collocatively in the form “terhenti pada cita-cita belaka” (stop at mere ideals). In addition, there are also metaphors with animal imagery, such as the one in DKMM14, which reads “Lawan-lawannya itu jatuh bertumpang tindih menjadi bukit-bukit jenazah kera. Dan ketika mulutnya menganga bagaikan gua, tersedotlah kera-kera bagai aliran sungai ke dalam perutnya.” (His opponents fell on top of each other into hills of monkey corpses. And when his mouth opened like a cave, the monkeys were sucked like streams into his stomach.); in DKMM15 that reads “Arwah Kumbakarna naik ke langit mengendarai ular jantan, digiring anak-anak bajang. Namun betapa sedih hati Kumbakarna, karena surga ternyata belum mau membuka pintunya.” (Kumbakarna’s spirit ascended to the sky riding a male snake, being led by bajang children. But how sad Kumbakarna’s heart was, because heaven had not yet opened its door.). Thus, it can be emphasized that the dominant types of metaphor used in Sindhunata’s Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin are anthropomorphic and abstract metaphors.

**Metaphors with animal’s observations**

However, based on the animal’s observation, the present three types of meanings are not found in Sindhunata’s Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin: (1) conceptual meaning, (2) thematic meaning, and (3) social meaning. As per our collected and analyzed data, the connotative meaning is present in the following data in DKMM2: “…cinta yang sudah mengerus seperti batu karang.” (…a love that has become hardened like a rock.); in DKMM 5 data, which reads “Jauh dari kerajaan kerendahan hati para kera…” (Far from the kingdom of the humility of the apes); and in DKMM 13 data, which reads.”dibarengi suara sangkakala yang menjerit-jerit menyayat hati.” (…accompanied by the sound of trumpets that were screaming heartbreakingly). The affective meaning has been determined in the following data in DKMM1, which reads. “…alam bermalas dalam kesedihan.” (… nature lazing in sadness.); in DKMM9, which reads. “…tetapi keterbatasannya menancapkan ketidaksampannya terhenti pada cita-cita belaka.” (…but its limitations stifled its inability to stop at mere ideals.); and in DKMM15, which reads, “Lawan-lawannya itu jatuh bertumpang tindih menjadi bukit-bukit jenazah kera” (His opponents fell on top of each other into hills of monkey corpses).

Next, reflective meaning has also been determined in this novel, which was present in DKMM3 data, which reads “Matatni disepak berbagai warna.” (Her eyes were filled with various colors); in DKMM6, which reads “Gendewa ditarik dengan gerakan tangan yang indah seperti pelangi yang berasal dari gerakan selendang.” (Gendewa is drawn with beautiful hand movements, like a rainbow that comes from the shawl movement.); in DKMM7, which reads “Hati Barata memang sebening Danau Nirmala.” (Barata’s heart is as clear as Lake Nirmala.); in DKMM 10, which reads “Ombak samudra raya berguling-gulung dalam kekejaamannya…” (The waves of the great ocean rolled in cruelty); in DKMM12, which reads “Pagi yang malang bagi Wibisana.” (Poor morning for Wibisana.); and in DKMM 16 as well as in DKMM 17, which read, “…malam wisuda kematian angkara murka.” (… the death graduation of anger) and “Mereka berbicara tanpa bahasa, kecuali bahasa cinta.” (They spoke without language, except the language of love.). Finally, the collocative meaning has been found to be present in DKMM4 data, which reads, “Raksasa sebesar gunung
The results of this study indicate that *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* contained more anthropomorphic metaphors, wherein it showed that children’s language currently shows the presence of metamorphosis of everyday language. The type of metaphor that is quite dominant in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* is the anthropomorphic metaphor. This type of metaphor can be understood as a metaphor used to compare the similarity of something with the entity of the thing being metaphorized (Haula & Nur, 2019, p. 31). This metaphor is commonly used to express speech or expressions that refer to inanimate things. This is done by removing or diverting it from the human body or parts of the human body and the qualities and desires that exist in humans. Other experts call this type of metaphor personification because the things that exist outside humans as inanimate objects are living personal figures (Rahardi, 2023, p. 2774; Tiawati et al., 2024, p. 27). With this utilization, of course, the life force of storytelling will be very strong. Storytelling becomes more beautiful by characterizing aspects outside of language in the form of a natural environment and a metaphorical environment. In other words, the perception of ecocentric aspects of literary works in a multimodality perspective, as has been done by Sindhunata in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*, makes the power of storytelling and conveying an utterance more powerful. In this study, this type of anthropomorphic metaphor is shown in the data of DKM1, DKKM2, DKM4, DKMM5, DKMM10, DKMM11, and DKMM13.

In addition, abstract metaphors were relatively frequent in this literary work (Haula & Nur, 2019, p. 31). These implicit comparisons are evident throughout Sindhunata’s work (Dewaele et al., 2020, p. 41). In the novel used as the data source for this research, the use of metaphors that start from something real to become unreal is often found and can indeed bring readers into a virtual world. The reader is brought into an imagined situation, even if that imagination is in a realm that is not always close to the reader's daily life. With this style of storytelling, the imagination power of the readers and connoisseurs of this literary work will be awakened more and more perfectly. It is as if people are brought into another world different from their daily lives, which can make people loyal to reading and following the storyline until the end of the work. It does not even stop after the reading activity from the story's beginning to the end. Still, the attraction of reader literacy seems to be created so that it is always built continuously, and people are willing to keep reading the work repeatedly. So, such is the power of abstract metaphor, or what Stephen Ullman calls the transition from concrete to abstract (Blanks, 2011, p. 149; Setyaningsih & Rahardi, 2020; p. 209; Rahardi, 2022, p. 2648). Sindhunata has successfully constructed this metaphor perfectly, so the reader is stunned and always fascinated to open, read, and enjoy it. In this study, this type of metaphor is shown in the data of DKM61, DKKM7, DKM9, DKMM12, DKMM16, and DKMM17.

Finally, related to the discussion of the type of metaphor used by Sindhunata, this writer also uses the animal metaphor. The involvement of various types of animals and plants as the environment and as story figures are very common, but the animal metaphors used are not as much as the metaphors of the first and second types described above. The metaphor of the type of animal is not widely used because the author of this literary work uses it as part of the figures told in his novel. This type of animal metaphor is exemplified in this study by DKMM14 data and DKMM15 data. A more extensive and in-depth examination is likely to find more use for this type of metaphor, and for that, separate, more basic research is needed. This book's author is skilled in using metaphors to describe every feeling, action, and behaviour of the characters in *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*. The earlier statement that says that life is a metaphor is true. It can be said that the author of this literary work may have lived his life in its true sense. Metaphors are part of the life of this literary work's author. Concerning meaning, Leech has shown that seven types of meanings can be present in a text or discourse, namely, (1) connotative meaning, (2) affective meaning, (3) reflective meaning, (4) collocative meaning, (5) conceptual meaning, (6) thematic meaning, and (7) social meaning (Geoffrey Leech, 2014, p. 19). The choice of vocabulary containing metaphorical expressions in this study can explain the types and meanings used in the novel text. In addition, this research is also expected to provide perceptions or image schemes that emerge from these metaphors. Practically, the results of this study are expected to provide an overview of the role of metaphors in novel texts. The conceptual metaphor in the opinion rubric reflects the writer’s perceptions, experiences, and thoughts.

Metaphors are not only used to convey messages but they are also used to think about something. Various metaphors with pragmatic meanings can also be used to interpret meanings which in literary works are not always only one facet but are sometimes complex and multifaceted (Goddard, 2004, p. 1219; Cesaria et al., 2022, p. 91; Tiawati et al., 2022, p. 44). A well-qualified literary work, such as Sindhunata’s *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*, carries many life values, which sometimes have to be interpreted contextually. The contextual meaning will produce interpretations following the times (Gal, 1989, p. 19). So even though Sindhunata's work first appeared in the early 1990s, if you read it today, it still seems very relevant to life. This confirms that a good literary work develops pragmatic meanings of life, which seem like it will never rot with time.

V. CONCLUSION
In conclusion, it can be reaffirmed that the pragmatic stylistic analysis applied to Sindhunata’s *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* has produced findings in terms of types of metaphors and types of metaphorical pragmatic meanings. The findings of this study are summarized as follows: (1) anthropomorphic metaphors, (2) abstract metaphors, and (3) animal imagery metaphors. One type of metaphor was not found in this study: the synesthetic metaphor. Furthermore, in terms of the pragmatic meaning of metaphors, the following meanings can be identified through the collected data: (1) connotative meaning, (2) affective meaning, (3) reflective meaning, and (4) collocative meaning. However, the following three types are not found as per analysis: (1) conceptual meaning, (2) thematic meaning, and (3) social connotative meaning. This pragmatic stylistic study is still limited regarding metaphors and their types contained in emotive expressions. Other researchers can certainly take a different scope of study and are advised to use the same perspective, namely, pragmatic stylistics. That way, there will be more literary studies with an interdisciplinary perspective on literature and linguistics in the future. Understanding these meanings will thus be further expanded and not just confined to a purely literary perspective, as literature and language are like two-sided coins; one field cannot be separated from the other.

**REFERENCES**


They Support Indonesian Students in the International Reading Literacy Test? 


R. Kunjana Rahardi, a leading professor in the field of linguistics in Indonesia, has achieved a brilliant performance and made a valuable contribution to the development of linguistics, especially in the field of pragmatics. As an academic, R. Kunjana Rahardi is known for his contribution in developing our understanding of pragmatics, which is the study of the use of language in a social and functional context. His research is not only limited to the academic realm, but also has a positive impact on understanding the dynamics of language in everyday society. In addition to being a researcher, R. Kunjana Rahardi is also a dedicated educator. As a professor, he has guided and inspired many students to explore the complexity of linguistics, especially in the study of pragmatics. His dedication to teaching is not only reflected in the academic performance of students, but also in his contribution to developing the linguistic curriculum in Indonesia.

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Comparative Analysis of Ecological Discourse From the Perspective of Appraisal Theory: The Ponds and The Pond in Winter in Walden

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Abstract—This paper intends to use UAM Corpus Tool 6.2 corpus annotation software to conduct a comparative ecological discourse analysis of the selections of the ecological literary work Walden - The Ponds and The Pond in Winter from the perspective of the attitude system of appraisal theory, aiming to reveal Thoreau’s attitude towards ecological environment and to prove the practicality of appraisal theory in the ecological discourse analysis of the literary work, and at the same time, to broaden the research for the ecological discourse analysis. It was found that the number of appreciative resources in The Ponds (412) was much greater than the number of judgement (61) and affect (39) resources and that the number of positive eco-discourses (270) and neutral/ambiguous eco-discourses (179) was also much greater than the number of negative discourses (63). The number of appraisal resources (185) in The Pond in Winter is much larger than that of judgement resources (50) and emotion resources (35), and the number of positive ecological discourses (270) and neutral/ambiguous ecological discourses (179) is much larger than that of negative ecological discourses (63), and positive ecological discourse (172) is much larger than neutral/ambiguous ecological discourse (65) and negative discourse (33). This reflects Thoreau’s ecological orientation of loving nature, respecting nature, opposing excessive destruction of nature by human beings, and advocating calling on human beings to protect nature.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, attitude system, ecological discourse analysis, The Ponds, The Pond in Winter

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the contradiction between social development and the ecological environment has been continuously from the antagonism towards the goal of harmonious coexistence. Human environmental awareness has been gradually strengthened and ecological protection has become a global focus of attention. However, how to live in harmony with nature is still a major challenge facing us today, and we still need to make a lot of efforts to this end. Among the many works of ecological literature, Walden is undoubtedly an enduring and world-renowned classic. Although it has been 170 years since the book was first published, the ecological concepts and natural philosophies conveyed in this work provide us with a platform for in-depth reflection on the relationship between human beings and nature, and we can still get a lot of inspiration from it. In particular, the two pieces focusing on Walden - The Ponds and The Pond in Winter - are not only descriptions and praises of the ponds and other natural scenery, but also reflect Thoreau’s insights into the relationship between man and nature.

As a language function, “evaluation” plays an important role in social environment, text analysis, and cultural context, and we can analyze the emotions, attitudes, and values in the text through its three major subsystems, which plays a significant role in indicating the characters’ attitudes towards the environment and calling on people to protect the environment. Ecological discourse analysis, as an important means to study the relationship between human and nature through the use of the relationship between language and nature, is gradually receiving attention from the academic community. We should not only pay attention to the form and meaning of language, but also explore the values and ideologies reflected behind it. Appraisal theory, as an important branch and tool in the field of discourse analysis under systemic functional linguistics, provides us with new perspectives and methods for interpreting the ecological discourse in Walden. This paper analyzes the ecological discourse of this ecological literary work The Ponds and The Pond in Winter by applying the appraisal theory, aiming to gain a deeper understanding of the ecological concepts. The study seeks to investigate how Thoreau, in Walden, utilizes language to express his reverence for nature, concern for ecology, and contemplation of the human-nature relationship. Furthermore, it aims to offer insights into contemporary ecological issues and sustainable development, urging humanity to recognize its proper place in nature and evoke an awareness of protecting and harmonizing with nature.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW
A. Appraisal Theory

Appraisal theory was first seen in the book *Language, Context and Text: A Sociolinguistic Framework* by Han and Hassan (1985), who proposed that “appraisal” refers to the way of expressing emotions, attitudes, and values in language, as a linguistic function, which plays an important role in the social environment, text analysis, and cultural context. Appraisal is a way of expressing emotions, attitudes, and values in language as a linguistic function that plays an important role in social contexts, text analysis, and cultural contexts. In addition, they propose that language has conceptual, interpersonal, and discourse functions. Conceptual function refers to how speakers acquire information, perceive the external world, and make connections with it, which is mainly embodied in materiality, morphology, and formality. The materiality of conceptual function includes six processes: material process, relational process, verbal process, psychological process, existential process, and behavioral process. Interpersonal function, on the other hand, points to the achievement of social communication purposes through language interaction between people, which is reflected in tone, mood, and intonation; while discourse function involves the use of language in context to achieve contextual coherence, including the subject system, information structure, and articulation (Hu et al., 1989).

However, since Systemic Functional Linguistics does not have a complete theoretical system in terms of language users’ viewpoints and positional representations, it was Australian linguist James Martin and his collaborator David Rose, among others, who developed the appraisal theory. In the 1990s, they expanded the appraisal theory based on Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics and created the “Appraisal System” theoretical framework, which is divided into three categories: Attitude System (Affect, Judgement, and Appreciation), Engagement System (Monogloss and Heterogloss), and Graduation System (Force and Focus) (Martin & Rose, 2003), and further developed the interpersonal function research of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Yuan, 2010).

Based on Martin’s creation, many linguists have conducted their research to expand the theory of appraisal systems. Martin and Ross (2003) explored the construction of meaning beyond the clause level in discourse analysis; and in 2012, they combined appraisal theory and systemic functional linguistics to explore the relationship between style, knowledge, and pedagogy, providing a comprehensive theoretical framework for appraisal systems. Appraisal systems are widely used in a variety of fields such as comparative translation studies (Laviosa et al., 2017), political debate texts (Gu & Afzaal, 2023), and literary discourse analysis (Ghafar et al., 2022).

B. Ecological Discourse Analysis

With the development of Haugen’s model and Halliday’s model, discourse research on environmental issues has gradually become a core topic of eco-linguistics since the 1990s (Zhou, 2016). Ecological discourse analysis, as one of the main research methods in eco-linguistics, has also attracted widespread attention in the fields of environmental studies and social sciences.

At first, ecological discourse analysis was defined as the study of the topic of “ecological discourse”, and later developed into the ecological study of any discourse. This evolution signaled a shift in the term “ecology” from an object-specific perspective to an integrative one. The purpose of ecological discourse analysis is mainly to gain an in-depth understanding of how societies construct, transmit, and interpret language and symbols related to ecological issues, and how these discourses influence public perceptions and behaviors (Alexander & Stibbe, 2014). Abroad, linguists have mainly analyzed ecocritical discourse (Gach, 2016), positive ecological discourse analysis (Stibbe, 2017; Yang, 2023), and multimodal ecological discourse analysis (Qi & Hu, 2022; Nasir et al., 2022; Song & Perry, 2023), corpus-based ecological discourse analysis (Hameed et al., 2022; Yang & Wang, 2023), and systemic functional linguistics-based ecological discourse analysis (Han & Liu, 2019) to ecologically analyze a discourse or discourse.

Ecological discourse analysis can reveal three ecological orientations of discourses: beneficial discourses (sustainable development discourses that favor harmony between humans and nature), neutral discourses (discourses that are in a neutral attitude, located in the middle of beneficial and destructive), and destructive discourses (discourses that are not conducive to the sustainable development of humans and nature) (Stibbe, 2014, 2015). For linguists, it’s important to judge whether discourse is ecologically beneficial through eco-discourse analysis, to encourage support for ecological factors that are conducive to the harmonious development of man and nature, and to reveal and criticize unfavorable factors (Stibbe, 2015), so as to construct more discourse strategies that are beneficial to ecological harmony (Bartlett, 2018).

Ecological linguistic theories and ecological discourse analysis methods have now been applied in a variety of fields, including environmental news reporting, policy making, sustainable development communication, environmental education, and subject teaching. Zhu Wenjun became the first person to apply eco-linguistics in China in 1990 when he studied different ways of expressing linguistic phenomena in different environments. By using a variety of methods such as qualitative and quantitative analysis to analyze environmental texts, eco-linguistic researchers have studied how media coverage of environmental issues shapes public perceptions, how eco-discourse in government policy documents influences policy-making, and how environmental social movements use eco-discourse to disseminate information and garner support. It also reveals the discursive struggles and power relations between different interest groups through the analysis of the elements and characteristics of eco-discourse, further promoting public awareness and action on environmental issues.
The application of ecological discourse analysis abroad has reached a mature stage, with wide-ranging applications both within disciplines and across interdisciplinary fields. Conversely, in China, the development of ecological discourse analysis started relatively late. However, it’s currently experiencing rapid growth, particularly in research areas such as linguistics (endangered languages, ethnic languages, language crises, etc.), translation studies, discourse analysis in news, subject teaching, and so on. Nevertheless, there remains a dearth of research, especially in the domain of literary works, particularly ecological literature, and the comparative analysis thereof.

In light of this, this study aims to utilize the attitude system of appraisal theory to conduct a comparative analysis of ecological discourse in selected chapters of Thoreau’s book Walden, a classic masterpiece of eco-environmentalism, in order to explore Thoreau’s attitudes and consciousness toward the ecological environment and to derive insights for environmental protection.

### III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study refers to the framework of attitude systems in Martin’s (2000) and Wang’s (2001) introduction, while establishing a new framework based on the three ecological discourses mentioned above by Stibbe (2014, 2015), which are further categorized into positive, neutral/ambiguous and negative discourses. Among them, the attitude system, as the most important part of the appraisal system, can be divided into three major sub-systems - affect system, judgement system, and appreciation system - in which the affect system can be used to express the language user’s positive or negative affect response to the object through process clauses or positive or negative vocabulary, etc., and it can be further divided into the quality affect, process affect and commentary affect, in which process affect can be further divided into realistic/reactive and non-realistic/desire affect (Wang, 2001), while quality affect and commentary affect can be further divided into positive and negative forms of affect respectively. The judgement system consists of two parts: social esteem and social sanction, which can be further divided into positive, neutral, and negative according to whether the social behavior is appropriate and conforms to the norms of social behavior. The appreciation system is the differentiation of the aesthetics of a text, which can be further divided into three parts: reaction, composition, and value. The following is the specific theoretical framework of this study.

![Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of Attitudinal System in This Study](image-url)
IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

This paper analyzes the texts of *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter* by applying the attitude system in appraisal theory to answer the following two questions:

1. How are the attitude resources of *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter* distributed and what kind of characteristics do they present respectively?
2. What kind of Thoreau’s ecological orientation do the attitude resources in *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter* present respectively?

B. Research Materials

This study selects *Walden*, a classic work of ecological literature by American writer Henry David Thoreau, in whose writing, nature is not only a material existence but also a spiritual support and ideal pursuit. Through delicate descriptions, Thoreau demonstrates the beauty, power, and harmony in nature, and these features constitute attitude resources in appraisal theory. For example, his description of the ponds embodies this resource: the ponds are clear and transparent, reflecting the sky and the surrounding scenery, and this stillness and beauty make people feel the magic and magnificence of nature. This paper focuses on two of the essays about Thoreau’s description of *Walden* - the ninth essay *The Ponds* and the sixteenth essay *The Pond in Winter* - to analyze Thoreau and his ponds from the aspect of evaluative theoretical attitude perspectives, and the following are the specific vocabulary data for each of his texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The Ponds</td>
<td>9177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Pond in Winter</td>
<td>5215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Research Tool

In this study, a total of 14,392 words from the selections, *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter* in *Walden*, were used as the basis for identifying the evaluation resources, and the annotation framework was established and manually annotated with the help of the corpus annotation software UAM Corpus Tool (Version 6.2), a toolset for linguistic annotation of text and images invented by Professor Mick O. Donnell, which allows users to annotate and analyze textual data. The UAM Corpus Tool is a toolset for linguistic annotation of text and images invented by Professor Mick O. Donnell, allowing users to annotate and analyze textual data. The tool has a clean and user-friendly page, is easy to get started with, and aims to provide an easy-to-use interface and rich functionality for working with large amounts of textual information, as well as the ability to build your own frameworks for manual annotation.

![UAM Corpus Tool 6.2 Interface](image)

D. Research Process

In the in-depth study of the selections from *Walden, The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter*, the initial tasks involved text extraction and corpus construction. The author converted the selected English texts into txt. format and constructed two corpora, “The Ponds” and “The Pond in Winter”, to analyze the texts systematically and efficiently, which provided...
a solid foundation for examining the distribution of attitude resources in the subsequent study.

Secondly, the authors used the corpus tool UAM Tool 6.2 to import the txt. text from the two corpora into the corpus software, and built a layer according to the established theoretical framework of the attitude system, to ensure that the text could be annotated and analyzed under the unified framework, so as to produce more accurate and reliable results.

Subsequently, the text annotation was carried out. Based on the Attitude System Theory framework, the authors found the corresponding attitude resources in the two articles and carried out more specific and detailed annotations. This included identifying the words, phrases, and sentences in the texts that express the author’s feelings, positions, and evaluations, and classifying and labelling them.

Finally, data analysis was carried out. The authors conducted an in-depth study of the distribution of attitude resources in two selected texts, *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter*, and explored their embodied characteristics and ecological orientations to further reveal the authors’ affect attitudes and values in describing different seasons of Walden.

To ensure the accuracy and reliability of the manual annotation, the authors carried out a second annotation two months after the initial completion of the annotation task, and the results of the two annotations were thoroughly compared and analyzed. In response to some inconsistencies in the annotation results, the authors conducted in-depth reflection and careful consideration and finally chose a more appropriate type of annotation after repeated refinements and comparisons.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Distribution of Attitude Resources in The Ponds and The Pond in Winter

This section will be devoted to the discussion of the distribution of attitude resources and their characteristics in *The Ponds* and *The Pond in Winter* and will analyze in depth the subtleties of emotional expression in these two pieces of prose. At the same time, this section will also compare the similarities and differences in the distribution of attitude resources between the two essays, to be able to understand more comprehensively their commonalities and differences in emotional expression, and thus gain a deeper understanding of the literary value of the two essays.

(a). Distribution of Attitude Resources in The Ponds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTITUDE-TYPE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFFECT</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUDGEMENT</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPRECIATION</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Through the careful analysis of the text, it can be found that in the ninth essay of *Walden - The Ponds*, the distribution of attitude resources presents the following characteristics:

As shown in Table 2, among a total of 512 attitude resources, appreciation resources take a dominant position, with a proportion as high as 80.3%. This fully indicates that in *The Ponds*, the author has made great use of appreciative descriptions and modifications to show the natural beauty of the ponds, the environmental atmosphere, and the vivid forms of the animals living there, so that readers can feel the uniqueness of different ponds in an immersive way. The resources of Judgement and Affect, on the other hand, are relatively small, accounting for only one-fifth of the total attitude resources (of which judgement resources account for 11.9%, while the proportion of affect resources is the least, accounting for only 7.6%). This distribution highlights Thoreau’s prudent attitude in emotional expression and valuable judgement, and his portrayal of nature is more based on objective perception and appreciation rather than excessive subjective judgement or emotional rendering, which more accurately conveys the natural beauty and harmony of the ponds, and embodies the author’s respect and reverence for the natural environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AFFECT-TYPE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QUALITY</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROCESS</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMENT</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3, among the emotional resources, the distribution of the Quality, Process, and Comment categories is relatively balanced, occupying 2.3%, 2.9%, and 2.3% respectively, reflecting that Thoreau will appropriately describe the pleasure, tranquility, and other emotional states and feelings he experiences when he faces the surrounding environment of the ponds, to deepen Thoreau’s appreciation and praise for the ponds.
As shown in Table 4, among the Judgement resources, Normality, Propriety, and Tenacity are more prominent, occupying 3.7%, 2.7%, and 2.5% respectively. This section is mostly related to human behavior, which shows that Thoreau is more concerned about whether human behavior or phenomena are in line with social norms, social legitimacy, and mental integrity. This phenomenon is analyzed and judged to show whether or not it has an impact on nature or what kind of impact it has.

As shown in Table 5, the Reaction category is the richest of the appreciation resources, accounting for 66.7% of the whole attitude resources; in particular, the Quality resource accounts for 64.7% of the appreciation resources. This is followed by Composition at 9.2% and Valuation at 4.5%. This reflects that when Thoreau describes the ponds, he uses meticulous and sufficient descriptions to present the characteristics and charms of the ponds vividly in front of the readers, so that the readers can deeply appreciate his sincerity and love for nature, and at the same time the structure of the article is handled properly, presenting the harmony and balance of nature, showing Thoreau’s deep feeling and appreciation of natural beauty.

(b). Distribution of Attitude Resources in The Pond in Winter

The distribution of attitude resources in Walden’s sixteenth text -The Pond in Winter- also shows its particular characteristics:

Overall, Appreciation resources also dominate, occupying 68.3%, followed by Judgement resources, accounting for 18.5%, while Affect resources account for 12.9%. This distribution characteristic and its reasons are somewhat similar to that of The Ponds, but the proportion of Affect and Judgement resources in The Pond in Winter is relatively higher, accounting for one-third of the total Attitude resources in the whole text.

As shown in Table 7, among the affect resources, the Quality, Process, and Comment categories are relatively balanced, occupying 3.3%, 4.1%, and 5.5% respectively. This reflects that the author exquisitely describes Walden in winter through different dimensions of emotional resources to build up his unique insight and profound experience of the natural environment. For example, Thoreau praises the mystery of the lake by describing the unknown fish and highlights the unfathomable admiration of Walden Lake by contrasting its surface with its depth, showing his meticulous portrayal and profound thinking about Walden Lake in winter.
As shown in Table 8, among the judgement resources, Normality, Capacity, and Tenacity are more prominent, occupying 6.3%, 5.2%, and 4.4% respectively. This reflects that when Thoreau depicts Walden in winter, he uses appropriate judgement resources to make judgement on whether human social behaviors and natural phenomena are normality, capacity, and tenacity, and whether they are in line with the laws of nature and ecological laws, which shows Thoreau’s concern about Walden, thus side by side demonstrating his expectation for the harmonious coexistence between human beings and nature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JUDGEMENT-TYPE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NORMALITY</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAPACITY</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TENACITY</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VERACITY</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROPRIETY</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the appreciative resources, the Reaction category remains the most abundant, occupying 54.6%, with Quality accounting for 51.7%; followed by Composition at 9.6%; and Valuation at 4.1%. This reflects the fact that the author uses a large number of appreciative resources to describe the Walden in winter, which also produces a deep feeling and appreciation.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APPRECIATION-TYPE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>REACTION</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPOSITION</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUATION</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c). Comparative Analysis of Distribution of Attitude Resources in The Ponds and The Pond in Winter

The two essays The Ponds and The Pond in Winter are both selections of Walden, showing certain similarities in the overall trend, but certain significant differences can be found in the details through comparative analysis.

In the overall distribution of attitude resources, The Ponds and The Pond in Winter are both dominated by Appreciation resources, occupying the vast majority of the proportion, which is very suitable for the nature of the two essays, writing landscape prose, to carefully and vividly portray the changes in the scenery of the ponds, bringing a profound aesthetic experience to the author and the reader. And in which appropriate use of certain Judgement and Affect resources, in the objective description of the natural scenery at the same time to further enrich the author’s emotional expression of Walden and other ponds and their surroundings. However, in terms of the specific ratio, Appreciation resources (the description of the ponds’ scenery) in The Ponds are more than that in The Pond in Winter, and on the contrary, Affect resources and Judgement resources in The Pond in Winter are more than that in The Ponds.

Specifically, in terms of Affect resources, both texts utilize some degree of Quality, Process, and Comment resources, but The Pond in Winter has a slightly higher proportion than The Ponds about total resources. Particularly in terms of Comment resources, there is a significant difference between the two essays, with The Pond in Winter employing more commented emotion, for example, It is surprising that they are caught here, -that in this deep and capacious spring, far beneath the rattling teams and chaises and tinkling sleighs that travel the Walden road, this great gold and emerald fish swims, which reflects Thoreau’s utter amazement at the discovery of such beautiful fish in Walden and the naturalness and biodiversity of Walden.

In terms of Judgement resources, both essays also use certain resources of Social Esteem and Social Sanction. However, in The Ponds, which focuses more on the natural state and ecological value of Walden, the resources of Propriety are more prominent. In contrast, The Pond in Winter focuses more on the resilience and authenticity of Walden and related human behaviors in winter, and the Capacity and Veracity resources are significantly different from The Ponds and more prominent. This difference reflects Thoreau’s attention and judgement on the different seasonal characteristics of Walden.

In terms of Appreciation resources, Reaction, Composition, and Valuation resources are similarly used in both, and the Quality subcategory of Reaction resources is the most abundant, reflecting Thoreau’s rich and detailed depiction of the ponds’ scenery. However, compared with The Ponds, in The Pond in Winter, although appreciation resources still dominate, the relative proportion has decreased, while the proportion of affect and judgement resources has increased, which suggests that Thoreau gives more modifications with emotional colors when describing Walden pond in winter, and after the following data can be seen that most of them are positive discourses, which therefore shows his love for the scenery of Walden in winter.

To sum up, there are both similarities and significant differences in the distribution of attitude resources between The Ponds and The Pond in Winter. This difference reflects Thoreau’s unique feelings towards the different seasonal scenery and local human activities of Walden, as well as the changes in his ecological orientation and aesthetic concepts.
B. Comparative Analysis of Ecological Orientation between The Ponds and The Pond in Winter

Thoreau’s Walden not only depicts his attitude towards the appreciation of natural scenery but also contains a profound ecological orientation. Through the ecological discourse analysis of the two chapters of Thoreau’s Walden, The Ponds and The Pond in Winter, the author shows that Thoreau’s unique insights into the relationship between man and nature are reflected through the depiction of the lake scenes in different seasons.

(a). Ecological Orientation of Attitude Resources in The Ponds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 10</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION OF ECOLOGICAL DISCOURSE IN THE PONDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of Ecological Discourse</td>
<td>Attitude-Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent Discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, 512 attitude resources in The Ponds were also screened for ecological orientation, and the results are shown in Table 11. It was found that these attitude resources showed distinctive features in terms of ecological orientation.

Among them, the ecologically positive discourse resources occupy a prominent position, with a total of 270, which fully reflects Thoreau’s positive attitude towards the beauty and harmony of the natural ecology, his deep love and appreciation, and his high recognition of its ecological value. There are 179 ecological ambiguity discourse resources, which reflect that Thoreau’s description of nature is very cautious and objective, using a lot of space to faithfully describe the size, depth, and color of the ponds, which shows his respect for the natural ecology and will not intervene too much, and he goes along with the relationship between human beings and nature. However, there are still 63 ecologically destructive discourse resources in it. Although the number is relatively small, it reveals that human beings still have some destructive activities for nature, reflecting his concern and worry about nature. Specific examples are analyzed below:

1. Eco-Positive Discourse Resources

Example 1: It is a vitreous greenish blue, as I remember it, like those patches of the winter sky seen through cloud vistas in the west before sundown.

This sentence analogizes the greenish blue of the glass with the patches of the winter sky seen through cloud vistas in the west before sundown, suggesting the harmonious coexistence between the color of the glass and the natural environment, and embodying Thoreau’s praise, yearning, and respect for the beauty of nature. Thoreau’s eco-positive discourse through delicate depictions and romantic imagery also reflects his positive emotional attitude towards the ecological environment and his closeness to nature.

Example 2: In warm evenings I frequently sat in the boat playing the flute, and saw the perch, which I seemed to have charmed, hovering around me, and the moon travelling over the ribbed bottom, which was strewn with the wrecks of the forest.

This sentence describes Thoreau sitting in his boat on a warm night playing the flute, attracting bass to hover around him, while the moonlight poured over the bottom of the ponds, which was covered with the wrecks of the forest. It shows Thoreau’s respect and appreciation for the natural environment, and the beauty and balance of the ecosystem through his interaction with nature. The word “charmed” plays an important role in the text in appreciating the attitude, expressing the fascination and closeness of the bass to the sound of its flute, emphasizing the friendly interaction and connection between man and nature, and also showing the recognition and appreciation of the harmonious coexistence of nature.

2. Ecological Ambiguity Discourse Resources

Example 3: In clear weather, in summer, they appear blue at a little distance, especially if agitated, and at a great distance all appear alike. weather they are sometimes of a dark slate color. The sea, however, is said to be blue one day and green another without any perceptible change in the atmosphere. In stormy weather they are sometimes of a dark slate color.

This sentence describes in plain language the effect of different weather changes on the color of Concord’s waters compared to the color of the sea. The contrast between “clear” and “stormy” shows the different colors of Concord’s waters when the weather is clear and cloudy, blue when it is clear, and dark slate when there is a storm; the contrast between “little” and “green one day and green another without any perceptible change in the atmosphere”; “little” and
“great” to echo the above “All our Concord waters have two colors at least, one when viewed at a distance, and another, more proper, to be seen at a distance. All our Concord waters have two colors at least, one when viewed at a distance, and another, more proper, close at hand”, thus indicating the change of color at a distance. The words “blue” and “green” are true to the colors of the waters and the sea, and are not mixed with personal feelings.

3. Ecologically Destructive Discourse Resources

Example 4: ...indicative of some life prowling about its extremity, of dull uncertain blundering purpose there, and slow to make up its mind.

This sentence describes the reaction of the fish to the fishing line while Thoreau was fishing, using the words “dull”, “uncertain” and “blundering” together with the word “slow”. The use of the words “dull”, “uncertain” and “blundering” in this sentence and the use of the word “slow” indicate its caution when biting the hook, although the fish has been anthropomorphized to increase the vividness and interest of the article, these negative words will easily make the reader neglect the fish’s wisdom of survival and its passivity in the face of human activities, and intensify the antagonistic relationship between human beings and nature.

In conclusion, the attitude resources in The Ponds contain a rich ecological orientation, and the resources of ecologically positive and ecologically ambiguous discourses are much larger than ecologically destructive discourses, at the same time, they both show the positive praise and ecological value of the ponds’ scenery and include the criticism of human destructive activities, which reflects Thoreau’s protection and appeal to the harmonious ecological environment of the ponds.

(b). Ecological Orientation of Attitude Resources in The Pond in Winter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Ecological Discourse</th>
<th>Attitude-type</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Total N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent Discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation (Quality)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative discourse</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgement</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, 270 attitude resources in The Pond in Winter were screened for ecological orientation, and the results are shown in Table 12. It is found that the number of attitude resources of ecologically positive discourse (172) is much larger than the resources of ecological ambiguity (65) and ecological destructiveness (33), presenting Thoreau’s positive ecological philosophical orientation. Specific examples are analyzed below:

1. Discourse Resources of Ecological Positivity

Example 5: The regularity of the bottom and its conformity to the shores and the range of the neighboring hills were so perfect that a distinct promontory betrayed itself in the soundings quite across the pond.

The sentence describes the regularity of the topography of the pond’s bottom through “regularity”, and the harmony of Walden with its shores and the surrounding hills through “conformity”, and the words “so perfect” are used to evaluate these phenomena, thus demonstrating the ecological beauty of harmony and balance in nature. This description treats nature as an independent and valuable existence, which not only makes us feel the order and law of natural ecology but also makes us feel awe and appreciation for nature.

2. Ecological Ambiguity Discourse Resources

Example 6: After a cold and snowy night it needed a divining rod to find it.

This sentence describes the natural environment and climate of Walden in winter through the words “cold” and “snowy” objectively and realistically. At the same time, the mysterious word “divining rod” is used to reflect that it is very difficult to find water on a cold and snowy night, which not only increases the mystery of the sentence but also reflects the author’s reverence and respect for natural phenomena. This use of ecological ambiguity discourse resources not only preserves the original appearance of natural phenomena but also makes readers feel Thoreau’s awe and humility towards nature.

3. Ecological Destructive Discourse Resources
Example 7: So much for the increased horrors of the chasm of Loch Fyne when emptied. No doubt many a smiling valley with its stretching cornfields occupies No doubt many a smiling valley with its stretching cornfields occupies exactly such a “horrid chasm,” from which the waters have receded, though it requires the insight and the far sight of the geologist to convince the unsuspecting inhabitants of this fact.

This sentence describes the horrors of the flooding of Walden by comparing it to the description of the flooding of Loch Fyne, which is four times shallower than Walden, thus side-stepping the horrors of the flooding of Walden. Negative words such as “increased horrors of the chasm” and “horrid chasm” emphasize the horror and devastation of the flooding. The contrast between “smiling valley with its stretching cornfields” and “horrid chasm” also hints at the potential threats to the natural environment caused by human activities. The contrast between “smiling valley with its stretching cornfields” and “horrid chasm” also hints at the potential threat that human activities may pose to the natural environment, prompting readers to think deeply about environmental protection and the impact of human activities on the environment.

In conclusion, the attitude resources in The Pond in Winter also contain rich ecological orientation, and the resources of ecological positive and ecological ambiguous discourses are much larger than those of ecological negative discourses, which vividly show the different faces and ecological values of the Walden in winter with plain and objective language, and show Thoreau’s reverence and respect for the Walden.

(c). Comparative Analysis of Ecological Orientation in The Ponds and The Pond in Winter

The two essays The Ponds and The Pond in Winter respectively depict different scenes of Walden and its surrounding ponds in different seasons. By comparing and analyzing the resources of positive attitudes, neutral/ambiguous attitudes, and negative attitudes, it can be found that there is consistency as well as subtle differences in the ecological philosophical concepts held by Thoreau when describing the ponds in different seasons in the two essays.

Firstly, in terms of similarities, both pieces demonstrate Thoreau’s positive attitude towards the pond and its surrounding ecology. In The Ponds, he expresses his praise and appreciation of natural beauty through his delicate depiction of the pond’s scenery; while in The Pond in Winter, he embodies his respect and reverence for the laws of nature through his depiction of the quietness and solemnity of the pond in winter. This positive attitude resource dominates in both works, reflecting Thoreau’s love and concern for ecology. In addition, the two works have some similarities in the use of ecological ambiguity discourse resources. In describing the pond, Thoreau mainly adopts objective and plain language to avoid over-emotionalization, to be able to preserve the original appearance of natural phenomena. This reflects Thoreau’s respect for nature and also triggers readers’ in-depth thinking and exploration of natural phenomena.

However, although the two works are largely consistent in their ecological orientation, they present different emphases in their descriptions of ecological destruction. In The Ponds, Thoreau expresses his concern for environmental protection by criticizing human destructive activities; while in The Pond in Winter, he expresses his reverence for nature more through the different changes of Walden in winter and through positive and negative comparisons, and implies that nature can be analogous to the human mind and that human activities may pose a potential threat to the environment, and therefore the resources of ecological negativity discourse are to be more prominent than in the text The Ponds. This difference may stem from the different ecological characteristics of ponds in different seasons and the degree of impact of human activities.

Taken together, The Ponds and The Pond in Winter have both similarities and significant differences in their ecological orientations. Both reflect Thoreau’s love and appreciation for the natural beauty of Walden, show a positive attitude and reverence for the natural ecological environment, and at the same time express concern and worry about ecological problems, triggering readers to think deeply about ecological environmental protection and the impact of human activities on the environment.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has analyzed the ecological discourse of the selections The Ponds and The Pond in Winter from the ecological literary work Walden through the framework of attitude systems in the evaluative theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics. The study used UAM Corpus Tool 6.2, a corpus annotation software, to meticulously annotate and interpret the emotions, attitudes, and values in the text through a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The results of the analysis show that Thoreau expresses a positive ecological philosophical view in The Ponds and The Pond in Winter, with the greatest use of appreciative quality adjectives and more ecologically positive discourse, and the overall appreciative resources are much greater than the affect and judgement resources, and objectively and realistically depicts the changes of the landscape and its surroundings in different seasons of Walden, and so on. This study not only verifies the applicability of appraisal theory in the analysis of ecological discourse but also provides a new research path for the study of ecological literature.

Although this study has made some progress in exploring the ecological discourse in Thoreau’s Walden, there are still some limitations. First of all, this study only focuses on two essays in Walden - The Ponds and The Pond in Winter, which is a relatively narrow scope of corpus, and it is difficult to comprehensively reflect the ecological concepts of
Thoreau’s works as a whole. Thoreau’s works are huge and profound, and his ecological ideas are found in many works, so it is difficult to comprehensively reveal the rich connotations of his ecological discourse based on the analysis of the limited corpus only. Secondly, this study mainly focuses on the analysis of the attitude system and has not yet explored the engagement system and graduation system of appraisal theory in depth. As a complete theoretical framework, appraisal theory includes several interrelated subsystems, each of which plays an important role in the construction of textual meaning. In addition, this study will inevitably be affected by subjective factors in the process of corpus annotation. Although the authors try their best to maintain an objective and impartial attitude, differences in personal understanding and judgement may still lead to some bias in the annotation results.

In the future, this study will be committed to expanding the scope of the corpus and conducting ecological discourse analyses on more of Thoreau’s works, and at the same time, it will make comprehensive use of various subsystems of appraisal theory to conduct more in-depth and comprehensive analyzes, so as to comprehensively reveal the complexity and diversity of the ecological discourse in Thoreau’s works and better understand his ecological thoughts. In addition, the study will further improve the annotation specifications and adopt more scientific and objective methods for corpus processing and analysis, so as to improve the accuracy and reliability of the study. Future research will be committed to overcoming the existing limitations, exploring the ecological discourse in Thoreau’s works from a more professional and in-depth perspective, and making greater contributions to the study of ecological discourse.

REFERENCES


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Post-Katrina African American Coming-of-Age Novels: A Study of Two Selected Novels

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Abstract—This paper focuses on the impact of Hurricane Katrina—which hit parts of the U.S. South, especially New Orleans, in 2005—on African American coming-of-age novels. In particular, we argue that Hurricane Katrina constitutes a watershed moment in African American coming-of-age narratives, bringing about changes in identity formation and self-realization concerns that are typically associated with pre-Katrina African American coming-of-age novels. To develop our argument, we study two post-Katrina African American coming-of-age narratives: Ninth Ward (2010) by Jewell Parker Rhodes and Salvage the Bones (2011) by Jesmyn Ward. We suggest that these two narratives exemplify those changes through conforming to the Black Radical Tradition, as theorized by Cedric Robinson. The two novels, we show, not only lay bare the systemic racism that came to the fore in the aftermath of the hurricane but also highlight African Americans’ resistance strategies in the face of such racism.

Index Terms—African American coming-of-age novels, Black Radical Tradition, Hurricane Katrina, identity formation, resistance spirit

I. INTRODUCTION

Hurricane Katrina 2005 has had a huge impact on U.S. society, especially because it strongly exposed problems that have to do with infrastructure (such as the levees and lack of preparations for the storm), the governmental response (especially evacuation and transportation-related issues), reconstruction after the storm, and its psychological effect on children. Although all the people in the region hit by the hurricane were affected, some were affected more than others due to varied factors.

African Americans who already live in low economic and social conditions have lost more than others. Lee et al. write that “[L]ow-income African Americans…disproportionately experienced the greatest suffering” compared to all other citizens (2008, p. 5). Many African Americans inhabited the South, as they mostly work in the tourism industry (Johnson, 2011, p. xxvii). The centralization of the African American population in the South “made it impossible to ignore the racial disparities still prevalent in the United States” (Lee et al., 2008, p. 6). Further, O’Neil in “Broken Levees, Broken Lives, and a Broken Nation after Hurricane Katrina” explains that there have always been “policies that produce … vulnerability to floods,” which “led to the concentration of poor African Americans in locations at risk of flooding” (2008, p. 92). Sharpe (2016), too, focuses on the enormous damage which African Americans go through during natural disasters due to “dysgraphic positioning of Black people via abjection everywhere” (p. 33). Being the most vulnerable in the face of the Katrina disaster brings to the surface the causes of such vulnerability: systemic racism, negligence of the South, and neoliberal policies.

In this context, children are the most vulnerable. Connolly (2012) states that accounts delivered by children indicate “a collectively shared experience of disaster” and “a record of the psychological and physical stresses of natural catastrophes on children” (p. 3). To help children overcome their fears, Smyth and Housen (2016) stress the importance of teaching novels about a historic event like Katrina to young children “because they offer a gripping view of what it means to live in a predominantly Black neighborhood affected by crime, drugs, and gangs” (p. 343). It is thus unlikely to separate what happened because of Hurricane Katrina from social/environmental injustice. In fact, disastrous events like Hurricane Katrina pinpoint questions of justice, equality, and humanity; reflecting on those questions often contributes to forming a collective consciousness that tends to be revolutionary and radical. Such a consciousness embodies stories of survival and resistance to unbearable conditions and carries the spirit of resistance that Robinson discusses in his book Black Marxism: The Black Radical Tradition (1983).

In it, Robinson argues against the sufficiency of Eurocentric Marxist theories of social change, as such theories lay claim to universality but exclude people of color at the same time. When he analyses the works of some radical thinkers like W. E. B. Du Bois, C. R. I. James, and Richard Wright, he states that those thinkers express “[a] Black radical tradition … in opposition to that civilization [European civilization] and conscious of itself” and highlight “the
privations of racial capitalism” (1983, pp. 317-318). Their legacy emphasizes the fact that African Americans’ struggles for freedom and justice are ongoing, but for them to become more effective they have to be based on “an ideology of liberation” (p. 317). As such, resistance can turn into a legacy of survival and a strong urge to own one’s destiny and destination. It is with this spirit of resistance and liberation that we associate post-Katrina literary works.

Those literary works, particularly African American coming-of-age novels, addressed the hurricane and its aftermath. Several scholars studied those works from different perspectives. In Ten Years after Katrina: Critical Perspectives of the Storm’s Effect on American Culture and Identity (2015), Marotte and Jellencik argue that what they call “Katrina narratives” help readers reflect on and critique “the ways that specific narrative structures inform our understanding and develop our [U.S.] cultural identity” (pp. ix). On the other hand, Lloyd’s article “Creatively, Throwaway Life after Katrina: Salvage the Bones and Beasts of Southern Wild” (2016) suggests that post-Katrina narratives bring into focus the intensification of the disposability of African American bodies in the aftermath of the hurricane under an ongoing racial order in the South.

While this paper benefits from these scholars’ perspectives, it has a more specific focus. It explores the way African American writers portray the impact of Hurricane Katrina on African American characters’ coming of age. We argue that Hurricane Katrina forms a turning point in African American narratives that is best represented and traced in coming-of-age narratives. In Rhodes’s Ninth Ward (2010) and Ward’s Salvage the Bones (2011), children struggle to understand themselves and the world around them amid a threatening hurricane while dealing with issues like self-image, poverty, poor parenting, educational aspirations, and the consequences of systemic racism. As a result, we suggest that the two novels are not only testimonials to the hurricane but also critical of systemic racism in the U.S. By engaging the effect of the disaster on the young characters’ lives, the two novelists highlight the spirit of resistance which African Americans employed to survive both natural and human-caused disasters throughout history. We thus argue that—unlike pre-Katrina narratives—these novels adhere to the principles and spirit of the Black Radical Tradition (BRT), as delineated by Robinson. Indeed, the two novels exemplify Robinson’s insights. For instance, they both focus on the impact of racial capitalism in the aftermath of a disaster. Robinson laments the fact that “the appearance of literally millions of Black refugees, drifting helplessly beyond the threshold of human sensibility, their emaciated bodies feeding on their own tissues, [has] become commonplace” (p. 318). The novels, likewise, bring into consciousness the naturalization of the dire conditions under which African Americans still live.

Our claim is that resisting that naturalization process can best be enacted in the coming-of-age novel. Unlike the bildungsroman which is a Eurocentric genre that is predicated on nationalism (see Jeffers, 2005; LeSeur, 1995), African Americans, we suggest, turn to coming-of-age narratives that primarily shed light on the conditions of African Americans without offering naïve hope and think of the coming-of-age process as a non-conclusive one. Dawson’s recent study on an African American coming-of-age novel labels it a step-by-step process (2020), which recalls Hall’s (1999) process “of becoming” in the context of identity formation (p. 222). This process manifests itself in such novels, as African American characters often do not experience definitively happy resolutions but continue to lead complicated lives due to the intersection of race, class, and gender. It is also a process that those characters do not go through on their own but as part of a collective. For that reason, African American coming-of-age narratives grant more room for the representation of sometimes unsolvable problems which exceeds the personal capacities of its characters, a lesson that the BRT effectively teaches. In the next two sections, we show how Ninth Ward and Salvage the Bones attest to the conscious ongoing process of African American identity formation that consistently responds to the demands of BRT, especially in times of crisis.

II. “IF I BUILT A BEAUTIFUL BRIDGE”: BUILDING BRIDGES AS A RESISTANCE STRATEGY IN RHODES’S NINTH WARD

Rhodes’s Ninth Ward (2010) is a story about twelve-year-old Lanesha, who is looked after by Mama Ya-Ya in Ninth Ward, New Orleans after her mother dies. Motherless, fatherless, and abandoned by her family alone can lead to the collapse of young Lanesha. The support that Mama Ya-Ya provides, however, helps her endure in the face of poverty and many other problems. As Hurricane Katrina approaches, Lanesha must face it alone with her friend TaShon and his dog Spot, as Mama Ya-Ya is extremely ill. Against the odds, Lanesha comes of age, but that process does not guarantee a safe future.

Ninth Ward is often mentioned in the context of teaching literature about strong African American girls. Schmidt et al. (2013) discuss Lanesha’s strength and responsibility in the face of Hurricane Katrina (p. 16). Other studies like Toliver’s (2018) endorse Rhodes’s Ninth Ward for the promotion of hope that young African Americans need as they grow up. Toliver also asserts the scarcity of narratives on African American girls growing up and accordingly focuses on such works. She uses Hamilton’s term “hopescape” to refer to “a space for authors to portray the community, culture, history, and tradition of African Americans as parallel, rather than beneath the larger American culture” (qtd. in Toliver, p. 15). A hopescape constitutes an integral part of the BRT, in which African American culture is prominent and celebrated. Following the BRT, we argue that the characters who witness Katrina are more likely to develop a revolutionary consciousness that resists the naturalization of African American subjugation.

The novel details Lanesha’s growing consciousness and self-realization. She realizes that she is from a different class than her “Uptown” family because she lives in “Ninth Ward” (pp. 1-2). She knows her own poor “place” and is aware of her social status in comparison with the rich side of the town. By positioning the “Uptown” against “the Ninth Ward,
New Orleans,” Lanesha prepares the reader for an ongoing comparison between the two places throughout the novel, triggering questions of equality, social justice, the racial state, and the post-racial claim before, during, and after the hurricane. The novel suggests that Lanesha is like New Orleans, poor and abandoned during the hardest times. Lanesha’s journey of becoming a more radical and revolutionary person begins when she realizes the confining borderlines of her race and class.

Lanesha embarks on this journey with nothing but her gifts and an atypical family structure. With no answers about her father’s identity, Lanesha expects that her father is poor and darker than her mother because her mother is “fine brown”—whose family brags about “their French Heritage” (p. 5). They thus feel “superior” and abandon Lanesha. Abandonment turns Lanesha into a strong independent person who knows how to live by her own standards without considering racial difficulties (p. 18). Lanesha and Mama Ya-Ya may look like a weak family structure. However, Rhodes uses their talents to make them appear stronger than other neighbors because they cling to their traditions and spirituality. This rings a bell for Spillers’s (1987) critique of labelling African American families as pathological ones. Mama Ya-Ya tells Lanesha, “You’ve got the sight. It’s grace to see both worlds” (Rhodes, 2010, p. 2). Since their religion is a mixture of “Catholic saints and voodoo gods” (p. 12), Mama Ya-Ya’s gift is to see dreams and to interpret signs of numbers and objects around her. Lanesha can see the ghosts of the dead. She is also adept at Math and words (p. 15). These special powers enable her to survive and be resilient before, during, and after turbulent times.

Such powers enable her to predict unpleasant events before they occur. Mama Ya-Ya sees a bad dream whose interpretation she does not know, but she expects something bad to happen to them (p. 50). She tells Lanesha that she knows of the hurricane before the news media announced its arrival because she “saw the birds leaving their trees. Saw the water was slow to boil” (p. 49). Furthermore, Lanesha starts seeing more ghosts (pp. 74-75), which can be thought of as a warning sign that many deaths are to occur soon. Resorting to the BRT and African American beliefs helps Lanesha and Mama Ya-Ya deal with the severity of the storm more than relying on the government. Rhodes’s Ninth Ward thus depicts African American spirituality that “is rooted in African traditions and is a part of their life and who they are” (Taylor-Antal & Rhodes, 2011, p. 160). According to the BRT, resorting to traditional thoughts and beliefs is one way to survive white supremacy and assert the self. Robinson (1983) views the values and traditions of African American people that they insert in their daily lives as tools of resistance to inconvenient situations that are mostly caused by racial capitalism (p. 309). African American spirituality and familial love strengthen Lanesha to stand against the disparities of the hurricane, and that makes her a model for young African Americans. In an interview with Taylor-Antal (2011), Rhodes states that she “was especially worried about the children, and [she] knew [she] wants to find a way to honor what they had been through” when the hurricane hit (p. 160). In other words, the novel prepares African American children for a more conscious engagement with their lives under a brutal racial order without accepting the naturalization of that order.

Such naturalization appears in the pre-storm-conditions of living in New Orleans that include poverty, governmental negligence, and the lack of effective education in the city. These situations should not be surprising, as Robinson mentions that the conditions in “the metropolis” continue to get worse for African Americans under capitalism and its manifestations, including health conditions, housing, and employment (1983, p. 318). Lanesha tells us how Mama Ya-Ya has been collecting money to buy her an encyclopedia for years because she receives no governmental support for taking care of Lanesha (Rhodes, 2010, p. 66). She does not apply for official adoption because she fears they will take Lanesha away (p. 85). Likewise, poverty strikes TaShon’s family (Lanesha’s friend), both of whose parents work but cannot afford to feed a pet (p. 39). Moreover, schools’ conditions reflect governmental negligence of New Orleans. Lanesha states that their “school is old and crumbling, but it always feels brand-new ‘cause the blackboard changes” and the “school yard is nothing but concrete with an old handball wall and fading basketball lines” (p. 29). With its poor facilities, the school is now under the threat of a destructive hurricane.

Governmental negligence manifested itself as well in the unpreparedness for the storm, especially when the government offers no transportation to evacuate people like Mama Ya-Ya and Lanesha. Mama Ya-Ya gets angry because nobody provides them with buses or cars: “[h]ow can it be mandatory if I don’t have a way to go? ...If only we had a car. If I had some more money” (p. 90). They do not go to the Superdome, where Lanesha’s friends TaShon and Ginia go according to government’s recommendations, because it is not safe (p. 95). Later, water floods the Superdome. Other signs of governmental unpreparedness for the storm include neglecting building the levees and the poor infrastructure of the city. So, Lanesha comes to the point where she understands that poor people are left alone to face the storm. Unfortunately, the Black body is humiliated and left alone to face its destiny and hardships with no governmental support, a fact that African Americans have had to deal with since the times of slavery (Robinson, 1983, p. 318).

But that state does not prevent Lanesha from learning and living up to the spirit of the BRT. Robinson encourages African Americans to build on their intellectual project (p. 5). In Rhodes’s novel, Lanesha gets her education in two ways: traditional learning in the house through different methods such as storytelling and her school education (2010). She learns from Mama Ya-Ya about signs, dreams, ghosts, and common sense. She says that “[s]he need[s] everything Mama Ya-Ya teaches[her]. And...everything that school teaches [her], too” (p. 31).

Even though Lanesha is a smart student, her caretaker Mama Ya-Ya warns her about not working hard at school. In a racial society, African American students need to work harder to achieve their educational goals. Mama Ya-Ya tells
Lanesha, “You have to set your mind to learning, Lanesha. Each and every day” (p. 32). Rhodes highlights the significance of having African American teachers who encourage students to be better and to have a future vision of their own. For instance, Miss Johnson supports Lanesha and inspires her to become an engineer because of her talent for drawing bridges. Miss Johnson has a future vision for Lanesha and for New Orleans. She helps Lanesha imagine that she can become an engineer and build things like “bridges.” Miss Johnson’s words arm Lanesha with a dream to which she clings during the hurricane by drawing bridges to both calm herself and promise herself of a better future (pp. 14-15). Recognizing the value of bridges for her community and human beings at large, Lanesha says, “It’d be useful with patterns, shapes that did something—helped people and cars cross the street, over water” (p. 35). Miss Johnson, then, acts as a bridge and a connection between Lanesha and her future aspirations as well as between Lanesha and her community. Lanesha also needs a metaphorical bridge to remove the class gap between her and her family. In the twenty-first-century racial state, African Americans need a bridge between themselves and the society in which they live. They require a bridge of compassion, cooperation, respect, and social justice which would take African Americans to the other side safely. Imbibing this vision would enable Lanesha to contribute to rebuilding the city after the massive destruction of bridges and levees (already crumbling before the hurricane) after the hurricane.

Just before the hurricane, everything starts to change for Lanesha, and an opportunity for her to strengthen her independence emerges. Previously, she lived with her mother’s ghost and with Mama Ya-Ya. When Mama Ya-Ya states that “Mr. Death is losing patience. He’ll come and ferry me down the Mississippi” (p. 10), her everyday routine changes before the hurricane and during it, indicating both her coming death and the approaching storm (pp. 49, 51). Mama Ya-Ya says that “the storm ain’t the problem” (p. 69), referring to the unnatural causes of the disaster, as many critics did. During these times of loneliness because of the absence of family and governmental support, Lanesha works to soothe her own fear as an independent person without relying on Mama Ya-Ya or her mother’s ghost. By solving algebra problems (p. 89) and drawing bridges intensively (p. 99), she teaches herself to face fearful events. She thus embodies the BRT, which promotes responsibility, independence, and growth within the African American community.

Lanesha’s growth and coming of age become clearer because of the hurricane. Neither Mama Ya-Ya nor Lanesha’s ghost mother have answers to Lanesha’s questions about the storm (p. 119). Her coming-of-age process is at the climax when she realizes that her survival is her own responsibility. The hurricane appears as a test of her endurance and resilience and enables her to face the grown-up world without her beloved ones at her side. She talks to herself to make sense of the responsibility ahead: “grow up. Time for me to make things safe—for me, Mama Ya-Ya, and Spot” (p. 115). She thus closes the windows and prepares meals for the storm. This shift in consciousness confirms our argument that Hurricane Katrina constitutes a turning point in the lives of African American children and in their coming-of-age processes. To survive the storm alone, without the help of Mama Ya-Ya or any ghost is going to be Lanesha’s test for overcoming childhood dependency.

Indeed, the horror of being in the hurricane’s eye plays a crucial role in strengthening Lanesha. During the storm (p. 128), Mama Ya-Ya is at the weakest point in her life because she is dying. Lanesha is forced to take care of Mama Ya-Ya, Spot (TaShon’s dog), and TaShon—who joins them later. In the climax of the hurricane, Lanesha becomes helpless and starts to cry because she cannot prevent this horror (p. 133). When the storm subsides, Mama Ya-Ya crowns her as a grown up; “You’re strong Lanesha ... Your turn to meet the future, precious” (p. 142). She testifies that Lanesha is responsible and strong. After her death, Lanesha survives the flooding of the house with the body of Mama Ya-Ya, Spot, and TaShon—who loses his parents and witnesses the destruction outside (p. 145). Lanesha’s mother’s ghost acts as an encouraging presence telling her: “You’re going to be fine, Lanesha” (p. 211). From this moment on, Lanesha is not only responsible for her own life but also the lives of others around her.

When Rhodes inserts ghosts in her text, she integrates the BRT’s adherence to African American traditions, as we have already suggested (Robinson, 1983, p. 309). Lanesha wishes that ghosts could build bridges to save people: “if they could, the dead would build a bridge. Help the living... we, and the rest of the Ninth Ward (all of New Orleans), would be forever safe. Ghost levees. Ghost bridges” (Rhodes, 2010, p. 215). Later, she realizes that ghosts are helpless in some situations, which is a hallmark of her coming-of-age process. Rhodes strategically deploys this ghostly helplessness (e.g., levee construction and the preparedness of the city), as this ghosting process could apply to the government which does not shoulder its responsibilities. While African Americans have always been produced in the U.S. as invisible, ghostly presences, Rhodes radically reverses this process. Moreover, Lanesha pays credit to her ancestors who, since the times of slavery, have been forced to build the levees along the Mississippi and now haunt the levees. Most importantly, Lanesha realizes that relying only on the ghosts of the past would not be useful, as she needs to take the initiative and contribute to building the necessary bridges.

Post-Katrina Lanesha differs from pre-Katrina Lanesha. She becomes responsible and aware of herself and the world around her. She also has an unbroken view of her future despite the loss of Mama Ya-Ya and the house. Lanesha is aware of the change in her after the hurricane. She knows who she is and longs for the beginning of a new epoch in her life (p. 217). The ending of the novel is an open one, yet we sense hope between the lines. The first phase of change is self-awareness. Lanesha knows herself and her aspirations as a “[f]uture engineer” (p. 217). She accepts her physical appearance, her future plans, and her supernatural gifts (p. 217). To come of age is to embrace one’s identity and reality after questioning it earlier. Lanesha learns to love her difference, to be grateful for surviving, and to cling to her dreams.
for a better future despite the painful losses. Lanesha is a model to be followed by African American young adults whose lives are clearly complicated.

Lanesha’s survival narrative adheres to the spirit of the BRT in which resistance against struggles requires strength, resilience, and self-preparation (Robinson, 1983, p. 316). Lanesha shows awareness of the racial state policies and systemic racism in New Orleans. Besides her awareness of the lack of sufficient infrastructure in the city (like bridges and schools), the comments her caretaker makes on the evacuation process that does not take their needs into consideration is another sign of her growing consciousness. She also understands that the help is going to be late after the hurricane: “No one is coming. All day and all night, we waited” (Rhodes, 2010, p. 192). Although she tries to give TaShon hope by telling him biblical stories, she is not convinced that help is really coming (pp. 191-193). Over time, Lanesha (who is part of the African American community) develops a lack of trust in a government which failed them. Lanesha learns the necessary qualities that allow her to endure and resist this state of affairs: responsibility, self-reliance, and taking the initiative. Equipped with those qualities, Lanesha is now ready to resist the naturalization of the dire conditions that African Americans experience. Conscious of her class and race positions and strongly grounded within the African American tradition, Lanesha becomes a promising member of the BRT, a tradition that does not accept despair but thrives on hope.

III. OUR BONES HAVE BEEN EXPOSED

Ward’s Salvage the Bones (2011) also provides a vision of hope. The novel tells the story of the Batiste family who witness and survive the hurricane. The protagonist Esch is the only girl amidst three boys: Randall, Skeetah, and Junior. Their father is Mr. Claude, whose wife died giving birth to Junior. Being the only young woman in a family of men and boys complicates her situation, especially because she becomes pregnant at fifteen. Moreover, the baby’s father Manny refuses to acknowledge the baby as the hurricane approaches. Esch narrates the story of her coming of age in the days prior, during, and post the storm. Unlike pre-Katrina novels such as Curtis’s Bud, not Buddy (1999) and McMillan’s A Day Late and a Dollar Short (2001), both of which represent successful futures that are full of happiness, Ward’s novel—armed with the BRT’s spirit—provides a more realistic, but hopeful picture of the racial dynamics of the U.S.

Critical reflections on Salvage the Bones range from environmental studies to formal ones. Raices (2019) claims that Ward’s narrative is a “transcorporeal bildungsroman” in which Esch grows into gaining “a transcorporeal identity” (p. 1). “Transcorporeality” means “that humans are some of the very stuff that constitutes the natural world, and that there is a crucial material interconnectedness between the two” (p. 1). Esch’s coming-of-age story is marked by her abandonment of an anthropocentric concept of herself and her adherence to an environmental one (p. 1). When it comes to genre, Coby studies Ward’s novel from the perspective of southern literature giving prominence to the difference between historical southern literature and Ward’s (2019). He states, “Ward uses the backdrop of the storm as an opportunity for reevaluation of place” and “to dismantle and reconstruct fundamental misconceptions about the field of southern literature, specifically, those pertaining to African American southerners’ connections to nature, and of the ‘throwaway body’” (p. 84). In other words, Coby attributes the importance of Ward’s novel to its rootedness in southern literature through its representation of such themes as nature and the discarded body.

Similarly, Lloyd’s (2016) article tackles the dehumanizing treatment of African Americans, especially by connecting the present with the history of the South, in Ward’s novel and Zeitlin’s film Beasts of the Southern Wild (p. 246). Lloyd states that “the exposure of the South’s inhabitants to social, historical, and natural forces during Katrina revealed a kind of creatureliness; humans and nonhuman animals were simultaneously stripped of security, defenses, and bodily stability” (p. 248). Likewise, Ward (2011) emphasizes the idea of “creaturely southerners; seen as throwaway... Black southern life in the wake of the storm...was precarious and vulnerable” (p. 130). Other critics like Marotte (2015) suggest that Esch’s pregnancy means that the pain associated with childbirth and the storm’s destructive force represent hope for a better future. Unlike the abovementioned studies, we argue that Ward’s novel follows the spirit of the BRT by portraying the revolutionary aspects of Esch’s coming-of-age process. The main character in Salvage the Bones realizes the reality of her situation within the African American community in New Orleans, and she keeps reflecting on the terrible life conditions that African Americans must endure.

Esch and her family are part of an African American community which suffers from monstrous poverty that is facilitated by the dominant racial order. That state of poverty leads to dog fighting, the absence of parental guidance, theft, and hunting. Boys used to fight dogs to earn money from “illegal dogfights” besides working in other jobs (pp. 12-13). Although this act can be seen as violent and irresponsible, Skeetah’s (Esch’s brother) and the other boys find it necessary because they need the money. Some children even resort to stealing. In the absence of parental supervision, Skeetah, Randall, Esch, and others go to a “White” people’s house to steal a supplement for the dog because it is suffering from canine parvovirus after giving birth to its puppies (p. 43). They look at “White” people’s houses as treasure places. Another example of this attitude is when Skeetah promises Randall to pay him the money he needs to go to a “basketball camp” if he helps him in the theft (p. 74). Esch also steals a pregnancy test from the shop (p. 30). We would be remiss to think of those acts as being representative of African Americans, as Ward suggests that such acts are driven by needs that are not met by the state’s racial order despite the African American characters’ willingness to work hard. To put it more clearly, we should think of those acts as a symptom rather than a cause.
That emphasis on poverty, then, indicates class differences, of which Esch becomes more conscious as she comes of age. At the grocery store, she notices differences in people’s clothes according to their class. She states, “[T]he rich ones wear khakis and yacht club shirts, the others wear camouflage and deer prints” (p. 28). She understands the existence of class and its effect on the relationship between her and Manny (the father of her baby), who leaves her for a richer girl (p. 102). In addition, the problem of medical insurance appears twice in Esch’s life: first, when her mother dies giving birth at home (p. 2), and then when her father cannot see a doctor after he cuts his fingers. It is an endless cycle of poverty of which Esch becomes conscious and in which she lives. Lack of medical insurance got worse after Katrina. To understand one’s real status in the community is the first step towards self-consciousness. This is one of the main lessons that Robinson (1983) stresses as a constitutive element of the BRT, which is interested in resisting injustice. As a result of learning that lesson, Esch has the will to survive and keep resisting the egregious conditions with which they must deal, so that she can live a better life.

Learning is important in the making of a character with a revolutionary consciousness. Like Lanesha, Esch learns in two ways: at school and at home. For example, she likes to read for her Mythology assignment (Ward, 2011, p. 7). At home, she and her brothers shoulder the responsibility of the house at an early age. Due to her mother’s death and her father’s constant work and alcoholism, Esch understands her role as the sister-cum-mother of her siblings. Along with Randall, she helps raise her baby brother and does the chores around the house (p. 113). With almost no outside support, they learn that their life is their own responsibility. They create their paths in life on their own; Skeetah chooses to fight dogs to earn money, Randall plays for the school to get a scholarship for a basketball camp, Esch studies at school and becomes a mother at an early age, their father works hard to provide for his family, and Junior grows under the care of his siblings. Later, Esch realizes that she needs to be responsible for the consequences of a wrong relationship when she becomes a single mother.

Apart from her individual and family responsibilities, Esch becomes more conscious of the government’s racist responses to the needs of her community. She observes the harsh reality of the government’s negligence of vulnerable school buildings that eventually get “smashed flat as a pancake” (p. 249). Renovating old buildings before the storm and reconstructing them after it was not a governmental priority, a situation which reflects African Americans’ creatureliness to which Lloyd (2016) refers. While people were facing the hurricane on their own, Bush’s government showed no adequate response to the storm and FEMA refused to enter New Orleans (Burke, 2018, p. 35). When the mayor calls for mandatory evacuation (Ward, 2011, p. 135), people who do not have or cannot afford transportation to leave the city are left to their own devices (like Lanesha’s situation) (p. 217). Esch and her family, among other people of color, face Katrina alone and survive it alone, as well.

Esch’s radical and revolutionary personality is shaped before, during, and after the hurricane. Before the hurricane, she prepares food and water. During it, she is less afraid of the exposure of her secret pregnancy because she wants to protect her child. Her relationship to her baby is unidentified and unclear. However, after surviving the storm, she wants to give birth to her baby, name it, and take diligent care of it. She says, “If it is a girl, I will name her after my mother, Rose, Rose Temple Batiste … If it is a boy, I will name it after Skeetah. Jason. Jason Aldon Batiste” (pp. 247-248). Naming the baby means that Esch bonds with it and forms a relationship that she does not want at first. She even starts worrying about a place for it: “Wonder where the baby will sleep, wonder if it will lay curled up in the bed with me. If I will teach Junior to give it a bottle, the way Daddy taught us” (p. 247). This responsible relationship becomes stronger because of the storm and is complicated because of residency issues after the destruction of many of the residents’ houses. Esch learns how to ask for help like a grown up because she asks Big Henry (a friend and a neighbor) to stay with her family at his house (p. 243). These signs show that Esch becomes in charge of her life and of her speech, a situation which supports the argument that Katrina affects the coming-of-age processes of the characters who witness it.

But the novel does not indicate that this struggle is an individual one. The title of the novel Salvage the Bones suggests that the roots and traditions of the community need to be covered, protected, and appreciated from exposure. So do the events of the novel. Ward’s Esch and her family cling to their traditions of living to face the hurricane (2011). Mr. Claude (Esch’s father) knows how to prepare for coming hurricanes because he has either witnessed them or heard from his parents how to do so. This inheritance is significant because Mr. Claude passes it down to his children as they prepare for the storm. Similarly, Esch and her brothers remember how their mother used to do things and follow her ways (p. 199). After the hurricane and because of the Batistes’ displacement, Old Ms. Bernadine (Big Henry’s mother) helps them; she wraps Mr. Claude’s injured hand, offers the family water and food, and supports them emotionally (p. 244). Such generous acts reflect a sense of hospitality, care, and solidarity that is deeply felt in the BRT, particularly in times of crisis, and can be thought of as a form of resistance to racial capitalism.

Ward’s novel represents what we argue is a rubric for survival, whether rhetorical or physical, that is rooted in the BRT (Robinson, 1983, p. 316). That rubric depends on self-realization and a change of perspectives. First, the family prepares for the storm by fortifying the house and fixing it. Meanwhile, they reach out to each other to help solve each other’s problems. Esch reveals her pregnancy after confronting Manny and hitting him for denying that he is the baby’s father (Ward, 2011, p. 203). During the hurricane, every member of the Batiste family plays a role in their survival. Even the memory of their mother becomes part of their survival process. At the end, Esch emerges as a revolutionary and radical character who adheres to the spirit of the BRT. She revolts against her weak self who seeks love in the
wrong direction and thinks that the mythical stories she reads are applicable to life. She thus proudly decides to name the baby and take care of it alone (p. 258).

To live in the wake of Katrina is a burden on young Esch, especially because of her already existing problems. However, she does not lose hope. Sharpe in her book *In the Wake: On Blackness and Being* (2016) introduces the term “in the wake,” which—among other things—means living after slavery. African Americans are always living in the wake of a dehumanizing event because governmental treatment of African Americans remained the same over the years (2016, p. 3). People in *Salvage the Bones* (2011) live in the wake of Hurricane Katrina and witness elevated levels of racism despite or perhaps because it is a time of disaster. Katrina has been a turning point in Esch’s coming-of-age process. We can trace this when Esch shows the fear she feels during the hurricane by describing the storm as a “murderous” mother who “slaughtered” and “cut us to the bone” (Ward, p. 255). She indicates the harshness and severity of Katrina on her and her community. When she describes herself and others as “babies,” “puppies,” and “baby snakes,” she reflects the state of New Orleans and its residents who lost everything and are going to start from scratch without the guidance of a mother (i.e., a state) (p. 255). Esch recognizes that this hurricane is an experience “to learn to crawl,” and that it is her positive starting point. The storm gives Esch the strength to face the world with her true self, an African American young girl who is pregnant and who survives the storm amidst a tough life. However, she realizes that the storm is not going to beat her. The storm is a metaphor for any difficult situation that she is going to go through in the U.S. from now on.

There are other characters in the novel whose coming-of-age processes are highlighted. Each character has a different direction after the hurricane. Randall loses the opportunity for a scholarship to the camp because his friends fight during a game. Skeetah loses his dog and the puppies, which means he has no opportunity for dogfighting. Big Henry is a logical boy: he shelters Esch’s family and shows Esch support during her hardest times. So, the novel does not focus on Esch’s survival story but on the survival of the family as well as the whole community.

By grounding the novel in the South, Ward reflects on the setting as a determining factor in characters’ lives. She uses the Pit in Bois Sauvage to “deconstruct the idea that undomesticated rural spaces are inhabited only by adventurous young, white men” (Coby, 2019, p. 87). The South is thus used to criticize its vulnerability in the face of the hurricane. Railsback (2016) suggests that Esch in the novel criticizes the incident when her grandfather used to sell clay from the Pit to White people because it made the place “susceptible to flooding and vulnerable to the destruction Hurricane Katrina has in store for it” (p. 190). Coby and Railsback show the way that African American people have always been treated with: as being throwaway and disposable. Coby (2019) states that Esch indicates “that she will fight to fix and remain in the area to which she has such a firm attachment” (p. 8). He also adds that “Esch emerges with a more prosperous sense of self and of her place in community” living by “newfound strength and autonomy” (p. 11). We argue that this change in Esch’s perceptions of herself and her community after the hurricane suggests the emergence of a resisting spirit that abides by the BRT.

More importantly, we suggest that Ward’s novel conveys the spirit of the BRT by representing characters whose future lives are going to be full of struggle and constant survival. As such, coming of age is an ongoing process, as we have explained earlier (Hall, 1990; Dawson, 2020). It is the accumulation of eye-opening incidents that leads not to the creation of a perfect, happy individual but a person who is willing to survive and resist White supremacy and systemic racism. *Salvage the Bones* eloquently articulates that ongoing project of resistance.

**IV. Conclusion**

*Ninth Ward* and *Salvage the Bones* depict the daily lives of African Americans living in New Orleans on the verge of a hurricane. By showing their quotidian routine and their daily struggle for survival, the two novelists highlight the fact that those people who died in the hurricane were human beings and were not mere numbers whose lives do not matter. We have argued that African American coming-of-age narratives on Hurricane Katrina indicate a shift in the identities of African American characters because of the hurricane. They indicate a shift in how African American characters perceive themselves as young people growing up in the United States. We have also suggested that Rhodes and Ward speak to the spirit of the BRT by focusing on a historic event like Hurricane Katrina, which exposed neoliberal racial policies, negligence, and the marginalization of a city mostly populated by African Americans. Pre-Katrina lives of young characters and their families are totally changed by the disastrous hurricane. Factors like homelessness, destruction of schools and city buildings, loss of family members and pets, displacement, and unresolved psychological issues have made them conscious of their disposability and the necessity for resistance.

Some critics claim that Hurricane Katrina was only one of the factors that initiated the Black Lives Matter Movement and activism. Police brutality and the killings of unarmed African Americans played a more vital role. However, Katrina’s images stayed at the back of young people’s minds and their collective consciousness long and deep enough to create an activist movement that is always based on the BRT. By focusing on African American characters living on the verge of a natural disaster along with their already complicated lives, Rhodes and Ward allude to the spirit of the BRT, which offers potential approaches to the problems brought about by systemic racism. The two novels suggest that one way to resist such racism is to realize one’s real self and to become a more conscious African American member of the community.

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Language Education Policy of Distance Learning Classes of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract—This is a quantitative study that focuses on the language education policy of distance learning classes with particular attention to the policies regarding the use of the first language in teaching the second language. Previous studies show that the viewpoint of teachers and students, who are involved in distance learning, towards policies of the English language departments of Saudi universities has not been explored before. The main objective of this paper is investigating teachers’ and students’ awareness of the English department’s policy regarding L1 in distance learning classes and the participants’ attitudes towards using L1 in the distance learning classes of L2. Teachers of English as a foreign language with various academic ranks and undergraduate students from different colleges took part in this study. The main research tool of this study is an online questionnaire. The same questionnaire was given to the two types of participants. Data analysis shows that the majority of the participants were not familiar with the policy of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in distance learning classes. Data analysis indicates that both teachers and students acknowledged that they use L1 in the distance learning classes. On the other hand, half of the teachers contended that L1 enhances students’ comprehension in the distance learning classes whereas the vast majority of the students supported this argument. Policy-makers in the English language department are invited to implement an “English-mainly” policy that perceives students as bilinguals.

Index Terms—language education policy, first language, second language, distance learning classes, English as a foreign language

I. INTRODUCTION

Saudi universities have begun to use the Blackboard system a few years before the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. For instance, Alzahrani and Sheirah (2021) revealed that starting from 2014 University of Ha’il, one of the Saudi universities, added, in the annual evaluation of its faculty members, the effective use of the Blackboard system in the educational process. In March 2020, the Saudi Ministry of Education, in its attempts to fight the spread of COVID-19, suspended traditional education and started distance learning. This included the studied university where it suspended traditional classes and started to use the Blackboard system to provide distance learning education. Nonetheless, stakeholders were not familiar with many significant features of the Blackboard system, such as virtual classes and exams (Altameemi & Alomaim, 2022). A few years after the end of the pandemic, familiarity of stakeholders at the Saudi universities with the Blackboard system has improved to a large extent. Saudi universities, including the studied university, have produced manuals, conducted workshops and published videos to explain the features of the Blackboard system. For example, the studied university has continued to conduct some of its undergraduate courses via distance learning using the Blackboard system even after the end of the pandemic.

Alomaim (2019) studied an English language center of a preparatory year program in one of the Saudi universities. Alomaim (2019) revealed that the language education policy (LEP) does not allow the first language (L1) in the classes that teach English as a foreign language (EFL). Nonetheless, Alomaim (2019) found out that the teachers were not certain about this policy and they did not implement it. Alomaim and Altameemi (2022) also discovered that students were not familiar with the LEP regarding the use of L1. Alomaim and Altameemi (2022) suggested that switching from traditional classes to distance learning classes and the loss of face-to-face interaction positively influenced students’ attitude towards the use of L1 in the EFL classes. This study aims to expand Alomaim’s (2019) and Alomaim and Altameemi’s (2022) studies. The main objective of this paper is to compare and contrast the viewpoints of both teachers and students, who are involved in the distance learning classes of EFL, about the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of the second language (L2). This study will also detect the perspective of teachers and students about the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Haugen (1959) developed the term language planning. Language planning refers to explicit attempts that target influencing the linguistic behavior of others (Cooper, 1989). Language planning consists of status, corpus and
acquisition planning. Acquisition planning that was created by Cooper (1989) concentrates on the expansion of the number of speakers of languages (Ferguson, 2006).

Language policy emerged from language planning to highlight the beliefs, practices, and regulations that influence peoples’ use of language (Garcia, 2015). Language policy may include regulations and practices that are used to accomplish any changes to language planning (Baldauf, 2005). Language policies could be in a form of de facto policies (Spolsky, 2004).

Education is perceived by language planning as the major area of implementing language policy (Hofmann, 1991; Lo Bianco, 2010). As a result, LEP is considered a branch of language policy (Paulston & Heidemann, 2006). For example, language planning uses the educational system to introduce new languages (Cooper, 1989). As a result, acquisition planning has been renamed as LEP (Shohamy, 2006). LEP plays the role of a mechanism that is implemented in educational contexts to develop de facto language practices (Shohamy, 2006).

One of the major focuses of LEP is establishing rules about the use of L1 and L2 in educational institutions (Shohamy, 2006). Using L1 in the classes of L2 is considered a deficit behavior to a large extent by policy-makers (Raschka et al., 2009). Nonetheless, Almazy (2022) discovered a significant discrepancy between teachers of EFL attitudes and pedagogical practices.

The Saudi Basic Law of Governance (constitution) defines the country as a monolingual country where Arabic is the only recognized language. The Saudi Ministry of Education (1995) describes Arabic as the medium of instruction in all the stages of education. The Saudi Council of Higher Education (2007) clarifies that Arabic is the medium of instruction in Saudi tertiary education, but universities are provided with permission to use a different language whenever a need arises. As a result, the vast majority of undergraduate majors in Saudi universities use English as the major language of instruction.

Language practice includes all linguistic choices that a person selects, whether these selections are conscious or not (Spolsky, 2004). Classroom practices reflect policies (Paulston & Heidemann, 2006). However, language policy does not always influence language practice (Spolsky, 2004). Therefore, language policies should consider the positive participation of the people whom these policies target (Hornberger & Johnson, 2007).

Researchers have started calls for LEPs to consider the possible advantages of using L1 to teach and learn L2 (Garton, 2014; Raschka et al., 2009). The global celebration of multilingualism has positively influenced the proposals to perceive learners of L2 as bilinguals (Hall & Cook, 2012; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005). McMillan and Rivers (2011) advocate an “English-mainly” policy. Nevertheless, permitting L1 in the classes of L2 should not develop an overuse of it by teachers and/or students (Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009).

In the context of this paper, Arabic is the L1 including the majority of the teachers and students in the field of EFL. Hence, this study focuses on how Arabic influences the field of EFL education within Saudi Arabia. L1 could be a positive help to students’ learning of L2 (Butzkamm, 2003). L1 could facilitate the teacher/student relationship (Franklin, 1990; Harbord, 1992; Qian et al., 2009; Tien, 2009). Interaction in the classes of L2 could be improved by L1 (Eldridge, 1996; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Harbord, 1992; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Rezvani & Rasekh, 2011).

On the other hand, a great deal of criticism has arisen to attack the use of L1 in the classes of L2. Some scholars argue that permitting L1 would obstruct students’ access to crucial input in L2 (Ellis, 1984). It is also possible that students would be distracted from the lesson by their overuse of L1 (Jakobsson & Rydén, 2010). Some scholars warn that permitting L1 may lead to producing incorrect sentences in L2 (Krashek, 1982).

The studied university has suspended the preparatory year program for most of its undergraduate majors and shifted to foundation year instead. The foundation year includes general requirement courses that prepare students for their undergraduate education. Among these courses are general EFL courses that are taught by the faculty members of the English language department. Distance learning via the Blackboard system is used to teach these EFL courses. The viewpoint of teachers and students within the field of distance learning toward the LEP is a gap in the literature. Thus, this paper explores the perspective of teachers and students regarding the LEP of distance learning classes focusing on the effect of L1 in teaching L2 and the participants’ attitude towards the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2. This is a quantitative study that explores the perspective of teachers and students in the foundation year of a university in Saudi Arabia to answer two major questions:

1. What is the degree of teachers’ and students’ awareness about the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2?
2. What are the language practices of teachers and students in the distance learning classes of L2 during and after the classes of L2?

III. METHODOLOGY

The major focus of this paper is analyzing the perspectives of teachers and students who are involved in the distance learning of EFL towards the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in distance learning classes. This paper adopts a quantitative methodology. This paper took place in a Saudi university where it focused on two types of participants: teachers and students of EFL. The data of this study was collected between January and August 2023. The participants had to be involved in the distance learning courses of EFL during the period of data collection either as teachers or students.
Online questionnaires were submitted to the potential participants of this paper. Questionnaires were selected as the research tool for this study to ensure that the largest number of male and female members of the studied university would be included in the data collection. All the participants (teachers and students) were asked the same questions. Thus, thirty-two teachers of EFL and one hundred and forty students of EFL have participated in this paper. Figure 1 below highlights that 56.25% of the participating teachers and 62.14% of the participating students were female. On the other hand, Figure 1 reveals that 43.75% of the participating teachers and 37.86% of the participating students were male.

The participating teachers in the questionnaire held various academic ranks. Figure 2 below shows the distribution of the academic ranks of the teachers. 12.50% of the teachers were associate professors, 46.88% of them were assistant professors, 25.00% of them were lecturers, 3.13% of them were language instructors and 12.50% of them were teaching assistants.

The participating students in the questionnaire represented the various colleges of the studied university. Figure 3 below indicates the distribution of the affiliated colleges of the students. 43.57% of them were from the College of Computer Science and Engineering, 22.86% were from the College of Sciences, 10.71% were from the College of Engineering, 10% were from the College of Arts, 7.86% were from the College of Business Administration, 2.14% were from the College of Education, 1.43% were from the College of Public Health and Health Informatics, 0.71% were from the College of Pharmacy, and 0.71% of them were from the College of Medicine.
The participants had the right to answer the questionnaires according to their convenience and their class schedules. The questionnaires were facilitated to the participants through writing them in both Arabic and English. The questionnaires were piloted before distributing them in order to test them and to be certain that they were linguistically clear. After piloting the questionnaires, necessary amendments were made to them.

The purpose of this study was explained to all the participants before signing a consent form. The participants had the right to refuse to participate without any consequences.

Data analysis of this study focused on analyzing the questionnaires from the perspectives of two types of participants. The first type was teachers of EFL who worked in a Saudi university whereas the second type was undergraduate students in the studied university. The questionnaires were deeply analyzed in order to explore the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning courses of EFL from the perspective of the participants. The deep data analysis assisted in acquiring an objective view of the data that would mirror the diversities of the participants’ perspectives.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis of this paper involves analyzing the questionnaires with a particular focus on the two types of participants, the teachers of EFL and the undergraduate students. In the questionnaires, the participants revealed the extent of their awareness of the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning courses of L2 and the participants’ report of teachers’ and students’ language practices in regard to using L1 in the distance learning classes of L2. Data analysis of the questionnaires focuses on comparing and contrasting the perspectives of the teachers with the perspectives of the students in light of their answers.

Figure 4 below indicates that most of the teachers and students suggested that they were fully aware of the nature of the LEP of the English language department regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning courses of L2. Figure 4 points out that the vast majority of the students (95%) claimed that they knew the policy whereas 62.50% of the teachers suggested that they were familiar with the policy.
Figure 5 below shows the comprehension of the participants of the English language department’s policy regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning courses. Figure 5 points out an indication of uncertainty among the teachers about the nature of this policy. 31.25% of teachers leaned towards believing that the policy permits using L1 to certain limits whereas half of the students (50%) anticipated that this was the policy. On the other hand, almost 25% of both the teachers and the students conceded that the nature of the English language department’s policy regarding the use of L1 in distance learning courses was not clear to them.

In regards to the policy of the English language department about the English language distance learning courses, it is:

- 25% The administration of the English language distance learning courses bans using the Arabic language
- 31.25% The administration of the English language distance learning courses permits using the Arabic language to certain limits
- 50% The administration of the English language distance learning courses do not have a certain policy towards using the Arabic language
- 25% [VALUE] I do not know exactly what the policy of the administration of the English language distance learning courses towards using the Arabic language is

![Figure 5. The Participants’ Comprehension of the English Language Department’s LEP Regarding the Use of L1 in the Distance Learning Courses of L2](image)

In Figure 6 below, more than half of the teachers (53.13%) agreed with the proposal that the English language department’s LEP should allow the use of L1 in its distance learning classes. On the contrary, the vast majority of the students (85%) supported this suggestion.

I support that the policy of the English language department permits the use of Arabic in the distance learning classes of the English language.

- 42.14% Strongly agree
- 42.86% Agree
- 25% Disagree
- 21.88% Strongly disagree

![Figure 6. Participants’ Attitude Regarding the English Language Department’s LEP Towards the Use of L1 in the Distance Learning Classes of L2](image)
Figure 7 below points out that most of the participants noted that L1 is used by teachers of EFL in the distance learning courses of L2. A roughly similar percentage of the participants, 62.50% of the teachers and 66.43% of the students shared this observation.

Figure 7. The Participants’ Observations of the Teachers’ Language Practices in the Distance Learning Courses of L2

Figure 8 below indicates that the majority of the participants, 90.63% of the teachers and 79.29% of the students, contended that, from their observations, L1 is used by students to interact with their teachers inside the distance learning courses of EFL.

Figure 8. The Participants’ Observations of Students’ Language Practices With Teachers in the Distance Learning Courses of L2

In Figure 9 below, 84.38% of the teachers and 85% of the students asserted that, from their observations in the distance learning courses of L2, students use L1 when addressing other students.

Figure 9. The Participants’ Observations of Students’ Language Practises With Other Students in the Distance Learning Courses of L2

In Figure 10 below, the vast majority of the participants, 81.26% of the teachers and 84.29% of the students, revealed that L1 is used by teachers to interact with students after the end of the distance learning classes of L2.
Figure 10. The Participants’ Observations of Teachers’ Language Practices After Distance Learning Classes of L2

Figure 11 below shows that most of the participants agreed that L1 was used by students during their interactions after the end of the distance learning classes of L2. 87.51% of the teachers and 91.43% of the students agreed with this statement.

Figure 11. The Participants’ Observations of Students’ Language Practices With Other Students After Distance Learning Classes of L2

Figure 12 below indicates that only 50% of the teachers argued that using L1 in the distance learning courses of L2 would facilitate students’ comprehension of the lessons. On the other hand, 90% of the students asserted that using L1 in the distance learning courses of L2 would facilitate their comprehension of the lessons.

Figure 12. The Participants’ Attitude Towards the Advantages of Using L1 in the Distance Learning Classes of L2

V. DISCUSSION

Data analysis of this paper highlights similarities and differences in regards to the perspectives of teachers and students within the field of Saudi distance learning of EFL. The vast majority of the students argued that they were familiar with the English language department’s LEP regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2. Half of the students believed that the LEP permitted the use of L1 to certain limits whereas around a quarter of them admitted that they were not familiar with the nature of the policy (see for example Alomaim & Alameemi, 2022). On the other hand, most of the teachers believed that they knew exactly what the policy was, but the teachers did not agree on what the policy was. This is consistent with Alomaim’s (2019) note that the teachers of EFL were not aware of the nature of the official LEP regarding the use of L1 in the classes of L2. It is possible that due to the recent
implementation of the distance learning courses in the studied university, the policy-makers in the English department did consider the nature of their LEP towards using L1 in the distance learning classes of L2 and whether they should implement the same policies of the traditional classes or not. For instance, Alomaim (2019) and Alomaim and Altameemi (2022) discovered that policy-makers considered LEP of using L1 in the traditional classes of L2 as a de facto that was not written or announced to stakeholders. Data analysis of this study highlights that relatively more than half of the teachers agreed that the English language department’s LEP should allow the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2 whereas the vast majority of the students supported this suggestion. This is in line with Spolsky’s (2004) argument that language policy does not necessarily affect language practice.

Data of this paper points out that most of the teachers and students, to various degrees, noted that L1 was used by both teachers and students during and after the distance learning classes. Only half of the teachers agreed that L1 is useful in distance learning classes. This observation supports Almayez’s (2022) finding of the crucial discrepancy between teachers of EFL attitudes and pedagogical practices. Teachers’ attitude supports Ellis’s (1984) viewpoint that students’ access to crucial input in L2 would be obstructed by the permission of using L1. On the contrary, the vast majority of the students agreed with the argument that L1 is useful in the distance learning classes of L2. Students’ attitude could be attributed to the fact that they lack face-to-face interaction with their teacher to improve their education (see for example Alomaim & Altameemi, 2022).

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper will conclude with answering its questions. In answering the first question, data analysis indicates that both the teachers and the students were not familiar with the English language department’s LEP regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2. This finding suggests that policy-makers in the English language department did not consider clarifying the department’s policy regarding the use of L1 in the distance learning classes.

In answering the second question, data analysis reveals that both the teachers and the students agreed that L1 is actually used during and after the distance learning classes of L2 by both the teachers and the students. However, teachers did not consider L1 useful in distance learning classes of L2. On the other hand, students agreed that L1 is useful in distance learning classes of L2. It is possible that teachers were concerned about seizing every opportunity of exposing students to L2 whereas students were concerned about using every tool that would enhance the learning process of L2 including L1.

The major contribution of this paper to knowledge is exploring the perspective of both teachers and students, who are involved in distance learning classes of L2, towards the English language department’s LEP regarding the use of L1 in these classes. This paper reveals that the viewpoints of stakeholders, including teachers and students who are involved in distance learning classes, have not been considered by policy-makers in the English language department. This paper calls for policy-makers in the English language department to first consider the fact of shifting from traditional classes to distance learning classes in the LEP of the department. The various differences between traditional classes and distance learning classes including, for instance, face-to-face interaction that is available in the traditional classes, but not in the distance learning classes should be taken into consideration in the LEP of the department. In addition, the LEP of the English language department should consider the viewpoints of both teachers and students who are involved in the distance learning classes. This could be achieved via various tools that provide stakeholders with the opportunity to express their perspectives towards the LEP, such as questionnaires. Students should be treated by the LEP of the English language department as bilinguals who have the ability to speak two languages (see for example Hornberger & Link, 2012). As a result, the English language department’s policy is urged to become an “English-mainly” to celebrate students’ multilingualism (see for example McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Nevertheless, overuse of L1 should not be encouraged by this policy (see for example Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). Data of this paper were collected from one of the Saudi universities that use distance learning classes to teach EFL. A similar study should be done in the other Saudi universities that use distance learning classes in teaching EFL to explore their LEPs towards the use of L1 in the distance learning classes of L2.

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areas of interest include sociolinguistics, language policies, language education and the use of technology in language education.

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Environmental Exploitation in the Colonial Period: An Ecocritical Analysis of Pramoedya Ananta Toer's *Buru Quartet*  

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Abstract—Pramoedya Ananta Toer's Buru Island Tetralogy (The Buru Quartet), consisting of four novels, provides deep insights into the social, political, and implicit ecological impacts of colonialism in Indonesia. This research aims to analyse the themes of environmental exploitation narrated in the novels, providing an ecocritical perspective on colonial practices and their impact on environmental sustainability and social justice. This research method uses an ecocritical framework approach with an in-depth reading of the novel's text. This approach explores and interprets how Toer portrays colonial history and its impact on the environment. The results show that an ecocritical study of the Buru Quartet reveals the complex interactions between humans, political systems, and the ecological environment monopolised by Dutch colonialism. Although the novel's main focus is racial and social injustice, it also includes ecological aspects, such as exploiting natural resources through forced cultivation by Dutch colonials, drastically changing the local landscape and biodiversity. This study reveals how colonialism was not only socially and politically oppressive but also played a crucial role in damaging the ecology of colonised areas. The implications of this study are mainly related to the importance of understanding literature as a means of reflection and critique on environmental and colonial issues. In the current global context, where issues of exploitation and environmental degradation are still highly relevant, works such as The Buru Quartet offer important insights into how historical and ecological narratives can converge to critique environmentally unsustainable development models.

Index Terms—colonial period, environmental exploitation, ecocriticism, Indonesian history, the Buru quartet

I. INTRODUCTION

The Buru Island Tetralogy (The Buru Quartet) is a monumental series of novels by Indonesian author Pramoedya Ananta Toer (1925-2006). The series consists of four novels written during his time as a political prisoner on Buru Island, a remote island in Indonesia’s Maluku Archipelago that was used as a dumping ground for political prisoners during President Soeharto’s New Order rule (1966-1998) (Faruk, 2023). Toer was born in Blora Regency, Central Java Province, Indonesia. He is known for his works on Indonesian social life and history, often using a critical lens towards colonialism and social injustice (Laksmiti & Juwitasari, 2020; Niekerk, 2018). Toer experienced incarceration and exile throughout his life for his criticism of Dutch colonial rule and also strongly criticised the practices and politics of Indonesia’s government. Toer was imprisoned more often than not, first by the Dutch colonials (1947), then under

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President Soekarno (1960), and finally exiled to Buru Island during the New Order under Soeharto (1965-1979), where he created the Buru Quartet (Herriman, 2010). His works, especially the Buru Quartet, made Toer an important figure in Indonesian literature and international circles. Toer also faced significant difficulties in writing and publishing his works, including the confiscation of manuscripts and a ban on the circulation of his books in Indonesia during the New Order period, which were considered to contain messages of Marxism-Leninism in his stories (Raybin, 2009; Tsao, 2012). However, after the reformation of Indonesia, the Buru Quartet is internationally recognised as one of Indonesia's most important literary works. It has been translated into approximately 20 different foreign languages around the world.

The Buru Quartet is a compelling family saga with the protagonist Minke and a rich literary work with social, political, and historical analyses of Indonesia during colonialism (Teoh, 2018), including the under-exposed issue of exploiting Indonesia's natural resources. In the context of the environment, the tetralogy presents its analysis of how colonisers exploited Indonesia's natural resources for their benefit, often at the expense of the local environment and indigenous people. For example, cultivating commercial crops such as tobacco, tea and coffee under the cultuurstelsel system exploited indigenous labour and adversely affected soil fertility and local ecosystems (Saefudin et al., 2023; Vickers, 2013). The Buru Quartet provides a critical perspective on Indonesia's history, including how its natural resources have been exploited over the centuries (Herriman, 2010). The importance of a postcolonial ecocritical approach in uncovering the relationship between colonialism and environmental destruction is significant in this work.

The tetralogy is set against social and political changes in late 19th to early 20th century Indonesia that gave rise to the main character, Minke. The first novel, This Earth of Mankind (Bumi Manusia) (1980), tells the story of Minke, a Western-educated Javanese youth who befriends and later marries Annelies, an Indo woman. Their relationship faces strict social and legal challenges, prompting Minke to question colonial structures. In this novel, Toer also highlights the forced agriculture system (cultuurstelsel) implemented by the Dutch colonial forced Indonesian farmers to grow export crops such as coffee, sugarcane and tobacco, replacing traditional food crops. This not only damaged environmental sustainability but also disrupted local food security. Next, Child of All Nations (Anak Semua Bangsa) (1981) continues the story of Minke being more active in the national movement. He attempts to rally support against the colonisers while facing personal and political dilemmas. The novel also highlights natural resource extraction activities, including logging for agriculture, mining, and other purposes, which are featured as the setting of the characters' interactions and struggles in the novel.

His next novel, Footsteps (Jejak Langkah) (1985), follows Minke's journey as a writer and activist, fighting for Indonesian independence through pen and speech. The novel explores his growth in the face of oppression and betrayal. Toer also depicts Minke's resistance to exploitation, who, through higher education, begins to understand colonial injustice, not only in social and political contexts but also in utilising natural resources. This illustrates how the issue of environmental exploitation is intertwined with the struggle for independence and social justice. Finally, House of Glass (Rumah Kaca) (1988) provides a different perspective through Jacques Pangemanann, a police detective tasked with keeping tabs on the nationalist movement, including Minke. Jacques' inner conflicts reveal the moral and political complexities of the era. The following table illustrates the buru quartet:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Main Theme</th>
<th>Main Character</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>This Earth of Mankind (1980) (Bumi Manusia)</td>
<td>Colonialism, the awakening of consciousness</td>
<td>Minke, Nyai Ontosoroh</td>
<td>Minke's story of fighting Dutch colonial injustice through education and writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Footsteps (1985) (Jejak Langkah)</td>
<td>National movement, politics</td>
<td>Minke, Kommer, Semaun</td>
<td>Minke founded organisations that fought for indigenous rights in the political sphere.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Through his narrative, Toer shows an early awareness of the importance of critiquing the environmentally destructive development model. Although this is not the main theme, the dialogue and descriptions in the novels reflect a recognition of the value of the environment that must be protected. Thus, while the Buru Quartet does not explicitly focus on environmental exploitation, it provides a rich context for understanding the ecological impact of colonialism in Indonesia. Toer invites readers to reflect on how colonial policies and practices have contributed to various problems, including the environmental issues Indonesia and many other countries face today.
Historians such as Boomgaard et al. (1997) set out to analyse the interaction between humans and the environment in Indonesia from the colonial period to after independence (1500-1950). This book explores deforestation, agriculture and natural resource exploitation and their impacts on Indonesian landscapes and society. Through analyses of history, ecology and geography, it provides insights into how environmental history has shaped Indonesia today, highlighting the importance of historical context in dealing with today's environmental challenges. All of these elements form an important part of understanding the history of exploitation during the colonial period, which is relevant in the context of ecocritical analyses. The territory of Indonesia underwent drastic changes during and after its occupation by the Dutch. Toer, in his novel, explores the theme of colonial life in all its aspects, which forms the core of the narrative and influences the life journey of the main character, Minke. Therefore, this study aims to identify and analyse the theme of environmental exploitation narrated in the novel, providing an ecocritical perspective on colonial practices and their impact on environmental sustainability and social justice, especially in the context of the narrative of Pramoedya Ananta Toer's Buru Quartet.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Previous Research

Faruk (2023) and Herriman (2010) studied Pramudya Ananta Toer's "Reverse Flow (Arus Balik)" This study constructs the island and the sea by referring to the current theoretical framework in critical island studies and spatial production theory in cultural studies. This aligns with the orientation and policy of viewing and signalling islands in Indonesia from a maritime perspective. On the one hand, this study broadens the horizons of island communities that have been considered limited by inviting them to leave the "backwaters" and experience the islands from a broader marine perspective. In addition, Bostock (2017) highlighted the extent of the depiction of father-son relationships in Pramoedya Ananta Toer's works published up to 1952. The study found that four works written between 1945 and 1949, when Toer had little contact with his father with whom he had a difficult relationship, contained negative portraits of fathers, including, in one case, Toer's father and, in another, a character who substantially modelled his father. Tsoo's (2012) research highlights the interpretation of human evolution in the Buru Quartet, which has not been widely studied. Linking the Javanese values of Toer's childhood with his Marxist ideology as an adult, the work illustrates the moral transition from individualism to communal consciousness, marking the turn from primitivism to 'modern humanity'. In terms of Javanese and Marxist cosmology, self-denial leads to the replacement of capitalism with socialism. However, Toer's experience in Buru, where brutality and 'animalism' dominate, questions the viability of humanist values. Set in Buru, the Quartet criticises the Javanese-Marxist standard of humanity by suggesting that true humanity might mean defying natural selection and favouring failure and the determination to die over survival in power. Niekerk (2003, 2017) examines Beach Girl (Gadis Pantai) using Mikhail Bakhtin's notion of "chronotypes" to analyse. The research identifies three specific chronotypes- houses in the city, village, and street- that structure the narrative. Each of these chronotypes represents a stage in the development of the novel's anonymous female protagonist, who grows up in a small village on the coast of Java and, at the age of 14, is handed over by her parents to an aristocrat in the city to become his "Siri wife". By escaping spatial marginalisation, the protagonist simultaneously develops a more complex sense of time, not only through an awareness of her country's troubled past but also its potential future. The novel can be read as a critique of the power structures that prevailed during the colonial period and in Indonesia after its independence. Studies of Toer's novels are often based on the social and political conditions underlying colonial conditions in Java (Laksmi & Juwitasari, 2020). However, no study of Toer's work raises the theme of environmental ecocriticism in his novels.

Ecocritical studies extend beyond the works of Pramoedya Ananta Toer, with researchers such as Gaard (2009) exploring the origins and evolution of ecocriticism from both scholarly and activist perspectives, covering areas such as ecofeminism and environmental justice in literature. This research also investigates the representation of the environment in children's literature from various angles, including animal studies and ecofeminism. James (2015) highlights how postcolonial ecocriticism often overlooks how the environment is imagined in postcolonial literature, suggesting that understanding the narratives in these texts can enrich ecocritical analyses by considering cultural influences and socio-environmental issues. Zapt (2016) links resource scarcity to violence, showing how competition over resources such as water and land can trigger conflict. Garrard (2010) disputes the idea of stable ecosystems, pointing to environmental change as an important factor in human history. The overall literature reflects the need to further integrate environmental issues in literary analysis, including in the study of Toer's works, to better understand how the environment manifests in the narrative and its influence on social and political issues during the colonial period.

No studies have linked Toer's work to ecocritical analyses, particularly about ecological justice and the impact of colonial environmental exploitation, particularly regarding natural disasters and their effects on communities in Java and Indonesia. Recent research on Toer's work tends to focus on the representation of women's voices, issues of militarism, identity crisis, gender, and class conflict in a stratified society. Drawing on real historical events, Toer's novel opens up many research opportunities in the context of ecocriticism, given that no studies have examined it, and its characters reflect diverse interactions with the environmental conditions of the colonial period. However, the
limitations of current research are a challenge for readers and an opportunity for researchers to understand and explore Toer's work from a more innovative and new perspective, one of which is the ecocritical approach.

B. Theoretical Framework

Postcolonial ecocritical discourse highlights issues arising from "colonial relations and their effects" throughout history, including environmental aspects and the influence of colonial power (Cohen, 2004). Historical research exploring the dynamics between colonisers and colonised countries, global development, and environmental issues opens up new perspectives on environmental concerns in the postcolonial era, which are linked to uneven discrimination in the development history (Goodbody & Rigby, 2011). Many global critics have focused on representations of nature in the literature, highlighting particular aspects of postcolonial ecocriticism, such as environmental violence and evidence of historical struggles in Indonesia (Boomgaard et al., 1997). Important figures such as Nixon (2011), Gaard (2009), Iovino and Oppermann (2012), Goodbody and Rigby (2011), Marland (2013), Cohen (2004), Zapf (2016), Huggan and Tiffin (2015), have contributed significantly to understanding the narratives of colonised peoples, particularly on postcolonial ecocriticism and the environment. In particular, the work by Marland (2013) emphasises the importance of land as a source of life and dignity for colonised peoples. Nixon (2011) highlights the need for "environmental research" and the urgency of overcoming the epistemological divide between postcolonialism and ecocriticism to understand environmental and historical realities in postcolonial territories. Works such as "Ecocritical theory: New European approaches" by Goodbody and Rigby (2011) and "Theorizing material ecocriticism: A diptych" by Iovino and Oppermann (2012) emphasise the importance of historical narratives in ecocriticism and the environmental pressures faced by local communities under colonialism. Postcolonial theorists recognise the environmental challenges that postcolonial countries face, often due to colonial exploitation. Historical narratives of colonial materiality practices show how indigenous peoples were reduced to referents by colonials to define themselves and claim the future as belonging to the colonisers (Huggan, 2004; Zapf, 2016).

Postcolonial ecocriticism has evolved to illuminate terms related to colonial origins while highlighting discrimination and environmental atrocities by colonial masters. Postcolonial ecocriticism emphasises the importance of understanding the "history of colonial violence" (Huggan & Tiffin, 2015) that has permeated our existence on earth. Emerging from literary studies, ecocriticism addresses how critics view humans' and non-humans' roles in literature (James, 2015). This approach also recognises that colonial-era environmental policies were often based on the idea that the environment could be preserved and protected as a source of revenue. The development of postcolonial ecocriticism has increased awareness of historical power dynamics, fuelled greater interest in postcolonial texts, and focused on imperial contexts. While ecocriticism is often considered the dominant critical approach, Huggan and Tiffin (2015) describe it as a broad, diverse and regional movement, not monolithic, but "a set of disparate practices". The connection between histories of environmental violence and postcolonial ecocriticism makes this theory a link between mainstream environmental movements and literature. The study of the Buru Quartet is a reflective example of the main aim of this research, applying discourse analysis of postcolonial ecocriticism as a framework to critically analyse Javanese and Indonesian society's relationship with the land, culture, history and local environment as depicted in the text.

III. Method

This article utilises postcolonial ecocriticism as an analytical framework to examine Pramudya Ananta Toer's "The Buru Quartet" (1980-1988). The main method of collecting data is through in-depth reading of the texts. Toer highlights the importance of recognising the history of colonial violence that has taken root in various parts of Indonesia. In postcolonial ecocriticism, there is an emphasis on the relationship between human power and subjectivity, adopting complex ecocritical research methodologies. Huggan and Tiffin (2015) criticise the view that the postcolonial field is anthropocentric, pointing out the long-standing presence of ecological concerns in postcolonial criticism. With the increasing global awareness of environmental issues, it is striking that ecocriticism and the struggles of local communities have received considerable attention in the global environmental literature. This research methodology is strengthened by the theoretical concepts of postcolonial ecocriticism from scholars such as Nixon (2011), Gaard (2009), Iovino and Oppermann (2012), Goodbody and Rigby (2011), Marland (2013), Cohen (2004), Zapf (2016), Huggan and Tiffin (2015). They contribute to analysing the issue of environmental exploitation in history, especially in the context of Pramudya Ananta Toer's Buru Quartet. The research also involved extensive analyses using primary and secondary sources from writers and historians, including "Max Havelaar: The Dutch Trading Company's Coffee Auction (Max Havelaar: Lelang Kopi Perusahaan Dagang Belanda)" by Muntatuli (1860), "Kretek Girl (Gadis Kretek)" by Ratih Kumala (2019), "Tea and Traitors (Teh dan Penghianatan)" by Ik saka Ban u (2019), "The Environmental History of Modern Indonesia" by Peter Boomgaard et al. (Eds) (1997). These works contribute important to analysing and exploring colonial environmental exploitation and Indonesian environmental history.
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Struggle Against Colonialism

The study of the first novel, This Earth of Mankind (Bumi Manusia), follows the life of Minke, an intelligent Javanese youth who received a European education in the late 19th century, one of the lucky natives to have an education equal to that of the Dutch (Garrard, 2009). Minke meets Annelies, a mixed-blood Dutch-Javanese girl and the daughter of Nyai Ontosoroh, a Javanese woman who became the concubine of a Dutch landlord. This introduction draws Minke into deep social and racial injustice. Minke and Annelies develop a love complicated by the social and legal conditions of the time. At the same time, Nyai Ontosoroh uses her intelligence to fight for social status and protect her family (Toer, 1980, p. 150). The conflict peaks when Annelies is forced to leave Minke due to colonial law, prompting Minke to be more passionate in the struggle against colonialism. The novel is a love and personal story and depicts the social, political and cultural injustices during Dutch colonisation, highlighting the struggle for identity and resistance to oppression.

Ecocritical studies in the novel This Earth of Mankind can be conducted by exploring the relationship between humans, the environment, and the political systems that govern both aspects. Although This Earth of Mankind mainly focuses on racial issues, colonialism, and social struggles, there are ecological elements that can be interpreted through the lens of ecocriticism. Toer demonstrates his remarkable ability to capture the suffering, struggle, and exploitation of people and nature due to the effects of colonialism:

_Such is colonial life everywhere: Asia, Africa, America, and Australia. All that is not European, much less colonial, is trampled on, laughed at, and humiliated just to show off European superiority and colonial might in all aspects of life._

(Toer, 1980, p. 246)

At the height of colonialism in Java in the 19th century, this indigenous Javanese population was caught up in Dutch colonial exploitation (Garrard, 2010). Toer masterfully explores the relationship between humans, the political system, and the environment that governs both aspects. Although This Earth of Mankind mainly focuses on racial issues, colonialism, and social struggles, there are ecological elements that can be interpreted through ecocriticism. The abundance of natural resources led the Dutch to oppress the indigenous population and automatically exploit its natural resources (Niekerk, 2017). Colonial practices such as monoculture plantations (e.g. sugarcane, cloves, tobacco and coffee), depicted in the novel, destroyed local biodiversity and drastically altered the landscape. In fact, Kretek products, Indonesia's signature cigarettes made from a mixture of tobacco and cloves, became a major industry at the time (Kumala, 2019). This emphasis on how colonial systems changed the environment can provide insight into the destructive relationship between colonisers and nature (Huggan, 2004; Huggan & Tiffen, 2015).

One of the characters, Nyai Ontosoroh, often expresses her views on nature (Toer, 1980, pp. 185–195). Nyai Ontosoroh, as a strong and reflective character, provides an interesting perspective on the traditional relationship of indigenous people with their natural surroundings. In contrast to the colonial view that sees nature as a resource to be exploited (Boomgaard et al., 1997), Nyai Ontosoroh and some other characters in the novel may emphasise harmony with nature and sustainable use of resources. The metaphors and symbolism of nature are evident in the title This Earth of Mankind and, in some passages, are often used as metaphors for freedom or oppression, depending on the context. For example, the beautiful Javanese landscape can be seen as a symbol of wealth and untapped resource potential or as a place that has been dispossessed and exploited by colonial powers (Toer, 1980, p. 246). At the novel's end, Minke faces deep sadness when Annelies, his true love, is forced to return to the Netherlands due to the pressure of colonial law. This tragedy causes a major transformation in Minke, prompting him to shift focus from personal and academic aspirations to a broader political struggle. The loss of Annelies not only left emotional scars but also strengthened Minke's resolve to fight against colonial oppression and raise awareness of nationalism among the Indonesian people (Toer, 1980, p. 314). This marks a turning point in Minke's life, which steers the narrative in a more political and activist direction in the later novels in the Buru Quartet.

The novel shows the depth of colonial exploitation, with its tragedies of life and far-reaching effects. A common thread connects the Javanese population to the exploitation of nature by the colonisers. Minke, growing up in a colonial environment, experiences even greater violence and threats. The critical approach in This Earth of Mankind suggests a productive resolution to the tension between coloniser and colonised through ‘postcolonial synthesis and ecocriticism’ (Garrard, 2010; Huggan, 2004; James, 2015). According to Multatuli (1860), Dutch colonial rulers intensively used Indonesia's natural resources, including the forced cultivation system (Cultuurstelsel) that required farmers to grow export crops such as coffee, sugar and rubber, often with adverse consequences for local ecosystems.

B. Indigenous People and the National Movement

After the tragic events that end Minke's story in This Earth of Mankind, Minke leaves the town where he went to school and moves to Jakarta (Toer, 1981, pp. 1–5). There, he became involved with activist groups fighting for equality and independence from the Dutch colonisers. This period is called the ‘National Movement’, which made political, social, and cultural movements to achieve Indonesian independence from Dutch colonisation. This movement developed during the early 20th century and culminated with the proclamation of independence in 1945 (Vickers, 2013).
In the novel, Minke meets and interacts with various national movement figures, each providing influence and insight into different aspects of the political and social struggle. These characters include communists, nationalists, and other figures from different ethnicities and backgrounds (Toer, 1981, pp. 85–90). Minke experienced significant intellectual and political growth. He began to write articles and essays critical of colonialism and social injustice, which attracted the attention and irritation of the colonial government. Confrontations with the authorities increased Minke and his colleagues' risks but strengthened their resolve to fight against oppression (Toer, 1981, p. 120). On the personal side, Minke still struggled with his longing and grief over the loss of Annelies, which continued to affect his views on love and personal relationships (Toer, 1981, p. 198). Minke's personal life, combined with his involvement in politics, illustrates the struggles experienced by many freedom fighters of the time.

Overall, Child of All Nations (Anak Semua Bangsa) not only tells the story of political struggle but also highlights Minke's internal struggle in search of his identity as a 'child of all nations', someone who seeks to bring together the various elements of his diverse background in a turbulent colonial context. It is a story of personal growth within a broader historical context, exploring themes of nationalism, colonialism and resistance (Faruk, 2023; Laksmi & Juwitasari, 2020). In this novel, Toer implicitly offers a deep perspective on how colonialism affects the relationship between humans and the environment. Ecocriticism highlights how these traditional values can be a form of resistance to colonial extractive models (Niekker, 2003, 2017). Toer explores the relationship between cultural identity and ecological practices and how both elements survive or are transformed in the context of colonisation. Moreover, in some parts, landscape transformations due to colonial activities (such as massive land clearing for plantations) directly impacted local communities (Toer, 1981, p. 198). Losing land meant losing a home and a source of livelihood and autonomy. The conflict in the novel can often be understood as a metaphor for a larger ecological crisis, where exploitation and oppression represent a disruption to the natural balance (Zapf, 2016). This highlights how environmental and social issues are intertwined and how literature can reveal these interrelationships through narrative (Gogwilt, 2004). Through the lens of ecocriticism, Child of All Nations is not only a narrative of anti-colonial struggle but also a critical examination of how colonialism altered relationships with nature and how this, in turn, altered social structures and ecological sustainability (Boomgaard et al., 1997).

At the end of Child of All Nations, Minke undergoes a significant development in his struggle against colonialism. After a series of events that raised his awareness of the brutality of colonial exploitation and the injustices experienced by his people, Minke became increasingly involved in the nationalist movement. Things become more tense as Minke and his group become more active in challenging colonial rule (Toer, 1981, p. 390). The novel ends on a cliffhanger, showing that Minke's struggle with his friends is far from over. Minke loses many close friends and faces increasing betrayal and cruelty from the colonials. Despite this, he remains resolute and committed to the struggle. The ending of Child of All Nations sets the stage for the continuation of the story in the next novel, Footsteps, in which Minke continues to deepen his political role and continue his struggle for social justice and independence.

C. The Capitalist World and the Exploitation of Indigenous Nature

After the events of Child of All Nations, Minke has developed into a more mature and influential leader. The novel Footstep (Jejak Langkah) opens with Minke moving to Surabaya, where he founded a newspaper called 'Medan Priayi' (Toer, 1985, p. 54). This newspaper becomes a means to disseminate ideas about empowerment, education, and anti-colonial struggle. The novel also introduces Minke's family background and personal history, adding depth to his character and motivations. Throughout the novel, Minke faces various obstacles and challenges, both on a personal and political scale (Toer, 1985, p. 128). He has to deal with colonial repression, betrayal within his circle, and complicated moral dilemmas. Minke's story is also coloured by personal tragedies, including the loss of those close to him (Toer, 1985, p. 208). On the other hand, Minke also experienced intellectual and spiritual growth (Toer, 1985, p. 216). He interacted with various social and ethnic groups, enriching his understanding of Indonesia's social and political complexities (Toer, 1985, p. 98). Through his newspaper and political activities, Minke endeavoured to unite various groups to fight colonial oppression and build the foundation for an independent and just Indonesia (Toer, 1985, p. 398).

The novel Footstep tells more about Minke's struggle and depicts the evolution of the Indonesian nationalist movement. The novel offers a critical and introspective view of Indonesian history and culture while exploring themes of identity, resistance, and the quest for justice (Tsao, 2012). In Footstep, Minke's struggle with his friends is not only limited to politics and society but also includes ecological aspects. Ecocriticism helps us see that their struggle is also a struggle to reclaim control over natural resources that have long been exploited by the Dutch colonials (Garrard, 2010; James, 2015). According to Lovino and Oppermann (2012), this reflects how ecology and social struggle are intertwined, with environmental restoration and preservation being an important part of building national independence. As a character steeped in various aspects of Indonesian life and culture, Minke may consider the environment a physical resource and an important component of heritage and culture that must be protected and preserved. The novel shows that Minke used his newspaper platform to educate the public (Gogwilt, 2004; Teoh, 2018). In anti-colonial struggles, the environment often became a physical and symbolic battleground. The depiction of nature in Footstep may show how nature is not only used as a contested resource but also as a symbol of national identity and freedom.

In the colonial context, land was considered an economic commodity and a symbol of power. Toer often highlighted how fertile land was annexed by the colonial government or by large corporations to be turned into large plantations.
growing export crops such as rubber, coffee, and sugarcane (Banu, 2019). This destroyed local ecosystems and displace peasants from their ancestral lands, who traditionally managed the land sustainably for the will of European capitalists. The colonial wars of the past twenty-five years are nothing but the will of capital (capitalism) and the market's interests in ensuring the survival of capital in Europe. Capital has become so powerful and omnipotent that it determines what humanity should do today (including exploiting the nature of colonised territories).

(Toer, 1980, p. 194)

Toer also, in some sections, explores how indigenous people responded to the ecological changes brought by colonialism (Toer, 1985, p. 213). In some cases, there was resistance to the expropriation of land and the use of destructive agricultural practices (Toer, 1985, p. 228). This struggle is not only a conflict over resources but also a fight over identity, culture and independence. In this novel, Toer also uses the symbolism of nature to express the emotional and social conditions of the characters. For example, the destruction of nature can reflect social or moral decay, and the beauty of unpolluted nature can represent memories or aspirations for freedom and harmony (Toer, 1985, p. 339). Through the character of Minke and his interactions with other characters, Toer also touches on the importance of education and awareness in dealing with ecological issues. As an educated man, Minke uses his knowledge to advocate for social change, showing how knowledge can empower the national movement.

By integrating ecocriticism into the reading of Footstep, we gain a more comprehensive perspective on how nature and the environment play a role in colonial and decolonisation narratives (Gogwilt, 2003). This emphasises that the struggle for independence involves political and economic aspects and the importance of valuing and protecting the environment as part of national identity and sovereignty. At the end of the novel Footstep, Minke faces increasing colonial repression, which results in the closure of his newspaper, ‘Medan Priyayi’, and his arrest by the colonial authorities. This moment illustrates the great risks and challenges faced by nationalist fighters in the face of colonial power (Vickers, 2013). Despite great losses and loss of support, Minke remains steadfast and does not give up on his ideals for justice and independence. The novel leaves the reader with an image of Minke as a figure of resilience and dedication, a symbol of the ongoing struggle in the history of Indonesia's nationalist movement.

The last novel in the Tetralogi Buru series is House of Glass (Rumah Kaca). House of Glass focuses primarily on political dynamics, colonialism, and characters’ internal conflicts, particularly Jacques Pangemanann. Although the novel does not explicitly address ecological or environmental themes, an ecocritical approach can be used to explore aspects related to the indirect effects of colonialism on the environment. Unlike the previous three novels, which focus more on the character Minke, House of Glass is told from the perspective of Jacques Pangemanann, a native police officer working for the Dutch colonial government. Pangemanann is portrayed as a complex character, revealed through his internal conflicts and moral dilemmas during his duties (Laksmi & Juwitasari, 2020). House of Glass, or 'glass house,' is a metaphor for a fragile and transparent state where all actions and motivations are visible and subject to judgment (Herriman, 2010). Living under colonialism might feel like being in a 'glass house'—where natural resources are managed and exploited under strict surveillance for the colonisers’ profit. Although not directly discussed, it is implied that the Dutch colonial practices in Indonesia, as described in previous novels in the series, involved massive exploitation of natural resources (Huggan & Tiffin, 2015; Zapf, 2016). Ecocriticism can help us understand the long-term impacts of this exploitation on local ecosystems and the indigenous peoples’ way of life (Cohen, 2004; Nuraedah & Saefudin, 2024).

Pangemanann, a character who is of indigenous ethnic origin but works for the colonials, experiences deep internal conflict. This can be attributed to alienation from his environment and cultural heritage (Nixon, 2011). The relationship between indigenous identity and their land or environment is an important topic in ecocriticism. This analysis can help explore how colonialism disconnected people from their natural and cultural environment. In ecocriticism, political and cultural healing struggles often parallel ecological healing efforts (Marland, 2013). By delving deeper into the narrative of House of Glass, it may be possible to reveal how resistance to colonisers also reflects a larger struggle to restore environmental integrity and sustainability that colonialism has damaged. Although House of Glass does not explicitly raise ecological issues, an ecocritical approach could provide additional insights into how colonialism and the characters’ internal conflicts affect and are affected by the environment.

Historical research exploring the dynamics between colonisers and colonised countries, global development, and environmental issues opens up new perspectives on environmental concerns in the postcolonial era, which are linked to uneven discrimination in the development history (Goodbody & Rigby, 2011). Ecocritical discourse highlights how colonial relations and their impact on the environment have influenced the history and development of postcolonial countries, including Indonesia. Issues such as environmental exploitation and injustice in global development are explored through the lens of ecocriticism to be one of the solutions to the ongoing climate change. Researchers and critics such as Nixon (2011) and Gaard (2009) have examined representations of nature and environmental violence in literature, showing how colonial narratives have reduced indigenous peoples to mere references to reinforce colonial domination. This study emphasises the importance of understanding the relationship between colonial exploitation and environmental degradation and the urgency of integrating ecocritical and postcolonial views to better understand the environmental challenges postcolonial states face.
This study reveals that Pramoedya Ananta Toer’s Buru Quartet, through the lens of ecocriticism, exposes the profound impact of colonialism on the relationship between humans, the environment and power structures. The novel not only reveals the social and racial conflicts faced by the main character, Minke but also exposes environmental exploitation as a reflection of colonial oppression. Ecocriticism reveals how colonial practices such as monoculture plantations damage local biodiversity and alter the landscape, reflecting broader violence against indigenous people. Minke’s struggle against colonialism, reinforced by personal tragedy and growing awareness, leads to a greater commitment to national and social activism, demonstrating how ecological and social struggles are often intertwined. The overall narrative of the Buru Quartet, through ecocritical analysis, offers a deeper understanding of how colonialism is not only political and economic violence but also environmental violence that has long-term impacts on the identity and survival of colonised communities. This emphasises the importance of fighting for ecological justice as an integral part of resisting historical oppression and discrimination. Ultimately, this research finds that postcolonial environmental literature helps us better understand the transnational and transtemporal processes contributing to indigenous peoples’ historical and cultural diversity in colonised lands. This research is an important affirmation of the rights of indigenous peoples as well as a dynamic element of the ongoing activist struggle for restitution and sovereignty over indigenous cultures, histories, livelihoods and lands. The paradoxes in the novel exemplify how difficult it is to depict the metamorphosis of settler colonialism while still seeing new horizons of environmental justice and resilience. The implications of this research are mainly related to the importance of understanding literature as a means of reflection and critique on environmental and colonial issues. In the current global context, where issues of exploitation and environmental degradation are still highly relevant, works such as the Buru Quartet offer important insights into how historical and ecological narratives can converge to critique environmentally unsustainable development models. This perspective is important in improving literacy and shaping policies for a more just and sustainable future, especially environmentally exploitation.

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Representing Perpetrator Trauma in Ian McEwan’s *The Children Act*

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Abstract—The concept of trauma explains a disruptive experience with belated effects that are hardly controlled or mastered. Trauma damages one’s psychology by distorting the sense of self and the perception of the world. However, the application of conventional trauma theories focuses on the pains and sufferings in the victim’s life only. It has been critiqued the reluctance to acknowledge that hurting others may cause some perpetrators to experience psychological injuries as well. Drawing on Dominick LaCapra’s concepts of historical trauma and structural trauma, acting out and working through, as well as Judith Butler’s concepts of posttraumatic symptoms, which are described as vulnerability, grief and aggression, this study inquires into the traumatic experience of the protagonist Fiona Maye in Ian McEwan’s *The Children Act*. It aims to investigate how she transforms from a victim to a perpetrator within the context of trauma. Specifically, it explores how Fiona’s personal traumas happened earlier in life are reactivated and drive her to take the role of a perpetrator, and to hurt Adam Henry with her coldness and aggression that facilitates Adam’s death. Besides, the study also looks at how Fiona gets psychological injuries from her perpetrations. This study concludes that the perpetrator’s aggression in this situation serves as a method of self-protection and release of her repressed trauma, but traumatizing others can never be the antidote for her plights, and she is inevitably traumatized by scheming and carrying out the villainies that hurt others.

Index Terms—perpetrator trauma, historical trauma, structural trauma, posttraumatic symptoms, *The Children Act*

I. INTRODUCTION

Judith Herman (1992) characterizes psychological trauma as extraordinary, not because it rarely occurs, but because trauma has the power to overwhelm an individual’s adaptation to life and destroy their sense of control, connection and meaning. People who experience trauma are confronted with extremities of helplessness and terror and evoke the responses of catastrophe (p. 33). The flourishing of trauma studies has provided novelists with new ways of conceptualizing trauma within in the certain contexts of history, politics, ethics and aesthetics. Anne Whitehead (2004) asserts that ‘trauma fiction’ has ‘been marked or changed by its encounter with trauma’ (p. 3), signaling the progress of trauma studies ‘from medical and scientific discourse to the field of literary studies’ (p. 4). Michelle Balaev (2008) emphasizes the depiction of individual or collective loss and intense fear in defining a ‘trauma novel’, and its intrinsic characteristic lies in the illumination of the completed alteration of the protagonist’s identity triggered by an external and terrifying encounter (such as wars and violence). It sheds light on the process of reconciling with the dynamics of memory that reshapes the characters’ perceptions of themselves and the world. Many literary works have portrayed trauma with different contexts, to name a few, the domestic violence, incestuous rape, and systemic racism, the attachment trauma and secure base (Dodhy, 2018) in Toni Morrison’s *Paradise* (1997), the gender oppression and deaths desires in female terrorist attacks (Amalia et al., 2020), as well the perpetration-induced traumatic stress (PTTS) and moral injury of Nazi genocide perpetrators (Sevillano, 2021). Their descriptions of various traumas enable us to realize the diversity of human lives and the vulnerability of human beings, and provide an opening for me to explore

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psychological trauma in Ian McEwan’s novel.

Being one of the foremost contemporary British novelists with highly sense of responsibility, Ian McEwan—the “National Writer” (Cowley, 2005) and one of the “50 greatest British writer since 1945” (The Times, Jan 5, 2008) — takes an active part in the construction of the British society by means of trauma writing. In Writing as Reparation: Biographical Trauma Writing in Ian McEwan’s Atonement, Abreu examines the vulnerability and neurological disorder (vascular dementia) caused by biological trauma in wars; while Ganteau regards Atonement as a novel dominated by the image of wound functions as inspiration and narrative fuel. The romance trauma and war trauma, also the important themes of this novel, are analyzed in Miller’s Some Versions of Romance Trauma as Generated by Realist Detail in Ian McEwan’s Atonement and Crosthwaite’s Speed, War, And Traumatic Affect: Reading Ian McEwan’s Atonement. In the novel Enduring Love, there is violent trauma caused by a hot air balloon accident and stalking that lead the characters to lose control of their life as discussed in Sini Mononen’s Listening to the Resonance: Representation of Traumatic Experience in the Film Enduring Love. Besides physical violence, the trauma resulted from broken family and emotional abuse has also been represented in the two novels mentioned above is examined by Wang Zhaorun in Ian McEwan’s Trauma Writing. Guo Xianjin explores the victim of the patriarchy and sexual abuse within a male-dominated world as portrayed in the novel The Comfort of The Strangers. These studies have offer valuable insights into the vulnerability, the psychological struggles, and the repetitive memories within McEwan’s narrative.

This issue is also portrayed in The Children Act (2014), where physical and psychological traumas of leukemia, conflicts between religious beliefs and secular welfare of children and women, including education, medical treatment, and life style that go against the doctrines, as well as people’s marital problems, emotional collisions, and ethical dilemmas are highlighted. The Children Act delves into the ways in which trauma can reshape one’s perception of the world, the others and the self, by revealing how traumatic experience in Fiona’s marital life can lead a loss in herself, an exposure of her vulnerability, as well as a constant struggle for working through. Meanwhile, as the presiding judge who oversees Adam’s blood transfusion case, Fiona assumed the role of a savior by issuing a wise ruling mandating that the transfusion to be performed, which is highly praised by both professionals and publics as told in the text. Besides, Adam also takes Fiona as a spiritual guide who provided him with substantial support and encouragement as he sought to embrace a new life unencumbered by past constraints, although she never gave any response to his letters of asking for help or expressing emotions.

As Fiona is grappling with marital trauma when her husband Jack’s betrayal disappointed her, Adam’s paranoid tendency to be with her results in Fiona’s fluctuation between renewed and long-forgotten powerful romantic emotions, as well as moral restraint. Without seriously thinking about Adam’s real needs, Fiona simply takes his approaching as a posture of romantic love. Considering her own professional standing and complicated marital situation, Fiona finally rejected Adam’s request to be with her, but compulsively gave him a kiss on the lips, which is extreme unethical and irresponsible.

From Adam’s perspective, Fiona’s actions are heartless betrayal that facilitates his collapse of faith. By Fiona’s judgement, Adam is once encouraged to break away the religious doctrines that once confined him and nearly took his life away, and he regarded Fiona as a reliable friend who understands his pains and fears. However, he finally found that Fiona never truly cared about him and mistook his following as a posture of romantic affair. After cutting ties with his parents and the old religious community, he sought encouragement and truth in Fiona, only to be met with her indifferent ignorance and misunderstanding. And the kiss on the lips, indicates that Adam himself is never been understood by anyone, even Fiona, the one he trusts most. This left him feeling absolutely isolated and devoid of hope once again, and it ultimately overwhelming despair resulted in his eventual demise. In this way, Fiona finally took the role of a perpetrator by inflicting trauma upon Adam Henry, aggravating his sense of isolation and helplessness, thus facilitated his choice of giving up live. And Fiona, who once indifferently sent him away and witnessed him struggling through the psychological trauma, is inevitably traumatized by her wrong deeds that facilitates Adam’s despairing death.

In this sense, trauma in this novel goes beyond the victim’s experience but reaches the perpetrator’s ethical dilemmas, pains, regrets and reconciliation after hurting others. Therefore, The Children Act (2014) is a reminder that trauma is not limited to the victim’s painful experience; instead, it goes far enough to reshape the perpetrator’s perception of the external world, affects their choice in dealing with interpersonal issues and changes their mind in considering an individual’s well-being.

Previous researches on The Children Act (2014) are based on the psychological injuries that the characters often embody. In light of François Jullien’s concepts of rift, Laurent Mellet (2017) investigates how verbal violence plays a significant role in the novel by threading the characters’ performance and intimacy, certainty, and fresh experiences in both public and private aspects. He suggests that the novel represents a change of characters’ a new way of self-preservation in connecting with others, that is, to keep distance from the other, however, that very distance just leads to new form of violence and create rift that lies in unethical unfaithfulness and their past life. The finding of this study reminds us that not only the violent actions or hash languages can hurt others, in some contexts, the distance will be seen as cold violence. This study has explored the issue of violence in this novel, but it didn’t see the traumatic effects brought by the various forms of violence.

Moreover, Hejaz and Singh (2022), in the article entitled The Therapeutic Power of Poetry in Ian McEwan’s Saturday and The Children Act, evaluate the power of Matthew Arnold’s poetry in illness healing, asserting that literary
and creative art forms such as poetry have the power to engender epiphanic experiences and encourage the sick during their clinical practices. The scope of this study is limited to the poetry therapy used in treating people’s physical illness as depicted in literary works, and the word ‘trauma’ has not emerged. However, it offers great inspiration to explore the power of other forms of art in trauma healing (both physically and psychologically) and the humanitarian interactions between the physician and patients, which improve the recovery process. In the article entitled Relativisation of Authorities in the Postmodern Era: Ian McEwan’s The Children Act, Jelena Janićijević proposes a more optimistic solution to achieve self-autonomy for victims involved in the struggle for supremacy between different socio-regulatory authorities, that is, to ‘achieve internal stability by building their own moral standards, despite the conflicts and contradictions of the surrounding world’ (2015, p. 205).

As mentioned above, this novel has already been examined from several perspectives, and previous studies encourage us to consider how the characters’ lives are influenced by external factors such as sociopolitical factors, religious beliefs, interpersonal relationships, and so on, which requires us to place the characters in a global historical context and consider how their lives are intertwined with those of others. In addition, their study focus, such as sensory memory, secondary melancholy, anxiety, conflicts, and ethical dilemmas have proved the complicated personality of the main characters and touched on some levels of psychological injuries. Besides, the examination of the characters’ psychological crises and how their lives are reshaped by these events has raised attention to its limitations. Although we expect the characters to have trauma as victims, we never ask whether they can experience trauma by inflicting pain on others. Indeed, if we consider trauma in perpetration, it is usually to investigate whether a terrible life experience can drive a person towards wrongdoings.

Therefore, to fill the gap in the existing research, this study conducted a psychological analysis of The Children Act, with specific emphasis on the protagonist Fiona Maye’s experience of trauma as a perpetrator who unintentionally hurt Adam Henry and facilitated his death. Through the lens of historical trauma, structural trauma by Dominick LaCapra and posttraumatic symptoms that are elaborated as vulnerability, grief and aggression proposed by Judith Butler, this study explores how Fiona’s personal traumas earlier in life are reactivated and drive her towards hurting others, and how the perpetration of wrongdoing causes her psychological injury. This study is guided by the following three research questions: (1) What type of traumas has Fiona Maye experienced in the past, and how does she process these traumatic events? (2) How are Fiona Maye’s traumas reactivated, and how are her aggressions provoked to trigger her to hurt others? (3) What traumatic outcomes will Fiona Maye confront after hurting others?

This study argues that Fiona is not a perpetrator born to be evil; instead, her indifference and aggression are for self-protection. It is her miserable marital condition and the witnessing of too many sufferings in court that traumatized her deeply and twisted her perception of interpersonal relationships, especially the ties between man and woman. To avoid a relationship that may hurt her, she reacts with aggression and coldness, both of which may hurt others simultaneously. Traumatizing others cannot prevent her from suffering, and she is inevitably traumatized by perpetrating wrongdoings.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

LaCapra once refused to acknowledge the existence of perpetrator trauma, asserting that ‘Nazi ideology and practice were geared to creating perpetrators able to combine extreme, traumatizing, radically aggressive acts of violence with hardness that … foreclosed traumatization of the perpetrator’ (p. 113). However, in 2014, he changed his perspective, not only admitting to the ‘possibility of perpetrator trauma’ (p. 79) but also emphasizing that only those who can acknowledge their trauma from past implications in deadly ideologies and actions will have chances to work through it as the victim trauma.

LaCapra’s (2014) clarification of historical/structural trauma and analysis of trauma processes helped his study break free from the category of personal psychoanalysis and reach the social–political dimension in which the individual’s trauma is associated with his responsibility to others. By relating traumatic memory to sub-consciousness, as previous scholars have conducted, he asserts the possibility that people are mired in the traumatic experience of their lack of cognitive ability to reconcile with that very event. Historical trauma is caused by a particular event, such as the Holocaust, apartheid, violent assaults or disease that is specific and exclusive because not everyone has these experiences (p. 79). Conversely, structural trauma is more than a single event but ‘an anxiety-producing condition of possibility related to the potential for historical traumatization’ (p. 82). To elucidate these two terms, he elaborates on the distinction between absence and loss. Loss is a result of specific traumatic events (p. 64), therefore, it can be narrated, reactivated, reconfigured and transformed in the present or future. In contrast, absence, a fictive circumstance that never exists, is a transhistorical term without tense or location that cannot be traced to a particular experience (p. 49). He also reinvestigated the correlation between acting out and working through traumatic loss and its significance in ethics and politics. Acting out means an obsessively compulsive repetition of the traumatic experience (p. 143), whereas working through is an open, self-questioning process to realize the trauma and its aftermath in an attempt to relive a normal life (p. 144).

Judith Butler, the pioneer of the Queer Movement, is famous for her achievements in gender studies, feminism and contemporary politics and ethics. Her book Precarious Life: The Powers of Mourning and Violence was published in 2004 in response to the social–political vulnerability and aggression caused by the 9/11 terrorist attack, which claims...
her deliberation on the correlation between the vulnerability brought by personal trauma and the resultant aggression when examining the political causality in traumatic loss and violence/retribution. These concepts are suitable for exploring the causes of the transformation of Fiona Maye from a victim to perpetrator and the reasons why she fails to be saved by her own perpetrations.

Butler believes that each human is partly constituted by traumatic loss and vulnerability because when we attach to others, we risk losing the attachment or being exposed to violence (p. 20). Traumatic loss is always followed by grief, which displays the thrill in which our relations with others hold us, and cannot always be explained or recounted. The feeling of grief often interrupts our self-conscious, and always challenge the notion of ourselves as autonomous and in control (p. 23). To prevent radical thoughts and actions, it is vital to identify the root causes of violence and “offer another vision of the future than that which perpetuates violence in the name of denying it” (p. 18). This way, she also provides a solution for people to get through their trauma, that is, instead of becoming aggressive and traumatizing others, they should dig up the underlying causes of their own traumas.

On the basis of the aforementioned concepts, this paper examines how the perpetrator’s psychological trauma is narrated, reactivated, reconfigured and transformed in The Children Act. The concepts of LaCapra’s historical trauma, structural trauma and loss explain Fiona Maye’s personal trauma earlier in life. However, not everyone can work through trauma successfully; some survivors suffer from acting out of the traumatic past in daily life, and as revealed by Butler (2014), the vulnerability exposed in the trauma may impede the traumatized person from enquiring into the actual causes of the events and even provoke her aggression, which finally makes her hurt others for self-protection. However, being traumatized does not license anyone to inflict trauma on others. Therefore, the perpetrator must face the painful consequences of her own perpetration.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study is conducted through a textual analysis of The Children Act. As this study chooses to investigate Fiona’s trauma, it will first examine the concepts of historical trauma, and structural trauma by analyzing her personal experience. Fiona Maye, a female leading High Court judge, although renowned for fierce intelligence and sensitivity, is unavoidably hurt by the traumas that resulted from her failed marriage and her work. Next, it investigates how her trauma is acting out and then reactivated in some specific situations that finally trigger her to inflict trauma upon Adam Henry. This part will be analyzed using the concept of posttraumatic symptoms, including aggression, loss and vulnerability. Finally, it explores how Fiona’s perpetrator traumas are acting out and then working through the enhanced traumatic symptoms led by her perpetration.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As a woman approaching sixty who suddenly suffers from her husband’s extramarital affair and her underlying concerns of infertility has been provoked, Fiona’s trauma results from failing marriage runs throughout the novel. Meanwhile, as the leading judge of the Family Proceedings Court who constantly brings “reasonableness to helpless situations” (McEwan, 2014, p. 4), Fiona has no choice but to witness or participate in violent domestic fights, seeing the subsequently traumatized children, and resolving conflicts regarding the well-being of those children, all of which have led her to feel empathic unsettlement and indirectly experience the trauma.

A. Trauma in the Earlier Life

Fiona first appears as a victim of her husband’s betrayal at the opening of the novel where we can see her “wheezy with outrage” (McEwan, 2014, p. 2) after her husband Jack’s shocking declaration of an extramarital affair. Fiona’s reaction at the moment supports LaCapra’s (2014) view on trauma, which is a disruptive experience, not only disarticulates the self and creates holes in existence, but also brings belated effects that can’t be controlled and may never be fully mastered (p. 96). She is definitely unprepared for it, as how Fiona thinks about the event, it “placed an impossible burden on her” (McEwan, 2014, p. 2) and disturbs her usually quiet life and poses a serious threat to her marriage. Despite Jack’s effort to win her understanding before he formally moving to his mistress, Fiona knows that “it would happen, with or without her consent” (p. 9).

However, Fiona doesn’t fully understand her trauma at the moment. In the next morning after Jack’s leaving, she remains “in shock, in an unreal state of acceptance”, and “felt the first conventional ache of abandonment” (McEwan, 2014, p. 60). The lonely wake-up in the morning reminded her the fact that her essential of Jack’s accompany was banished, and Jack’s ruthless silence (no email, no text, no phone call) shocked and disappointed her, she felt “a dark hollowing out, an emptiness falling away behind her, threatening to annihilate her past” (p. 83). As LaCapra (2004) asserts, trauma is a difficulty of magnitude, a shattering experience that disrupts or even threatens to destroy experience in the sense of an integrated or at least viable articulated life” (p. 117), as well as an “out-of-context” experience with an overwhelming power to distort the victim’s perception of others and the adaptations to daily life. Since Fiona’s trauma is caused by specific event, it should be clarified into the category of historical trauma by LaCapra (2014); besides, it usually brings with loss, which occurs on a historical level and is the result of that specific occurrence that derails someone’s objectives, plans, or projects. As Butler (2004) claims, when people lose, they are
faced with something enigmatic, that is, the real thing hiding in their loss, and what is lost within their recesses of loss (pp. 21-22). Jack’s disappearance suggests that Fiona’s loss of her husband, but at the moment when he is leaving, Fiona hasn’t realized what has really been lost in her life, and she is thus unable to comprehend why she is falling or worn out, and it is impossible for her to choose how to cope with this loss in a right way.

Although “for all the stupidity and dishonesty of the exchange, it was the only question and she’d invited it, but she felt irritated by him” (McEwan, Children Act 24), Fiona wants a demand explanation from Jack, but she still recoils from hearing the bad things. It is obvious that experiencing trauma exposes her vulnerability. As she is fear of being taken up or being infected in a morally perilous way by thinking of Jack’s leaving, she has prevented to think about the real causes of her own sufferings. In fact, Fiona understands that she is partially responsible for Jack’s betrayal, moreover, she can tell Jack is blaming her for ignoring his demand as well as his intention to win back her attention to family, but she refuses to think about it. Her reactions go against the direction of healing the trauma, as Butler (2004) argues, the traumatized people need to reach the “root” of their traumas so that they can find another vision of the future instead of hurting each other in the name of denying it, they should offer instead names for things that restrain them from thinking or acting radically and well about their future options (p. 18).

Fiona also could have sought help and comfort from her friends, like Herman (1992) asserts, the victim can tell the story of trauma in depth and detail, which is a work of reconstruction that can transform her memory of it then integrated into her life story, and in her telling, her story becomes a testimony as a ritual of healing, through storytelling (p. 167), she may “regain the world they have lost” (p. 170). But for Fiona, it’s “too soon for sympathy or advice, too soon to hear Jack damned by loyal chums”, rather than a social death caused by marital crisis, she prefers to suffer it “in an empty state, a condition of numbness” (McEwan, 2014, p. 58). Instead, she reacts it with aggression for the purpose of self-protection, getting in to a furious dispute with her husband, and even losing her mind and changed the locks of the door in an attempt to keep him out. She made an effort to convey her attitude and defend herself by her incisive language and forceful actions, but doing so only served to escalate the conflict. It is Fiona herself who closed the door for working the trauma through.

Although being tormented by her own marital trauma, Fiona is not afforded the luxury of time to indulge in her emotional wounds. Instead, she must immerse herself in the myriad legal documents that demand her attention. As a presiding judge in the family court, Fiona bears a solemn responsibility to safeguard the well-beings of children, render just verdicts in marital disputes, and alleviate the suffering of women in the court. When dealing with these cases, she has seen “marital or partner breakdown and distress in Great Britain swelled like a freak spring tide, sweeping away entire households, scattering possessions and hopeful dreams, downing those without a powerful instinct for survival” (McEwan, 2014, p. 131), and “self-pity in others embarrassed her” (p. 7). These traumas involved in the cases that caused by spousal conflicts, illnesses, child abuse, and religious disputes, that attract the national attention and have influence on the masses of British society, as conceived by LaCapra (2014), refers to the enduring, systemic, and often hidden effects of traumatic events on collective identities, societies, and cultural practices, are defined as structural trauma (p. 79), which have also traumatized Fiona indirectly.

The collective pessimistic opinion on marriage has affected Fiona’s attitude towards Jack’s extramarital affairs, she can’t resist imagining the scene of the unethical sexual life between Jack and his lover, holding disbelief in their mutual past. As Fiona thinks herself, “for all lifetime’s entanglement in human weakness, she remained an innocent, mindlessly exempting herself and Jack from the general condition”, but now, after internalizing the public futilitarian on marriage, Fiona changed her mind, as “these were new thoughts, this was how the worm of suspicion infested the past” (McEwan, 2014, p. 19). In this sense, Fiona can be defined as a victim of structural trauma.

The aforementioned experiences have had a profound impact on her perception of the external world, particularly with regards to comprehending the dynamics of male-female relationships and marital associations. Consequently, Fiona faces challenges in developing appropriate perspectives and strategies to address Jack’s infidelity, and as a result, indirectly struggles with accurately identifying Adam’s emotional investment. These factors, in turn, contribute to her failure to take the appropriate action when confronted with Adam’s passionate following.

B. From Victim to Perpetrator

Adam is raised in a fundamentalist Christian community as a Jehovah’s Witness descendent, and all through his childhood he has been kept in “an uninterrupted monochrome exposure to a forceful view of the world” (McEwan, 2014, pp. 122-123). His exposure to such condition is so pervasive that he is unable to evade its influence. Consequently, when he suffers from leukemia, he chooses to adhere to the teachings of his church, thereby refusing blood transfusions, even at the cost of his own life. Therefore, the hospital initiates legal proceedings against his parents for the purpose to get legal approval to administer a forced blood transfusion, so that they can save his life. Out of concern for his welfare, Fiona decides to visit Adam in the hospital during the trial to decide whether to administer a blood transfusion against his wishes. And this is scene when Fiona first saw Adam in the hospital:

The place was in semidarkness but for the focused bright light around the bed. …. The life-support and monitoring equipment around the bed, the high stands, their feed lines and the glowing screens emanated a watchful presence, almost a silence. (McEwan, 2014, p. 99)

As McEwan (2014) says, “If Fiona’s recollection of stepping into Adam Henry’s room was confused, it was because of the disorienting contrasts” (p. 99). Adam’s vulnerability and steadfastness in facing death impacts her deeply. Besides,
as Fiona sees, “spread about him on the sheets and spilling out into the shadows were books, pamphlets, a violin bow, a laptop, headphones, orange peel, sweet wrappers, a box of tissues, a sock, a notebook and many lined pages covered in writing. Ordinary teenage squalor, familiar to her from family visits” (p. 99), living in the dim and dismal hospital room, tormented by illness and pain, Adam never forgets to practice the violin. Despite growing up in a deeply religious environment, his hobbies and habits resemble those of secular high school students. The simple enthusiasm he displays when discussing music and poetry sharply contrasts with his calmness and maturity when talking about blood transfusions and death.

During the short meeting in the hospital where they talk about music, poetry, religion, and play violin together, Fiona possessed a profound comprehension of Adam’s fear for death, his vulnerability after suffering so many physical and psychological pains, as well as his fervent desire for life. Based on this, Fiona decided to support the hospital’s claim to force a blood transfusion on Adam to save his life and protect him from further physical trauma. Although the administration of the blood transfusion proves efficacious in addressing Adam’s physical illness, his psychological trauma is far more complex to heal.

The experience of returning to health makes Adam to reconsider his previous religious belief and decide to distance himself from Jehovah’s Witnesses. However, it is extremely traumatic for a teenager to leave his earlier life and the familiar community. Furthermore, the act of disavowing his religious ties implied a distancing from his parents, who remain ardent members of the Jehovah’s Witness community. This rupture in his social ties engenders a state of emotional distress and existential confusion, as he became inscrutable to himself because he didn’t know who him is or what to do. According to Butler, individual is shaped to be socially vulnerable. Since the feeling of loss and vulnerability comes from being socially connected to others, we are at risk of losing these connections and also at risk of being attacked by violence because we are exposed to others (p. 20). At this moment, Adam is therefore extremely vulnerable as being in a state of abandonment and isolation.

Given the prevailing circumstances, Adam’s yearning for an urgent supportive network and guidance stems from the traumatic experiences he has endured. And in his mind, Fiona is the one who could provide him with the help he needed. By writing to Fiona, he attempts to work the trauma through by narrating his pains and repeating his trauma with her. And in his mind, Fiona is the one who could provide him with the help he needed.

Fiona’s aggression firstly manifested as her ignorance of Adam’s asking for help in letters. Her disregard is not entirely a case of turning a blind eye. She reads every letter sent by Adam attentively, gaining insight into his recent developments, how he actively integrates into his new life, courageously breaking away from the past beliefs, his passion for music and art, as well as the hardships he encounters as a result. Meanwhile, she also realizes Adam’s unstable psychological conditions as he wrote:

feeling better, feeling happy and then sad and then happy again. Sometimes the idea of having a stranger’s blood inside me makes me sick, like drinking someone’s saliva. Or worse. I can’t get rid of the idea that transfusion is wrong but I don’t care anymore. (McEwan, 2014, p. 142)

Besides, the letters revealed Adam’s unusual trust and dependency on her.

On one hand, after reading the letters, she is touched by Adam’s innocence and enthusiasm. On the other hand, despite fully understanding Adam’s isolation and vulnerability, she does not respond. In fact, she has composed a reply but deems it insufficiently friendly, and thinks:

it wasn’t the friendliness that struck her, it was the coolness, the dud advice, the threefold impersonal use of “one,” the manufactured recollection. …. Better to send nothing at all than cast him down. If she changed her mind, she could write later”. (McEwan, 2014, p. 140)

Fiona really cares about Adam, but she is reluctant in getting involved. Engulfed in the crisis of her own marriage, she gradually forgets about Adam’s existence. When she receives another letter from Adam, “[h]er concern was greater” (p. 141), and it’s something she prefers to avoid. For Fiona, who is currently experiencing her own trauma and vulnerability, being cautious about engaging with others is her choice. Indifference serves as her best self-protection. Therefore, she chooses to ignore the plea of Adam.

Compared with her no response to his letters, the most severe trauma Fiona inflicted upon Adam is coldly sending him back to the old world that once confined him, and letting him helplessly struggle alone to survive. After many of Adam’s letters to her being unanswered, he secretly followed Fiona to Newcastle where Fiona is going for her business. Staying in Newcastle offers her the opportunity to review the old dream in her teenage and to temporarily forget about the bad moments with her husband Jack, offering the chance for her to refresh herself from the marital problems. However, the arrival of Adam served as a jarring reminder for her to return to reality that had been distressing and traumatic. It reactivated her traumatic memories of London where she was obsessed with work and let her marriage in a mess. Moreover, her loss of passion for marital life is reactivated by Adam’s crazy desire to be close to her. Contrasting sharply with Adam’s frantic pursuit Jack’s cold departure from her indicates that “[s]he remained betrayed” (McEwan, 2014, p. 133). Fiona consequently mistakes Adam’s action as an indication of romantic love and decides to refuse him immediately, but she uncontrollably gives him farewell with an unethical irresponsible kiss on his mouth.

For Adam, he didn’t hesitate to expose his vulnerability to Fiona, with the expectation of receiving assistance.
However, Fiona’s avoidance and rejection served as a barrier to his hope, resulting in shock and disappointment for Adam, asking Fiona “Is that is then?” (McEwan, 2014, p. 168). His faith of the future collapsed at that moment when Fiona sent him away. He struggles to work through the traumatic past and adapt to new life in a secular society, seeking empathy, understanding, and support from a wise and trustworthy elder. However, Fiona never seriously considered his feelings. Grappling in her own marital crisis and being disappointed by the faded emotions with her husband, Fiona simply takes Adam’s following as a posture of romantic love. As an old woman of her sixties who is nearly deserted by her husband, Fiona mistakes Adam’s following as a posture of romantic feeling, a proof of her own charm that “she should have been flattered” (McEwan, 2014, p. 212), and from which she can’t resist but to seek comfort. When she kissed him, Fiona feels “the softness of his lips that overlay their suppleness, all the years, all the life, that separated her from him” (McEwan, 2014, p. 169). Meanwhile, for the purpose of preventing herself from profession crisis, she chooses to react with coldness and indifference, turning him away and, in doing so, forcefully revert him to a collapsed old world undermined his progress.

Fiona rejected to see how Adam’s primary vulnerability that is exploited and exploitable, thwarted and denied, so that she couldn’t really understand how he has suffered from the oppression from the old community, and finally ignored his helplessness and needs. In this sense, Fiona’s refusal is an act of emotional violence that enhances Adam’s trauma. In desperation and helplessness, Adam’s leukemia relapsed, and this time, he refused the treatment. In fact, these behaviors of Fiona when confronting with helpless Adam is a kind of aggression, that is, to take his following as a comfort, but turn him away coldly. At this point, Fiona is the perpetrator who unconsciously but actually pushed Adam into the abyss of despair and indirectly caused his death.

C. Perpetrator Trauma

Fiona was caught in the confusion about herself as she thought “she didn’t understand her own behavior… it was the horror of what might have come about, the ludicrous and shameful transgression of professional ethics, that occupied her” (McEwan, 2014, pp. 172-173). She can’t resist but repeatedly imagining the bad moments that haven’t come yet, is explained by LaCapra (2014) as acting out, within which the traumatic event is performatively regenerated or relived as if were fully present rather than represented in memory and inscription, and hauntingly returns as the repressed (p. 70).

Fiona’s trauma is totally provoked when the terrible news of Adam’s death arrived on the day of the Christmas concert, just as she was about to take the stage, but “she found it hard to concentrate on what he was saying, though she thought she had grasped it” (McEwan, 2014, p. 197). Adam’s death was too shocking and unbelievable so as to overwhelmed her, just as Caruth (1996) claims, the event “is experienced too soon, too unexpectedly, to be fully known and is therefore not available to consciousness until it imposes itself again, repeatedly, in the nightmares and repetitive actions of the survivor”, for the traumatized person, “it was precisely not known in the first instance” (p. 4), but it would surely return to haunt her later on.

Fiona looked pale as she was to collapse. Sitting on the piano stool, she “drew a deep breath and softly exhaled to purge herself of the last scraps of recent conversation” (McEwan, 2014, p. 198), she forced herself to concentrate on the perform, meanwhile, she felt “only faintly aware that something waited for her return, for it lay far below her, an alien speck on a familiar landscape” (p. 199), and she couldn’t tell if it was really there or really true. This is one of the most typical posttraumatic symptoms, she is too much disrupted and dissociated so that she could hardly accept the truth, which, as LaCapra (2014) asserts, is because that one’s trauma has invited distortion, disrupted genres or bounded areas, and threatened to collapse distinctions between reality and illusion (p. 96).

Fiona eventually came to terms with Adam’s death after the performance, but the trauma remained uncontrollable and intolerable:

> her gaze settled, for no particular reason, ..., her mind a merciful blank. … She had forgotten the concert. If it was neurologically possible not to think, she had no thoughts. Minutes passed. Impossible to know how many. (McEwan, 2014, p. 202)

All signs indicated that Fiona has already completely collapsed when confronting with the sudden trauma, which supports Butler’s (2004) description of the effects of loss on individuals, that is, the “experience of transformation deconstitutes choice” (p. 21) that is larger than one’s plan, one’s project, even one’s knowing, so that people can’t choose how to react with it when they are hit by loss, they simply find themselves fallen and exhausted.

The pain and remorse were so intense that she felt she was being crushed by the world “filled with such detail, such tiny points of human frailty” (McEwan, 2014, p. 210). She definitely felt trauma, but failed to express it when Jack asked, there was a dissociation of affect and representation brought about by her trauma: she disorientingly felt what she couldn’t represent and numbingly represented what she couldn’t feel, and to some extent, the counteract, reenactment, or acing out of this disabling dissociation may be a part of her working through.

Under Jack’s inquiry, Fiona began to talk about the things happened between Adam and her, and through her speaking out, she made her testimony of a perpetrator, which is crucial for oneself in the endeavor to comprehend her traumatic experience and its aftermaths, particularly the role of memory and its lapses, in coming to terms with—or denying and repressing—the past (LaCapra, 2014, p. 82). It works on the transition of Fiona’s compulsively reliving the past to her position of a survivor and agent in the present because of its dialogic interaction to attentive, empathic listeners.
She defined Adam’s death as suicide, letting out “a terrible sound, a smothered howl” and socking herself in “the furthest extreme of grief” (McEwan, 2014, p. 211), and the grief displayed the enslavement that came from her relations with others, which couldn’t always be explained or recalled, was frequently interrupted by self-consciousness, and constantly challenged herself as autonomous and in control (Butler, 2004, p. 23). For this reason, she was finally “beyond speech and the crying would not stop and she could not bear any longer to be seen” (McEwan, 2014, p. 211).

When Fiona lied down on her bed, Adam reappeared in her dream. She saw the frail boy returning to the community with his parents and the elders in Jehovah’s Witnesses, believing that he was using the faith “as the perfect cover to destroy himself” (McEwan, 2014, p. 211), also recalled the scene of their first meet in the ICU, which indicate that her trauma is acting out, and in this stage, instead of being represented in memory and inscription, the traumatic past was performatively revived or relived as if it were completely present. Additionally, it hauntingly reappeared as the repressed (LaCapra, 2014, p. 70).

While she was half-asleep, Fiona started to consider her role in the series of events that led to Adam’s desperate death. She imagined Adam hovering outside her window, thinking about his desire, recalling the kiss “on a powerful and unforgivable impulse” (McEwan, 2014, p. 212), and reflecting on her own selfishness and indifference. She also has had a new perspective on the idea of the children’s well-being. In the silence of the night following a downpour, Jack lies down beside her and hold her in his arm, Fiona felt their marriage uneasily resumed yet the familiar situation offered her a feeling of security.

And she began to tell Jack about her shame, Adam’s passion for life, and her role in his death, in this way, she has gradually realized her own trauma, and stepped on the journey of working through, that is, what LaCapra (2014) has ever told us—the perpetrator may have experienced trauma that needed to be acknowledged and perhaps even work through under the condition that they could disassociate themselves from the prior involvement in the deadly ideologies and practices (p. 79).

V. CONCLUSIONS

Ian McEwan’s portrayal of the characters’ traumatic journey reveals his understanding of how people can overcome their flaws to find happiness (Lin, 2015, p. 48). The Children Act continues McEwan’s focus on the character’s deep psychological trauma, which runs through his early writings, such as Stephen in The Child in Time and Maria and Leonard in The Innocent (Malcolm, 2019, p. 106). Applying Dominick LaCapra’s concepts of historical trauma and structural trauma, acting out, and working through, as well as Judith Butler’s concepts of posttraumatic symptoms including vulnerability, aggression and grief, this paper examines Fiona Maye’s personal traumatic experience, specifically, it looks at how Fiona’s personal traumas happened earlier in life are reactivated that drive her to take the role of a perpetrator and to hurt Adam Henry with her coldness and aggression that facilitates Adam’s death; it also examines the psychological injuries Fiona gets from her own perpetraions. This study concludes that the perpetrator’s aggression in this situation serves as a method of self-protection and release of her repressed trauma, but traumatizing others can never be the antidote for her plights, and she is inevitably traumatized by scheming and carrying out the villainies that hurts others.

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The Role of Target Readership Feedback in Improving Students’ Self-Revised Translations: An Empirical Study

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Abstract—In translation training, translation revision to produce a high quality translation is an integral part of the translation process. Improvement on the translations produced by students during training are typically carried out by students themselves in the form of self-revision. The present empirical study aims to assess the improvement of student translations’ quality in light of target readership assessment and feedback. It further sets out to measure student's attitudes towards target readership feedback in terms of effectiveness in assisting them to improve their translations. The findings reveal that target readership feedback had a considerable effect on improving the quality of student translations which made them more vigilant to analyzing target text context. Moreover, student translators perceived target readership feedback as valuable in improving their self-revised translations to enhance the quality of their translations. The study recommends employing target readership feedback as part of student translation training.

Index Terms—target readership feedback, student translators, acceptability, readability

I. INTRODUCTION

In translation practice, producing a high quality translation requires producing a faithful reflection of the original message of source language text (ST) while ensuring that the target language text (TLT) should read well and cause no comprehension problems for the target readers. Given the difference between distant languages such as English and Arabic, problems arise in lack of correspondence in words, phrases, sentences and whole texts as these two different languages function in different cultures (Baker, 1992; Ronowicz & Imanishi, 2003; Farghal & Almanna, 2022). Therefore, achieving high quality translation poses a difficult task to beginner translators given their different levels of linguistic and translation skills as well as cultural knowledge in both languages.

Translation as a process, particularly in translation training, involves students following a sequence of phases: full comprehension of (ST), drafting of the (TT), and revising the final draft of that translation. Comprehension entails identifying potential problems of comprehension and production before undertaking the task of translation. The translator researches those problems using dictionaries or any available resources to solve them and reach full comprehension of the ST as a whole (Bell, 1991; Jakobson, 2002; Ronowicz et al., 2005). Of course, any unsolved problem of comprehension will result in translation errors in the TT. Full comprehension of the source text is crucial before embarking on the task of translation. For example, Nevue (2019) in her study on reading comprehension in translation training believes that developing skills of comprehension contributes to producing better translations. Therefore, analyses of both ST and TT are equally important to determine that translation choices are contextually based. During the drafting phase, the student translator makes choices of lexical items, grammar, and style that must be accurate, appropriate, and readable in the TT while faithfully maintaining the meaning of the ST. Even though, some errors are naturally corrected while drafting, it is in the revision phase that TT is checked for omissions, wrong lexical use, mistakes in grammar, punctuation and spelling in order to improve TT quality (Ronowicz et al., 2005).

Despite the fact that revision carried out by students on their TTs improves the end product, students as translation beginners struggle in choosing suitable lexical choices as in collocations, synonyms, and proper nouns in the TT. Numerous studies focused on the analysis of lexical choices in translations produced by both student and professional English-Arabic translators. For example, Alhihi (2015) analyzed errors in translated health documents, and Obeidat and Abu-Melhim (2017) analyzed errors in translated academic papers in an attempt to identify lexical problems in areas of synonymy, polysemy, collocations etc. In general, lexical choices are seen as the prominent contributor to incomprehensible translations (Shormani, 2014; Permatasari & Yuliasri, 2020; Saeed, 2023). Studies have shown that
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even though student translators are translating into their native language, they commit grammatical errors in applying the grammatical rules of Arabic word order, agreement and pronouns (Al-Zahrani & Al Qahtani, 2021; Alanazi, 2023). Furthermore, students have been found to tend to transfer ST punctuation in their Arabic translations disregarding the different punctuation system used in Arabic (Al-Khalil, 2022).

Student translators, in the process of training, are developing their translation skills and therefore are required to practice analyzing the effect their translation mistakes have on the quality of translation with the eye of a target reader. Most research investigating translation revising procedures involve the translators themselves conducting revision through “self-revision” (Kasperavičienė & Horbačauskiénė, 2020) or resorting to back translation (Behr, 2017), which all have been found to include shortcomings in improving quality. Students in particular get attached to the ST in fear of violating faithfulness to the original message and fail to pick up on the errors present in the TTs in what Baker (1992, p. 54) describes as the engrossed effect of the ST, i.e. tension between naturalness and accuracy in translation. Studies further proposed target readership assessment in the form of “other revision” (Kasperavičienė & Horbačauskiénė, 2020) carried out by other translators, or “fresh look procedure” (Brunette, 2000) carried out by researchers themselves to assist in the assessment of translation quality.

The present study aimed at analyzing students’ translations to detect improvement in translation quality in light of target readership assessment and feedback, therefore the focus in reviewing studies below was on target readership assessment and feedback rather than translation quality assessment per se.

Previous research studies

Target readership assessment as a measure of translation quality was first introduced by Brunette (2000). However, the importance of the target reader, in general, as a target language receptor and his/her acceptability of the translation was raised previously by Nida and Taber (1969, p. 162). In particular, Brunette (2000, p. 173) introduces the term “fresh look procedure” in studies of translation quality assessment. However, the procedure suggested by Brunette (2000, p. 173) is different from that used in this study. The difference lies in who carries out the target readership assessment. According to Brunette’s (2000) proposal, it is the researcher who plays the role of the first reader in which he/she reads “the target text as an independent text to ensure it complies with current writing standards and the explicit or implicit requirements of the initiator. The person reviewing a text according to this procedure plays the role of “the first reader” and assesses the translated text from “the target audience’s point of view” (p. 172).

Target readership assessment has been tackled by studies empirically as a form of either self-revision or other revision in the translation process (Mossop, 2007, p. 12). Ipsen and Dam (2016) studied the link between revision procedure and quality in terms of detecting errors which involved subjects that revised translations with access to source texts, in other words, they performed “other revision”. The results of their study revealed that the comparative revision of source text and target text alone is not a good option.

Tabrizi (2022) investigated the dominant methods for translation evaluation of undergraduate students in final translation tests at Iranian universities. Tabrizi (2022) stated that the evaluation of a translated text as a finished product has often been accused of being a subjective process and argued that measuring the quality of translation is a subjective process that relies highly on human judgments. In other words, the main difficulty associated with translation evaluation is that it is often a very subjective exercise, even though there is little room for subjectivity in the translation classroom.

Both Kasperavičienė and Horbačauskiénė (2020) and Ipsen and Dam (2016) illustrate that the term other-revision is sometimes interchangeably used with the term revision (which refers to the process when a person other than the translator corrects typographical, factual, logical, accuracy or other errors, if any, in order to improve the quality of the translated text. The study conducted by Kasperavičienė and Horbačauskiénė investigated the perceptions of translation students on revision and other revision and tested their revision competence. Furthermore, Kasperavičienė and Horbačauskiénė (2020, pp. 130-131) found that translation students identified revision competence as being very beneficial. However, their findings revealed that in self-revision students’ attention was focused on “language related issues” whereas in other-revision students emphasized the significance of interpersonal skills related to critical thinking, research and information mining”. Kasperavičienė and Horbačauskiénė (2020, p. 118) conclude that “research-based know how in the training of the revision competence is still under-developed”. They further add that other revision could be carried out by a second translator or a non-translator (i.e., involves monolingual revision of the translated text only) (p. 118). Their study concluded that “The translation competence and the revision competence are undoubtedly highly interconnected” (2020, p. 130).

In terms of studies on English–Arabic translation quality Assessment, Al-Qinai (2000, p. 499) proposed an “eclectic practical model” which is a textually based assessment model of TTs. In his study, he adopts the parameters proposed by House (1981), Newmark (1988) and Hatim and Mason (1990) and highlights additional parameters. The parameters Al-Qinai (2000, p. 499) proposes in his model of TT quality assessment, tested on the analysis of TTs in advertising, include: textual typology (i.e., “the linguistic and narrative structure of ST and TT, textual function”), formal correspondence, coherence, cohesion, text pragmatics, lexical properties, and grammatical and syntactical equivalence. Al-Qinai (2000, p. 499) emphasizes that “the assessment of a translated text seeks to measure the degree of efficiency of the text with regard to the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic function of ST within the cultural frame” of both the source language and target language. Apart from his proposed model, he clearly emphasizes the shortcomings of his and

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other models of assessment in lacking input from target readers. In fact Al-Qinai (2000) considers target readers as “the yardstick against which the success or failure of translation is measured” (p. 517).

Agriani et al. (2018) investigated errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar with a target readership assessment approach that consists of three aspects: readability, accuracy, and acceptability. They considered the aspect of readability to “refer to the understanding of the target reader to the translation work”. As for acceptability, it was seen by Agriani et al. (2018) to be “the appropriateness of translation to norms, rules and cultures that exist in the target language”. However, they considered the aspect of accuracy to be “related to the correspondence of content or messages between Source language and Target language” (pp. 225-226).

Not many studies have tackled thoroughly how revision can be utilized in improving students’ translations quality. In this study, our interest is neither to evaluate nor assess errors according to the different models or measures proposed in previous research (Nida & Taber, 1969; House, 1981; Newmark, 1988; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Al Qinai, 2000) though these measures are to date adopted in many studies because they objectively analyze translation quality of both student and professional translators. This study is rather interested in whether target readership feedback can be utilized to assist student translators in improving the quality of their translation practice and revision competence. However, even though studies emphasized that the target readers who are the “ultimate end-users” are only interested in the quality of the product (Al-Qinai, 2000), no study has investigated whether target reader assessment could be carried out by fluent and linguistically competent target readers. Therefore, in this study, it is neither the researcher nor other translators, as proposed by previous studies, who carry out the quality assessment of the target text from a target reader’s perspective, i.e. revision. Along with the researchers’ ST and TT comparative analysis, this study includes the Arabic target readers’ perspective “which represents the end user” who carries out the assessment in an attempt to assist student translators in analyzing the TT. Furthermore, this study adopts those measures applicable in both researchers’ and target readership assessment mentioned in Al-Qinai (2000) and Agriani et al. (2018). The third aspect of accuracy proposed by Agriani et al. (2018) is understandably effective in researchers’ or second translator assessment when the target reader is comparing the ST with TT. However, it was excluded in this study, for the target readers as non-translators carrying out the target readership assessment and feedback obviously have no access to the ST to measure accuracy.

Therefore, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How does the target language readership assessment and feedback assist students in improving their self-revised translations?
2. What are the attitudes of subjects towards target readership assessment and its impact on the quality of their translations?

II. METHODS

A. Participants

The subjects in this study were 45 students enrolled in translation course (2) and nine fourth-year students (the target readers) enrolled in the Arabic department at Al-Hussein Bin Talal University (AHU). All participants are native speakers of Arabic. The translation student subjects were given several tasks of English–Arabic translation, prior to the study, to complete as part of the translation practice set out in the course. The target language readers selected have the linguistic and cultural competence to help identify errors in Arabic in areas such as lexical choices, grammar, and style.

B. Instruments

This study adopts two data collection instruments in order to detect the improvement in translation quality produced by the subject students in light of the target readership assessment. The first instrument was a translation task. The subjects were assigned the task of producing a high quality Arabic target text (TT) of the source text (ST). The selected ST assigned to subjects was an English general text, of 178 words, that described a sequence of series of events (see Appendix). Bell (1991), Gile (1995), Jakobsen (2002) and Ronowicz (2008) all emphasize that in order to produce a high quality translation, student translators should follow the three consecutive phases of translation: comprehension i.e. orientation, drafting, and end revision phase when producing their translation. In this study, the researchers incorporate these three phases in translation training in general and specifically in the course of training of this study’s subjects. However, the focus of this study is on the end revision phase, which entails that students check their translation draft for omissions, additions, appropriated lexical choices, grammatical, punctuation, and spelling mistakes.

The second data collection instrument was in the form of a questionnaire handed out to students upon resubmission of the final revised TTs. The researchers intended to elicit responses from the subjects on how target readership assessment impacted improving the quality of the TTs. The questionnaire consisted of six questions. The first question elicited responses from subjects on whether they followed the three phases of translation (i.e., orientation, drafting, and end revision) in order to achieve high quality translation before submitting the first version of the TT. Furthermore, the second question intended to elicit responses on whether students carefully checked the first version of the TT, prior to submission, for additions, omissions, lexical choices, grammar, spelling, and punctuation. As for the third question, the subjects were asked to specify the translation categories in which they received feedback from target readers which led to improving the first version of the TT. Finally, the fourth, fifth and sixth questions were intended to reveal whether the subjects felt target readership assessment assisted in improving the quality of the TTs and considered it a useful revision.
translation tool, as well as whether they would consider having target readers check the TTs they produce when practicing translation in the future.

C. Data Collection Procedures

The first data collection procedure adapted to measure improvement in the translation quality of TTs involved a two-phase comparative textual analysis of the STs and TTs. The initial phase involved the analysis of TTs submitted by subjects (the students of English) prior to the target readership assessment (the students of Arabic) and were only revised by students themselves (self-revision). The TTs were saved, assessed, and analyzed by the researchers following Baker’s (1992) classification at the three levels of text (i.e., word level, above word level, grammar, and textual level) for omissions, additions, inappropriate lexical choices, grammatical mistakes, and stylistic mistakes (Baker, 1992).

In the second phase, the TTs resubmitted for post target readership assessment to identify the degree of improvement on the quality of the TTs in terms of comparing the numbers of errors found in the TTs prior to target readership assessment with those found in TTs post the target readership assessment. Prior to conducting this phase, the target readers were briefed about the research and were asked to read the Arabic translations. They were instructed to assess the translations as independent Arabic written texts to ensure that translated texts are regarded exclusively from the target audience’s point of view to determine “how they will be received by the target culture” (Brunette, 2000, p. 172). They were also asked to identify problems of readability and comprehension, to detect violations of Arabic writing conventions in grammar, punctuation, and spelling, and to underline what may be considered errors, i.e. perceptible errors, in terms of naturalness and appropriateness (Farghal & Al-Hamly, 2004). The target readership assessment (i.e., other revision) was carried out according to the two aspects that define “high quality translation: acceptability, and readability” (Agriani et al., 2018, p. 225). Accordingly, taking into consideration the type of errors found in the self-revised TTs submitted by subjects, the checklist below was developed and given to the target readers:

- Inappropriate lexical choices in relation to context (e.g., synonyms, collocation, proper nouns)
- Non comprehensible parts
- Grammatical mistakes (e.g., word order, pronouns, agreement, etc.)
- Mistakes in punctuation, connectives, and spelling.

The checklist along with five translations was given to each of the nine target readers. The researchers explained the checklist to the target readers. Therefore, the target readership assessment was carried out according to the standards of Arabic editing and writing taking into account any mistakes that might hinder the comprehension or the smooth reading of the target text.

The final phase of data collection was group discussions. One to one discussions between the groups of subjects and the target language readers of the TT were carried out to give feedback and discuss the errors found. The discussions were held with no interference from the researchers. Then, the students were asked to resubmit the translations after taking into consideration the feedback they received from the target language readers. The final versions of the translations were analyzed again to track changes that subjects made on their translations. Finally, the subjects were also asked to answer a short questionnaire to assess their attitudes towards target readership assessment and its impact on improving the quality of the TTs.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Target Readership Feedback and Translation

In order to answer the first research question in this study on how target language readership assessment assists students in improving their translations and how these translations improve after the target language readership feedback, a comparative textual analysis between the ST and the 45 TTs submitted and self-revised by subjects was carried out. The purpose of the first analysis was to identify the most frequent translation errors in the subjects’ TTs. The most frequent types of translation errors were found in lexical choices, grammar, and style. Three types of lexical choice errors were identified which were in the use of collocations, synonyms, and proper nouns. In terms of grammar, the errors found were those of word order, number agreement, and pronouns. As for stylistic errors, the most frequent errors were in punctuation and spelling. After the subjects received target readership feedback on their TTs and resubmitted their revised translations, another analysis was carried out to compare and track the improvement in correcting the identified translation errors in the first self-revised version of the TTs.

The results found in terms of comparing the total number of translation errors committed in each category mentioned above, as a result of the two phase analysis of both TTs, are presented in Table 1 below.
The results reveal that the most prominent translation errors found in the subjects’ TTs prior to the target readership assessment were evident in the translation of the five collocations ‘black Friday’, ‘keyhole’, ‘downstairs’, ‘lecture plan’, and ‘bad ones’. For example, the culture specific collocation ‘black Friday’ in the ST ‘it was Friday 13th – Black Friday’ was mistranslated by the majority of subjects, with 43 errors, through literal translation as ‘Al-Jumaa AlSawadaa: Black Friday’, and ‘Jummat Al-Shu’m: Cursed Friday’. Other mistranslations appeared in the form of distortion as ‘Al-Jumma Al-Bydaa: White Friday’ which was due to confusion with ‘Black Friday’ at the end of November which marks shopping season. The ST context of ‘Friday the 13th’ clearly shows the negative connotation it holds. However, in Arabic culture, ‘Friday’ is a religious sacred day and associating negativity to this day is not acceptable in the target culture. Since it does not collocate with ‘cursed’ nor ‘Black’, the mistranslations reflect a gap in the subjects’ cultural competence (Asiri & Metwally, 2020) which, in turn, led to what Ababneh (2019) describes as “confusing cultural terms” (p. 128). The findings clearly illustrate the effect target readers had in clarifying the ramifications of using the incorrect collocation through highlighting the cultural unacceptability of such collocations, therefore led to the improvement of the revised translations in which the negativity was indirectly shifted from ‘Friday’ and resulted in an acceptable translation as ‘Friday 13th – a Bad day’. It is clear that target readers input assisted subjects in rethinking their translations whether in terms of target culture acceptability or the realization of miscomprehension as in “White Friday”. Evidently, the number of errors in translating this collocation decreased to two errors.

As for the second most problematic collocation, the improvement in subjects TTs was evident. In fact, the number of errors found in translating ‘keyhole’ which amounted to 39 errors dropped to three errors. Target readership assessment had a significant impact on subjects’ improvement in this culturally bound collocation. Interestingly, the results revealed that mistranslations of ‘keyhole’ in the analyzed TTs were unanimously the result of literal translation as in ‘Thoqab Al-Muftaah: the key’s hole’. It appears that the target reader feedback assisted subjects in realizing that in Arabic the correct collocation would be ‘Thoqab Al-baab: the door’s hole’ to capture the intended meaning of the ST ‘he noticed that the keyhole was covered by a thick spider web’.

It is clear from the findings that student subjects struggled with translating the other three other collocations (i.e., downstairs, lecture plan, and bad ones). Apparently, comprehending collocations in the ST and producing correct collocations in the TT requires “cultural knowledge, more so than linguistics and semantic knowledge” (Mahdi & Yasin, 2015, p. 64). The mistranslations that occurred in the TTs were 20 errors in literally translating ‘downstairs’ as ‘asfalaldaraj: down the stairs’; 17 errors in literally translating ‘lecture plan’ as ‘khatatatalmuhathara: lecture syllabus’; 14 errors in literally translating ‘bad ones’ which refers to ‘Friday the 13th’ in the ST as ‘alsayahokhra: bad others’. The three produced collocations which appeared as unnatural collocates to the target readers were all corrected in the revised translations in which subjects were successful in both capturing the intended meaning of the original collocations and in providing natural collocates in the TTs.

The target readership assessment helped subjects understand that collocations “reveal the naturalness and cohesiveness of the text” which is a requirement for producing a high quality translation (Mahdi & Yasin, 2015, p. 64).

2. **Improvement in Translating Synonyms**

The results revealed that the total number of errors found in translating the four words, consecutively as they appeared in the ST, ‘had’, ‘study’, ‘dust’, and ‘petrol’ was a total of 109 errors of incorrect choice of synonyms. However, the target readership assessment proved relatively effective in which the number of errors was apparently reduced to 20 errors. For example, wrongful choices of synonyms in translating the word ‘had’ in the ST ‘after Eddie had a cup of coffee’ were evident in employing the inappropriate synonym ‘tanawal: ate’ in 25 TTs. It appears that the subjects based their choices on wrongful contextual assumptions of the ST that is assuming the synonyms can be used “interchangeably in any context” (Bell, 1991, p. 91). Unlike English, Arabic distinguishes between having food and having drinks through the synonym ‘ihtasa: drank’. Target readers’ revision resulted in the correct choice of synonym in all 25 revised TTs. Similarly, the word ‘study’ in the ST ‘he went up to the study to get a book’ was translated using

---

**Table 1: Comparative Analysis of Translation Errors Found in the Subjects TTs (Self-Revision) and the Errors Found After the Target Readership Assessment and Feedback**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of translation error</th>
<th>Number of translation errors in TTs (self-revision)</th>
<th>Number of translation errors after target readership assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lexical choices</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocations</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonyms</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper nouns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender agreement</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Style</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
unacceptable synonyms (30 errors) as ‘lilderasah: to study’ and ‘ghurfat al-derasah: room for studying’. The inappropriate synonyms were identified by the target readers as they seemed culturally odd choices, for in Arabic the ‘study’ in a house is referred to as ‘ghurfat al-makteb: office room’. The improved versions recorded no errors in employing the correct synonym of the two words; in fact, the TTs clearly showed that the correct choice of synonym was contextually appropriate to the TT culture.

Moreover, choosing the appropriate synonym for translating the word ‘dust’ in the ST ‘he decided to dust the study after getting back from work’ seemed to be the most problematic for the subjects. The results revealed that 40 TTs mistakenly employed what Baker (1992) refers to as the “general word” instead of choosing the appropriate “specific word” (pp. 26-27). The subjects seemed to have resorted to selecting the readily general meaning of ‘younathaf: clean’ rather than selecting the appropriate specific meaning of ‘yanfud: dust’ when the cleaning involves dust in Arabic. The target readership assessment assisted the subjects in improving the revised TTs in that the choice of the correct synonym was 100% in the 40 TTs. Another evident improvement in selecting appropriate synonyms, as a result of target readers’ feedback, was in the translation of the words ‘petrol’ and ‘had’. The word ‘petrol’ was transliterated in 14 TTs as ‘betrol: petrol’, whereas in the revised 14 TTs it was translated as ‘Wughood: fuel’ which is the appropriate synonym specific to cars according to the context of the ST.

The findings coincide with Aqel’s (2019) conclusion that “translating synonyms” is “determined by the context” and that differences between the two languages “stem from the cultural variations” (p. 41). The improvement in the quality of selecting appropriate synonyms in the revised TTs is a clear indication that target readers assisted in endorsing the importance of considering TT’s contextual appropriateness in the selection of synonyms.

3. Improvement in Translating Proper Nouns

In the data analyzed for the translation of proper nouns, the only two proper names evident in the ST were ‘Allen’ and ‘Eddie’. The translation errors found concerning these two names in the TTs were in the form of incorrect transliteration. In specific, the findings show that 25 TTs provided incorrect phonetic transcription of ‘Eddie’ as ‘Aydee’, which matches the same phonetic transcription of the Arabic word ‘Aydee: hands’. Similarly, the proper name ‘Allen’ was incorrectly transliterated in 19 TTs as ‘Al-an: now’. The subjects were trained in class on how to translate proper names through correct phonetic transcription using proper Arabic diacritics to avoid hindering the smooth reading of the translations for TT readers. The errors in translating proper nouns could be attributed to negligence and lack of research skills on behalf of the student translators (Dweik & Al-Sayyed, 2016) which, in turn, led to compromising the smooth reading of the TT which is an integral part of producing high quality translations. It is evidently clear that the target readership assessment picked up on those errors as the TT did not make sense with the incorrect renditions. However, the improved renditions showed that the subjects double checked their phonetic transcription, based on target readers’ feedback, and managed to produce correct transliteration employing the correct diacritics for both proper names as well as employing brackets to make it clear that it is a foreign name to avoid confusion with similar Arabic words sharing the similar phonetic transcription.

Interestingly, the feedback of the target readers in the case of proper nouns seemed to have shown the subjects how serious the ramifications of incorrect transliteration may have on the target reader. Typically, students revise their translations as part of their end revision phase in the translation process and do not pick up on such errors because they have access to the ST and overlook the fact that the TT should read well for the target reader causing no ambiguity that may hinder comprehension.

(b). Improvement in Grammar Use

The findings in this study regarding grammatical errors committed in the TTs fall in line with the findings of Jannah et al. (2022) in that students tended to follow the word order of the ST and therefore “produce sentences that are not in accordance with the target language” (p. 9). Saraireh (2014, p. 203) rightly pointed out, through analyzing grammatical errors in students’ translations, that “competence in the SL and TL grammatical systems is “extremely vital for the process of translation” in order to produce correct TTs. In class, subjects are taught the grammatical differences between English and Arabic, and they are specifically trained on how to change the word order when translating into Arabic (i.e., verb-subject-object). The findings indicated that the subjects’ errors were namely in word order (90 errors), gender agreement (75 errors), and use of pronouns (50 errors).

Failure among translation students to follow the word order of the target language according to Al-Jarf (2007) is attributed to their “inability to recognize the difference between English and Arabic word orders” as well as their “inability to examine the syntactic context” of the ST and not neglect the “syntactic shift” required in the TT (p. 307). Evidently, the incorrect word order hindered target readership comprehension in what appeared to be a foreign structure in the TTs. Taking into account that the target readers major in Arabic language, the feedback given on word order was constructive and had an evident impact on the revised translation in which grammatical errors in word order were all corrected by the subjects.

Gender agreement and pronouns in terms of errors were to some degree interrelated in cases where subjects mistakenly miscomprehended the proper noun ‘Allen’ in the ST as a female. Therefore, the TTs reflected inconsistent gender references, through inflected and independent pronouns, to the same proper noun. For example, ‘his’ and ‘him’ in the ST ‘so he had Allen, his neighbor, push-start it. He thanked him for the great help’ were mistranslated as
‘Jarataoha: her neighbor’ in some cases and as ‘shakrahah: thanked her’ in other cases. The inconsistency was evident when subjects got the first pronoun correct and failed in the other and vice versa. This, in turn, caused confusion for the target reader trying to make sense of which is the correct reference as the pronouns resulted in gender agreement errors in the inflected words showing reference. It should be noted that other types of agreement, such as number agreement, were excluded from the analysis as no errors appeared in TTs concerning the use of these types of agreement.

Full comprehension of the ST in which pronoun references are correctly identified should have avoided subjects committing such and similar mistakes. Lack of linguistic competence and revision could be the main factors contributing to making such errors. However, the role of target readers in highlighting the inconsistencies and incorrect gender agreement forms proved effective, for the revised TTs were clear of errors in pronouns and gender agreement. The subjects were apparently reminded by the target readers that there are rules that govern the use of pronouns and agreement and have an impact on the cohesion and coherence of the TTs. This clearly falls in line with Al-Jarf’s (2000, p. 13) findings in that the “mastery of the agreement system in standard Arabic can be improved by improving the teaching-learning situation”.

It should be noted that some errors of unjustified omissions and additions were present in subjects’ TTs which were mainly due to omitting/ adding prepositions or due to lack of comprehension resulting in unnecessary additions or omissions. Apparently, target readers uncovered that something was missing in some TTs in what seemed to be incomprehensible to them. So, alarming the subjects of parts being missing or unclear led them to go back and compare the ST with the TT to compensate for the omission or rethink the translation choices in case of additions.

(c). Improvement in Punctuation Marks and Spelling

The ST, as mentioned before, is a paragraph that reports a sequence of events. Subjects have received translation training on similar text type in terms of style prior to the task assigned for the purpose of this study. Interestingly, subjects were to a high degree successful in employing appropriate connectives in the TTs since Arabic style in listing events requires connectives. The 300 errors found in the subjects’ self-revised translations were mainly in wrongful use of full stops which violates Arabic style in narrating a sequence of events that requires using a comma followed by ‘and’ as a connective. So, due to the differences “between punctuation systems and their functions in both English and Arabic, students commit errors” which resulted in hindering comprehension for the target readers (Al-Khalil, 2022, p. 87). The target readers easily picked up on all punctuation errors which were a clear reflection of the ST punctuation marks as they seemed odd for Arabic writing style. Consequently, all errors reported in punctuation were corrected in the final translations submitted after the target readership feedback.

Spelling is a key functional aspect of writing and poor spelling in TTs can hinder and interrupt smooth readability for the target reader (Agriani, 2018, p. 227). The analysis revealed only 60 instances of spelling mistakes in the TTs and all were corrected as a result of target readership feedback. The mistakes were mainly in the use of the diacritic ‘hamza’ which represents a glottal stop over the letter ‘A’ in Arabic. Other spelling mistakes included using ‘taamafTuHah’ instead of ‘taamarbuTaH’ and ‘Haa’ instead of ‘taamarbuTaH’ with ‘sukoon’ at the end of words. These letters sound the same and therefore constitute a difficulty even for native speakers of Arabic in writing. However, these errors could have been avoided by the subjects through paying attention to the presence or absence of final diacritical marks as ‘taskeen’. The feedback given to subjects on these errors resulted in correcting them all in the final translation versions.

B. Attitudes Toward Target Readership Feedback

To answer the second research question, a statistical analysis was performed to determine the responses regarding the attitudes of participants towards target readership assessment and its impact on the quality of their translations. In general, the results revealed that the sample had a positive attitude towards target readership assessment feedback and its impact on improving the quality of their TTs. Receiving direct feedback from the readers is an effective revision tool for any translation task since it enhances the quality of TTs. Furthermore, it increases the translators’ awareness of target language conventions and codes as well as their tendency to make common mistakes. The results presented in Table 2 below shows the percentages of positive responses for each item. The responses to items 1 and 2 indicate that the majority of the English sample followed the three phases of translation and rechecked their TTs for any possible errors, to produce high quality TTs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You followed the three phases of translation (i.e., orientation, drafting, and revision) to produce a high quality translation of your translation task.</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The translation you submitted to the target readers was carefully checked for omissions, additions, lexical choices, grammar, spelling, and punctuation before submission.</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The target readership feedback on your translation improved your final draft of the translation.</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You would consider having target readers of Arabic read your English-Arabic translation to check your translations on the future.</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Target readership assessment can be considered a useful revision tool to produce high quality translations.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The study sample had the opportunity to have their TTs revised by Arabic language experts. The target readers’ feedback addressed different types of errors using the checklist provided to them, which covered all possible types. Table 3 below shows the types of errors and the percentages of commonly committed mistakes. This study sample examined the types of errors and highlighted the Arabic target readers’ feedback in their TTs. Most errors were grammatical (81%), spelling related and punctuation errors (75%) considering the differences between Arabic and English grammar and writing styles. Other errors were found in synonymy (67%), omissions and additions (65%), and proper nouns (53%). Moreover, feedback highlighted collocational errors (75%), emphasizing a lack of awareness of cultural differences. Previous findings regarding the target readership feedback provide clear evidence of its effective role as an assistive tool in enhancing the quality of TTs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The target readership feedback revealed translation mistakes in:</th>
<th>Frequencies (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Grammar</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Collocations</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Synonymy</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Proper nouns</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Spelling and punctuation</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. others (additions and omissions)</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no doubt that self-revision is required as a phase of producing quality TTs, however, Borg (2018, p. 31) examined the effect of self-revision on TTs and found that “translator’s self-revisions tend to bring the target text closer to the source text, in other words they literalize the translation”. Therefore, employing a fresh look procedure in the form of target readership feedback, as shown in this study, can enhance the quality of the TTs in terms of accuracy, acceptability and readability.

IV. CONCLUSION

The aim of this empirical study was to identify the effect target readership assessment and feedback had on improving the quality of subjects’ self-revised translations. The findings evidently illustrated the improvement through the number of corrections undertaken by subjects as a result of implementing the target readership feedback. This was further confirmed through the subjects’ positive responses to target readership feedback. Improvement in TTs was evident in lexical choices, grammar, punctuation and spelling. The analysis of the improved TTs revealed high accuracy, acceptability, and readability due to target readership feedback resulting in what could be considered as high quality translations (Agriani et al., 2018).

Utilizing target readership feedback as part of translation training not only assists in improving translation quality but also gives students the chance to have access to the target reader who lies at the other end of the translation process and represents the target language and culture. The importance of implementing such revision procedures in translation training has also been stressed by Kasperavičienė and Horbačauskienė (2020, pp. 125-126) as they have found that students highly value the effect “other revision”, i.e., target readership assessment, has on improving word choices, grammar, punctuation and spelling in the TTs. Therefore, further analysis on how target readership assessment and feedback improve students’ translation performance in other translation areas not covered by this study would be beneficial. Furthermore, a longitudinal study with the same subjects undergoing translation training that implements target readership feedback could give useful implications on how it could be structured as part of translation training. From a pedagogical perspective, the researchers of this study recommend that further studies should be conducted to examine the effect of constructive target readership feedback on the quality of translating other specialized STs such as legal, literary, etc.

APPENDIX

Source Text

It was Friday 13th – “Black Friday”. After Eddie had a cup of coffee downstairs, he went up to the study to get a book. He noticed that the keyhole was covered by a thick spider web. He decided to dust the study after getting back from work. And, sure enough, when he got in the car and started the engine it would not work, so he had his neighbour Allen to push-start it. Then (as he started driving) he noticed that he was also very low on petrol. However, he decided to continue the journey: he didn’t want to be late for class. In addition, when he finally got to the university, he could not find a parking space and, consequently, he was late for class. It was then that he realised he had forgotten his watch. This was not such a big problem, since he could ask the students what the time was. But next he discovered that his lecture plan was missing from the folder -surely, this was going to be one of the bad ones.

(Modified extract adopted from Ronowicz, 2007, Introduction to translation theory and practice -course notes, Macquarie University, Sydney).
REFERENCES


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Promoting Saudi University Students’ Experience Through Peer Assessment Practice

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Abstract—Peer assessment (PA) has received growing attention recently due to its great impact on students’ autonomy and growth (Bryant & Carless, 2010; Patri, 2002). It requires students to be critical in evaluating their peers’ performance, engage in a discussion about their work, and eventually make improvements. This activity helps to create a collaborative learning environment. Despite being of such importance, peer assessment has still been overlooked by many university teachers, who remain hesitant to put it into practice. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate, through the perceptions of undergraduate applied linguistics students, the contribution and efficiency of using PA in enhancing the student’s learning experience and skills. The researcher implemented PA practice in the classroom in which 16 university-level Saudi female students were asked to assess other students’ tasks and then to write a reflection about their own experience in the PA practice and how it influenced their performance in the course of digital linguistics. The data analysis revealed that students’ participation in the PA significantly promotes students’ classroom engagement and improves their critical thinking, writing, and analysis skills. The study concludes with suggestions for effectively applying peer evaluation practices in different university courses.

Index Terms—peer assessment, students’ reflection, applied linguistics, writing quality, analysis skills

I. INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic landscape of education, the learning setting is undergoing a profound transformation. Education experts believe that the traditional classroom model must go beyond its conventional borders and must enhance the students’ participation for the progress of instruction. Classrooms where students are passively receiving information, often fail to spark intellectual curiosity, foster critical thinking, and ignite a genuine passion for knowledge. Kember (2000) asserted that conventional teaching methods rely heavily on passive learning and rote memory and lack practice for critical thinking. Thus, students need to be physically and mentally present and attentively engaged in their education (Abebe & Deneke, 2015). For this reason, modern pedagogical models emphasize the importance of creating an interactive classroom setting that not only captivates students’ attention but also empowers them as active participants in their own learning experience, preparing them for the ever-evolving world where the ability to think critically and to evaluate information are essential skills for success.

Peer assessment (PA), a pedagogical approach in which students evaluate their peers’ work, has been highly recognized in education for its potential to promote active engagement in classrooms. In this approach, teachers are not the main players in classroom events, but they share the ground with their students in terms of assessment and involvement (Ko et al., 2015). Such an interactive class environment generates an intellectual dialogue between students and their teachers and promotes collaborative learning among students. This study will explore the efficacy of implementing PA into higher education in Saudi Arabia and how it influences applied linguistics students’ skills and learning experiences.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Peer assessment, also known as peer evaluation, peer review, and peer feedback, plays a major role in education. It can be defined as a “communication technique through which learners engage in discussions about performance and standards” (Liu & Carless, 2006, p. 280). More specifically, it is the students’ participation in qualitative evaluation through providing oral or written feedback on their peers’ performance and in quantitative evaluation through providing peer grading (Topping, 1998, 2009, 2017). Over the past four decades, scholarly discussions have delved into the influence of peer assessment on students’ learning in a wide range of educational levels such as primary (Brakel, 1990), high school (Almahasneh & Abdul-Hamid, 2019), undergraduate (Ion et al., 2016) and post-graduate (Simpson & Clifton, 2016). In general, it has been argued that peer assessment is commonly used as a successful educational tool across various learning levels. Some studies have reported the positive impact of PA on students’ motivation and engagement (McGarr & Clifford, 2013; Xu et al., 2022). Other studies have revealed the efficiency of using peer assessment in increasing responsibility for students and improving their learning experience (Papinczak et al., 2007). The significance of PA has also been recognized in identifying the student’s strengths and weaknesses (Baniabdellrahman, 2010).
The literature has discussed the application of peer assessment strategy in different contexts from different aspects, including a specific course or subject, modes of teaching (offline or online), the formative or summative manner, the learning outcome or objective, and the type of work being assessed. For instance, a questionnaire-based study by Loureiro and Gomes (2013) examined the perceptions of 16 university students in Portugal about the contribution of online PA practices to higher education. The results revealed a lack of PA training among students as well as a positive impact of these activities on student motivation and cognitive, metacognitive, and digital skills. Moreover, a mixed-methods study in the UK done by Bloxham and West (2004) investigated how PA activities influenced the performance of 43 university-level students in sociology and found that the students developed self-regulation skills through their engagement in these activities.

Similarly, the study of Kuyyogsuy (2019) conducted a mixed-method study to examine the effects of peer feedback on the English writing ability of 21 undergraduate English learners in Thailand. The participants appreciated the PA experience for improving their writing ability in English, creating a collaborative learning environment, and developing critical thinking skills. In the Saudi context, Alsehibany (2021) conducted a similar mixed-methods study to examine Saudi female students’ attitudes towards peer feedback in writing classes. Her study revealed that students showed a positive reaction towards PA practice, and they said it improved their writing quality. Another study on peer assessment is the study of Hasnani and Mubarak (2020). It examined the role of PA on the development of speaking skills among 30 university students learning English for Specific Purpose (ESP) in Indonesia. It argued that peer assessment is effective in enhancing the oral skills of ESP students. Another study in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is the study done by Ritonga and his colleagues in 2022 on the impact of PA on enhancing students’ reading comprehension, reading motivation, and vocabulary building. In this research, 60 Iranian EFL students took part in pre-tests and post-tests, and the results showed evidence of the advantages of using PA to improve the different learning skills of EFL students. The role of PA in the EFL context has been largely investigated in previous literature to highlight its effectiveness in promoting students’ language skills and learning experiences.

On the other hand, some studies have expressed concern about incorporating PA in the classrooms as it creates a challenging experience and uncomfortable atmosphere for students (Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001; Praver et al., 2011). Liu and Carless (2006), for example, surveyed 1740 students and 460 instructors involved in PA and concluded that PA of a summative nature can be questioned in terms of peers’ perceived expertise and therefore is deemed to be ineffective. Another issue raised regarding the use of PA is students’ reluctance to evaluate peers and to trust their assessment. These issues can be avoided through the instructors’ involvement in reviewing the PA report to ensure the peer assessor’s objectivity and improve its accuracy (Carnell, 2016). Other studies (e.g., Saito, 2008; Liu & Li, 2014) underscored the importance of training students on providing peer assessment and its impact on improving the quality of feedback and the quality of the final draft of the task being assessed. Despite its well-established recognition as a fruitful strategy to develop students’ evaluative competencies and enhance students’ engagement, peer assessment has still been disregarded by many teachers and educational institutions. Therefore, this study seeks to examine the implementation of peer assessment as an education tool for applied linguistics students in Saudi Arabia and how it affected their performance in the course of digital linguistics. Notwithstanding, most PA studies have concentrated on the impact of PA on writing and in the EFL/ESP contexts. Besides, the majority have primarily focused on quantitative data analysis. For this reason, the current study aims to contribute to the literature by providing insights based on the students’ self-reflection as being involved in PA practice.

III. RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTIONS

The study examines peer assessment of written linguistic analysis among Saudi undergraduate students and explores to what extent peer assessment plays a role in enhancing students’ skills. It mainly attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How does implementing peer assessment affect the learning experience of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia?
2. To what extent, does peer assessment improve Saudi applied linguistics students’ critical, analysis and writing skills?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Study Design

The study employed an exploratory qualitative research design to examine the role of peer assessment practice in enhancing Saudi students’ engagement and academic achievement in undergraduate university programs. The study consisted of three phases of data collection.

B. Study Participants

Sixteen female undergraduate students of applied linguistics took part in this research. They were in the third year of their Bachelor’s degree studying at Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University in Saudi Arabia. The PA activities were implemented in the course of digital linguistics. It is a 12-week elective course offered by the Program of Applied
Linguistics. It allows students to understand, analyze, and grasp the manifestations of language in the digital world. In this course, students learn how to represent, analyze, and disseminate linguistic data online. Since this course needed more engagement from the students, the researcher implemented PA practice to examine its impacts on the student’s engagement and performance in the course.

C. Study Instruments

The study followed three phases of data collection:

1. The first phase: students were asked to form groups of 3-4 and to analyze digital data on a chosen topic. After completing this task, the teacher-researcher assessed the students’ work based on a specific rubric. In the next class, each group was asked to read the task written by two groups and evaluate their work using the same rubric. The teacher explained to the students the different assessment criteria in the rubric, including task achievement, writing quality, coherence and unity, organization and presentation, and finally creativity and novelty. In their peer assessment, students had to be specific about peer grading and include details about the group’s performance on each criterion. After they completed their peer evaluation, the teacher shared with them how she evaluated their work to help them see their performance in the evaluation activity. This activity aimed to train the students to evaluate written tasks and get familiar with using rubrics. Their peer evaluation in this phase was completed as a group activity to make students feel more comfortable and enjoy the activity. Their grade in this task was allocated to all group members based on the teacher’s assessment and used as a measurement for students’ scores improvement or reduction, in the data analysis.

2. The second phase: the students were asked to work individually on a project that involved analyzing digital content from another digital platform. After submitting their projects, the teacher randomly assigned one peer project to each student to review and assess using a slightly different rubric to meet the project’s requirements. Their assessment was based on specific evaluation criteria explained to the students, including task achievement, organization, writing quality, and analysis. It also involved writing a critique of their peer’s performance in the form of a short paragraph. Their critical feedback started with an overall evaluation of the work and then moved into the details of the strengths and weaknesses of the projects. Writing such feedback created an opportunity for students to learn from each other and to enhance their ability to identify strengths and weaknesses in their work and that of others. Each student then handed her feedback to the corresponding student author to read. The students were also allowed to discuss their feedback with each other. To minimize the tension among students, the students were assured that their evaluation in the first and second phases would not affect their score in the tasks but would be used as part of the student’s participation.

3. The third phase: the students were asked to write a self-reflection about their own experience in the PA practice and how it influenced their writing quality and critical and analysis skills. This reflection was designed by the researcher with 8 questions used for exploring students’ opinions about the integration of PA activities into their classrooms. This phase represents the primary research instrument.

V. RESULTS

Results from the data analysis are presented in two themes responding to the two research questions: students’ experience of peer assessment and the impact of peer assessment on students’ performance and skills.

A. Students’ Experience of Peer Assessment

The majority of students valued their participation in peer assessment and described it as “fun”, “great”, “interesting” and “full of information”. Most of them emphasized the role of PA in enhancing their evaluative competence, getting “constructive feedback” and identifying their strengths and weaknesses. For example, one wrote, “It was good and I learned from this experience that I should be very careful when I correct other assignments and to check if they follow the instructions”. Another student commented “My experience with peer assessment in the context of analyzing digital content assignments was generally positive. Peer assessment provides an opportunity for students to engage with the work of their peers and to provide constructive feedback that can help to improve the quality of their work”. Similarly, one reported PA “helps train the student based on assessment and learning different techniques for spotting mistakes and precision”. However, only a few students (i.e., three out of sixteen) described it as “challenging”. For example, one of the three students highlighted how being engaged in PA was “hard” at the beginning, and “then after reading over and over, it gets easier”. Another one expressed her negative reaction towards her participation in PA activities as she reflected “I did not like the way to correct the assessment to each other”. She also raised the issue of reliability in PA activities when she answered the question (what did you learn from being part of peer-evaluation/assessment?). Her answer was: “do not trust the other member, she will betray you. I learned how to evaluate others’ work”. This was the only negative answer to this question whereas the majority included positive comments like: “It is a skill that requires accuracy and revision”, “I learned to give my honest opinion”, “it helped me encourage self-reflection and improvement”, “evaluating my peers’ work made me think critically”, and “through this process, I was able to gain a deeper understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of my work, as well as the work of my peers”. Some students claimed how the inclusion of PA helped them learn from “the mistakes that have been repeated and that [they] have
come to know through [their] evaluation of colleagues”. In general, regardless of being challenging for some students, peer assessment was described as being a useful strategy for learning as it mainly develops the students’ evaluative competence and analytical skills.

B. Impact of Peer Assessment on Students’ Skills

Implementing PA activities in the course of digital linguistics has a statistically significant impact on promoting students’ performance in linguistic analysis. The student’s grades for the first and second tasks are presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Task 1 (out of 15)</th>
<th>Task 2 (out of 30)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>12.38</td>
<td>28.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>82.50 %</td>
<td>96.46 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the table, the average percentages of Task 1 and Task 2 are 82.50% and 96.46%, respectively. All the students who participated in this study increased their overall writing and analysis scores by at least 2 marks. This shows that students’ performance was improved after receiving PA practice. Moreover, the students were asked to reflect on the impact of PA on their writing quality, analysis, and critical thinking. Most of them considered PA practice as an effective strategy for improving their “analytical and critical thinking”, “writing style”, “grammatical accuracy”, “spelling” and critical evaluation. All the participants expressed their agreement on how receiving feedback on their tasks improves their skills and their grades. For instance, one student explained that “the feedback that I received helped me to better understand what was expected of me in terms of analysis and writing, and it gave me specific areas to focus on for improvement”. Another student confirmed that “my grades got better by taking the feedback into consideration”.

The students were also asked about the differences between giving and receiving feedback, and they expressed different opinions about the two experiences involved in peer assessment. One of them claimed:

“Giving and receiving feedback from peers are two different experiences. Giving feedback requires one to evaluate the work of others and provide constructive criticism while receiving feedback involves being open to criticism and using it to improve one’s work. Both experiences are valuable for developing skills in communication, critical thinking, and self-improvement, and they can help to improve the overall quality of work in a group setting.”

Some students also highlighted the value of participating in both experiences as they “can promote personal and professional growth”. Other students emphasized the efficiency of peer feedback in promoting students’ engagement, communication skills, and teamwork. Some students described the experience of receiving peer feedback as “new” and “hard” especially when the assessor-student lacks evaluative skills and does not give constructive feedback. However, the majority mentioned that giving feedback is much harder because it requires being able to criticize other’s work and take into account the different assessment criteria. Some also expressed the role of PA in fostering a sense of responsibility among students for contributing to their peers’ work.

In the final question, the students were asked about if they would suggest implementing PA in other courses. Two students claimed that the use of PA depends on the course and the tasks, and it should not be implemented in “midterms or papers that have a lot of grades. This is because it takes so much time and effort”. Another two students did not recommend using PA in other courses, arguing that “this affects the teacher's decision to take the appropriate grade for the student”. From their answers, it was clear that they were worried about their grades despite being reminded that their grades would not be affected by their peer feedback. However, the majority agreed on its usefulness for other courses. To give an example of their answers, one student wrote:

“I believe that implementing peer assessment in other courses would be valuable for developing skills in communication, critical thinking, and self-improvement. It can help to improve the overall quality of work and provide students with an opportunity to engage with the work of their peers and receive constructive feedback.”
Overall, most students were appreciative of the peer feedback and confirmed the major impact it had on the improvement of their performance and skills.

VI. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study support the idea that peer assessment can be a useful educational tool for raising student achievement, especially in programs requiring high critical and evaluative skills such as the Applied Linguistics Program. The study presents significant statistical evidence of the students’ increased performance in analyzing digital content as a result of being engaged in PA activities. Their active PA engagement, based on the students’ self-reflection, plays an imperative role in developing critical thinking, evaluative competence, and analytical skills. This fact is mentioned by several studies that pointed out the effectiveness of using PA activities in the classroom (e.g., Alsehibany, 2021; Hasnani & Mubarak, 2020). Such activities, as reported by students, have a positive impact on their writing quality and academic achievement.

The results indicate that despite being challenging, the interactive nature of PA practice ensures that students are mutually involved in the process of negotiation, communication, and evaluation. Taking part in both giving and receiving feedback creates a sustainable learning environment. It also fosters a sense of responsibility and commitment among students. Peer evaluation, as the results showed, gives the students more capacity to learn from each other and to control their education with the help of their peers. It also gives the teachers more time to maximize the students’ learning by enhancing their judging role in the classroom. As a teacher, the integration of peer evaluation gave me more time to work on planning lessons and designing learning activities. The findings of the current study are in line with Shen et al. (2020) who suggested the significance of PA in promoting the students’ autonomy and reducing the teachers’ role as the only source of knowledge and assessment.

While the findings generally yielded students’ acknowledgment of peer feedback on enhancing their learning experience, the findings also raised concern for a few students regarding its difficulty, accuracy, and reliability. Thus, as argued by the students and other researchers (e.g., Liu & Li, 2014), the use of PA can be promoted through training students about providing feedback and peer grading. The use of rubrics for PA helped provide clear guidance for the assessment criteria and grade distribution. This is supported by Singh and Tan (2017) who examined students’ perceptions of structured feedback and showed that the students believed that receiving guidelines is highly efficient. Moreover, the teachers’ engagement and supervision during the PA practice are essential for its success, not only to eliminate the interference of students’ interpersonal relationships but also to improve its accuracy and implementation. The teachers, as Zhao (2018) believed, also need to know how to implement PA activities in the classrooms and how they should be organized for maximum impact.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study confirmed the role of peer feedback in promoting the learning experience of Saudi undergraduate students in the Applied Linguistics Program. The findings demonstrated that the student’s academic achievement and class engagement enhanced in the course of digital linguistics due to the implementation of PA. The study also asserted that PA provides students with a great opportunity to develop their critical thinking, evaluative competence, and writing quality. By participating in PA, students can improve their communication skills as they need to articulate their thoughts clearly when providing feedback. This enhances their ability to express ideas effectively and engage in constructive discussions. They also learn to justify their opinions and evaluations based on objective criteria. By using PA, teachers can create a collaborative learning environment where students do not rely merely on them but will share the responsibility of providing feedback in the classrooms. This study raises several implications for teachers and researchers. Teachers should train their students to provide peer feedback as it expands the students’ knowledge and prepares them for the demands of today’s world. They should carefully consider the benefits and challenges of using PA in their specific context and create strategies to mitigate difficulties while maximizing learning outcomes. Educators should also make use of rubrics when integrating PA practice to facilitate the students’ experience. Providing clear and detailed assessment criteria helps students understand the quality and depth of assessments expected. Educators are highly encouraged to supervise the PA activities to ensure their accuracy and efficiency. Future studies may investigate faculty perspectives on the challenges and benefits of adapting PA in Saudi Arabia to provide a more holistic view of its impact. Other studies can explore the feasibility and reliability of PA activities in different contexts. Further investigation can also focus on the long-term impact of PA on student performance in different courses. To conclude, PA is not a one-size-fits-all approach, and its success depends on how it is designed and implemented to fit the distinctive dynamics of each classroom environment.

REFERENCES

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Linguistic Features of Bali Ecotourism Villages Advertisements and Their Influence on Tourist Visits

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Abstract—The study aims to describe the weaknesses and strengths of the linguistic features of ecotourism village advertisements and analyze their influence on tourist visits. The data were managed and analyzed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences Version 21 (SPSS, 21). The univariate and bivariate analyses were done with the help of the statistical method of descriptive frequency and binary logistic regression. The results showed that the weakness of linguistic features of Bali ecotourism villages advertisement included: a) the involvement of an expert in advertisement development, b) the attractiveness of the sentence structure, c) the appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice, and d) the use of interesting and suggestive figurative language. Its strengths lie in the other 7 components, namely: a) the accuracy of the language used, b) the harmonious composition of language & image, c) the accuracy of word diction, d) the attractiveness of advertising content, e) the ecotourism reflection of advertisement, f) the appropriateness of colour choice, and g) the use of simple promotion advertisements and highlighting the important parts. It also proved that linguistic features of advertisements significantly influenced the tourist visit.

Index Terms—Bali Ecotourism, linguistics features, language advertisement, language for tourism

I. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world tourism is a booming industry that boosts the economy. It creates thousands of jobs and develops infrastructure, as the establishment of developed parks and resorts, new airports, improved public areas, and advanced facilities would attract more tourists (UNWTO, 2023). Tourism promotes local culture and creates a cultural exchange between tourists (see Mowforth & Munt, 2016, 2019). However, the international tourism industry poses some environmental problems which get public attention. Most tourist destinations take pride in their places’ pristine beauty and the uniqueness of their culture, which become attractive escapes from the noisy urban life (see Weaver, 2001). However, due to materialism and consumerism, some places that used to be considered as “Paradise” become “Paradise Lost” due to environmental degradation (see Marcus, 2015). Therefore, ecotourism has become a trend. While mainstream tourism is concerned with economic development, which contributes to nature exploitation, ecotourism seeks to marry the goals of ecological conservation and economic development (see El-Dali, 2019).

The relationship between language and tourism has been the subject of numerous studies (e.g., Irimiea, 2018). Then, Labrador et al. (2014) found that rhetorical devices are crucial in promotional advertising. Advertising is a good illustration of the inventive application of persuasion techniques that may be shown through language (see also Kubro & Suyitno, 2019). On the other hand, Patpong (2009) used a systematic functional method to evaluate advertisements and found that one example of the persuasive use of language is the wording used in amulet advertisements. These studies revealed that language is crucial in tourism promotion. Through language, the destination establishes its desired image and describes the kind of experience tourists can look forward to. According to Dann (1996), persuasive language is social control in the tourism industry where the promoter’s goals are combined with the consumer’s associated pleasure requirement (see Irimiea, 2018).

While language is the essential medium for tourism promotion, such language can be a combination of verbal, visual, and auditory modes. The media plays a significant role in this multimodal society, particularly in business advertising (see Gorelova, 2014; Johannessen et al., 2010; Shariq, 2020; Vizcaíno, 2011). In this case, television, radio, newspapers, magazines, films, posters, brochures, websites, and social media are just the tools that tourist host destinations utilize to attract visitors. Some studies have been conducted on the role of promotional media such as film, tourism websites, TV commercials, social media, brochures and magazines in influencing and persuading the audience (see Trinadi et al., 2022; Gong & Tung, 2017; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Hvass & Munar, 2012; John & De’Villliers, 2020; Kulluvaara & Tornberg, 2003; Rehman et al., 2022; Salim et al., 2012).

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While discourse analysis is useful in analyzing the language of tourism advertising, eco-advertising is a unique form of language that can be examined from an eco-linguistics perspective (cf. Trinadi et al., 2022). According to Alexander and Stibbe (2014), Eco-linguistics studies how language affects the connections that maintain life among humans, other species, and the physical environment. It is normatively oriented toward maintaining the bonds that provide life to relationships. Eco-linguistics is thus concerned with language’s role in creating, sustaining, influencing, and destroying interactions between people, other living things, and the environment (Penz & Fill, 2022; Steffensen & Fill, 2014). While a number of studies have been conducted on the language of tourism advertising, research on eco-advertising is still scanty. This study attempts to contribute to the slim body of literature on eco-advertising and eco-linguistics (see Stöckl & Molnar, 2018). The growth of tourist villages in Bali is increasing rapidly. The data for August 2023 showed 294 tourist villages in Bali. A sharp increase compared to the number of 2019 only 194 tourist villages. Unfortunately, the rise in that number has not been matched by the high interest of domestic and foreign tourists in these tourist villages (BPS Provinsi Bali, 2022).

Based on the above background, this study aims to investigate: a) the linguistic features of advertisements of the ecotourism village in Bali; b) formulate their advertisement strengths and weaknesses; and c) analyze their influence on tourists’ visit.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on tourism advertisements has been studied widely. Trčková (2016) analyzed representations of nature in ecotourism advertisements. The study aims to identify how nature and the link between humans and nature are portrayed most frequently in the chosen ecotourism commercials. The analysis has shown that the analyzed adverts use a variety of discursive strategies to uplift nature and challenge the idea that humans rule it. Then, Magnini and Karande (2010) conducted an experimental investigation into using written smell references in ecotourism advertisements. This study aims to support the claim that including a written smell reference in ecotourism advertisements has a beneficial impact on the affective reactions of potential customers. Consumers’ affective reactions to an ecotourism commercial may be positively impacted by a written fragrance reference. In addition, the results revealed that gender did not play a role in influencing how the affective responses to a textual smell reference were felt.

Furthermore, Dorsey et al. (2004) examined advertising ecotourism on the Internet: commodifying environment and culture. This study evaluates the literature relating ecotourism to sustainable development and earlier studies demonstrating the historical commodification of cultures in travel advertisements for locations in underdeveloped nations. Print advertising also applies to online commercials. One empirical study on Malaysian ecotourism conducted by Ulfy et al. (2021) noted that social media advertising had an impact on eco-tourists there. The study’s goal is to examine the context of publicity’s informativeness and the value of its impact on ecotourism through advertising and service functioning. A conceptual framework has been proposed and practically tested for social media advertising in ecotourism. The empirical results show that an educational social media ad can successfully market a tourism-related good or service. As a result, social media advertising will be viewed more favorably, which will attract more visitors.

III. THEORETICAL BASIS

As mentioned previously, this research is addressing to analyze ecotourism advertising. Ecotourism, according to Weaver (2001), is a kind of nature-based travel that strives to be economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable while providing opportunity to enjoy and learn about the natural world or specific components of it. Similarly, Ceballos-Lascuráin (2003), ecotourism is defined as visiting relatively unspoiled or unpolluted natural areas with the intention of understanding, appreciating, and taking in the scenery, the wild plants and animals there, as well as any existing cultural representations (past and present) found there. According to Dorsey et al. (2004), tourism and ecotourism can be advertised into two types: Internet and traditional. In internet advertising, ecotourism is advertised on the Internet. In addition to many chat rooms, electronic bulletin boards, and news groups, there are now hundreds of home pages for travel service providers. While in traditional advertising, ecotourism is advertised in print, brochures, and postcards.

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

The study design is cross-sectional, where data is collected during 3 months, from February to April 2023. The population is 238 ecotourism villages in Bali Province which are distributed in 9 Regencies, 17 in Badung, 31 in Bangli, 26 in Karangasem, 75 in Buleleng, 6 in Denpasar, 25 in Tabanan, 19 in Kelungkung, 7 in Jemberana, and 32 in Gianyar. The samples were set to 150, much bigger than a minimal sample of 112 based on the Slovin Formula. The sample selection technique was proportionate to size random sampling, so a bigger number of samples would be selected in the regency with a bigger number of ecotourism villages. Data were collected by direct interviews based on previously validated and tested questionnaires. In the interview, the respondent was the chairman of the ecotourism village management committee or their representative. At the same time, the interviewer was a student in the second semester of the Linguistic Master Program at Warmadewa University. Studied variables include respondents’ vital data, the number of visitors within January 2023, and linguistic features of advertisement. Specifically, for the data on linguistic
features, the advertising photos that the interviewer took were then assessed by four expert panels for their correctness. The Likert Scale technique was applied to assess the expert panel’s perceptions. If the expert panel’s opinion strongly disagrees, it is given a value of 1; if it does not agree, it is a value of 2; if it agrees, it is a value of 3; and if it strongly agrees, it is a value of 4.

As known, the linguistic feature of advertisement is a composite variable, formed by 11 variables, namely: The involvement of expert in advertisement development; The accuracy of language used; The harmonious composition of language & image; The accuracy of word diction; The attractiveness of advertising content; The ecotourism reflection of advertisement; The appropriateness of color choice; the attractiveness of the sentence structure; The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice; and the attractiveness and suggestiveness of the figurative language used. The total sum values of the 11 forming variables are the value of the ads linguistic feature variable (see Atiya & Putra, 2023).

The collected data then were managed: firstly, examining the fulfilled questionnaire for its completeness; secondly, advising the interviewer to complete their uncompleted questionnaire by bringing it back to the field; thirdly, coding the completed questionnaire; lastly, entering and managing data in the computer by the help of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences Version 21 (SPSS, 21). The data was then analyzed univariately to see the frequency distribution of respondent characteristics, advertising linguistic features, and the strengths and weaknesses of advertisements. Bivariate was used to analyze the effects of advertisement on the tourists’ visit. Statistical analyses used were descriptive–frequency and binary logistic regression.

V. RESULTS

A. The Characteristics of Respondent and Linguistic Features of Advertisements

The number of ecotourism village administrators who were interviewed was 150 peoples, namely 89.3% (male) and 10.7% (female). As for their marital status, 91.3% were married, and 8.7% were single. Based on work experience in the tourism sector, most of them (61.3%) have no experience, and only 38.7% have experience. The age group was dominated by 73.3% middle-aged adults, 24.7% young adults and 2.0% old adults (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>Marital Status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young adult</td>
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<td>Old adult</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Experience in Tourism Sector</td>
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<td>60.7</td>
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<td>45.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the linguistic features of advertisement, it was found that 107 (71.3%) ecotourism villages did not use the help of a language expert when they developed advertisements, while those who used as many as 43 (28.7%). The advertisements with accurate language as much as 97 (64.7%), while 53 (35.3%) with not accurate language. Relating the harmony of languages and images, 66 (44.0%) used languages and images harmoniously, and 84 (56.0%) did not. As for the word diction, 60 (40.0%) were accurate, and 90 (60.0%) were not accurate; meanwhile, advertisements with attractive content, as much as 83 (55.3%), and 67 (44.7%) were not attractive. As for advertisements reflecting ecotourism, 61 (40.7%) were not reflected, and 89 (59.3%) were reflected. Of the ecotourism villages that were precise in selecting advertisement colors, as much as 68 (45.3%) and the other 82 (54.7%) were not precise. According to the structure of sentences, 90 (60.0%) were not interesting, while the other 60 (40.0%) were interesting. As for the accuracy, attractiveness, and decency of the word choice, 76 (50.7) were not accurate, not attractive, and not decent, and other 23.3% were accurate, attractive, and decent. Concerning the other 2 components, there are 121 (80.7%) advertisements containing expressive and suggestive figurative language, 28 (19.3%) with no expressive and suggestive figurative language, while there are 64 (42.7) that have a simple format and emphasize the things that important, while the other 86 (57.3) did not.
ancillary, activity, etc. (see Tables 4 and 5).

From those data, it can be concluded that the advertisement significantly influences tourist visits. Ecotourism villages

The use of interesting and suggestive figurative languages

The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice

The appropriateness of colour choice

The attractiveness of the sentence structure

The involvement of expert in Advertisement development

The accuracy of word diction

The attractiveness of advertising content

The ecotourism reflection of advertisement

The appropriateness of colour choice

The use of interesting and suggestive figurative languages

The use of simple promotion ads and highlight the important parts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Feature Components</th>
<th>Expert Panel Perception</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The involvement of expert in Advertisement development</td>
<td>107 (71.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accuracy of language used</td>
<td>53 (35.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The harmonious composition of language &amp; image</td>
<td>66 (44.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accuracy of word diction</td>
<td>60 (40.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attractiveness of advertising content</td>
<td>67 (44.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ecotourism reflection of advertisement</td>
<td>61 (40.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appropriateness of colour choice</td>
<td>68 (45.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attractiveness of the sentence structure</td>
<td>90 (60.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice</td>
<td>76 (50.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of interesting and suggestive figurative languages</td>
<td>121 (80.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of simple promotion ads and highlight the important parts</td>
<td>64 (42.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic feature</th>
<th>% Agreed</th>
<th>Strength</th>
<th>Weakness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The involvement of expert in Advertisement development</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accuracy of language used</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The harmonious composition of language &amp; image</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accuracy of word diction</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attractiveness of advertising content</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ecotourism reflection of advertisement</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appropriateness of colour choice</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attractiveness of the sentence structure</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of interesting and suggestive figurative languages</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of simple promotion ads and highlight the important parts</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is concluded that the weaknesses of linguistic features of Bali ecotourism village advertisement include: a) The involvement of experts in advertisement development; b) The attractiveness of the sentence structure; c) The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice; d) The use of interesting and suggestive figurative language, while the strength lies in the other 7 components, namely: a) The accuracy of the language used; b) the harmonious composition of language & image; c) The accuracy of word diction; d) the attractiveness of advertising content; e) The ecotourism reflection of advertisement; f) The appropriateness of color choice; g) The use of simple promotion ads and highlight the important parts.

C. The Influences of Linguistic Features of Advertisement to the Tourism Visits

In the context of looking for the influence, advertisement linguistic features act as an independent variable, and the number of tourist visits during January 2023 as dependent variables. The statistics used to prove this was binary logistic regression. However, before executing the analysis, a data transformation was carried out, in which the interval data of both variables were changed into categorical dichotomous using the median value as a cutting point. The lowest value to the median was given the name unsatisfied linguistic features and a score of 0. In contrast, the value of the upper distribution of agreed values is then calculated their average. The lowest percentage to the average value, referred to as weak, while the percent value above the average is called strength. The result can be seen in Table 3 and Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>195.989</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The general framework for linguistic study by Hymes (1972) gives the foundation to the researchers to describe ‘context of situation’ of the advertisements in terms of (i) the form and context of the message, (ii) the setting, (iii) the participants, (iv) the intent and effect of the communication, (v) the key, (vi) the medium, (vii) the genre, and (viii) the norms of interaction (see Martin, 2006).

Previous studies on language and linguistic feature analysis in advertisements have been conducted with different products and media. For example, a recent study by Muthmainnah (2016) found that the personification style is mostly used, occurring about four times: alliteration, assonance, simile style. The researcher draws the conclusion that the advertisement’s writers mostly employed straightforward and captivating personification and alliteration techniques to craft lovely phrases and sway viewers’ or readers’ opinions in favor of using the merchandise. Comparing to this research, linguistic features of advertisement having significant effect to the tourist visit; the linguistic feature of the advertisement influences 10.1% of tourist visits.

Other studies conducted by Martin (2006) on linguistic analysis of advertising showed that the incorporation of English and global imagery in the design of an advertising campaign become the strengths of the advertising used. It also requires a whole different kind of contextual analysis, in which specific text, picture, and music selections are needed to draw in customers, improve recall, communicate product information, create specific feelings, and draw in attention. Meanwhile, the strengths of advertisement linguistic features in this research found more complex linguistic features. It includes a) The involvement of experts in advertisement development, b) The attractiveness of the sentence structure, c) The appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice, and d) The use of interesting and suggestive figurative language.

Luyana and Imperiani (2021) in their research ‘An Analysis of Language Features in Local Fashion Brands’ Advertisement on Instagram’ (with persuasive techniques proposed by Kleppner (1986) and linguistic features in advertising proposed by Grey (2008)) found two commercials used every one of the three categories of persuasive strategies: retentive, competitive, and pioneering. In terms of linguistic feature, 12 out of 20 linguistic elements were employed in these two commercials by the advertising copywriters. The application of language elements in the commercials for these two businesses is influenced by the usage of persuasive strategies. Advertisers have to employ catchy language to persuade consumers that their items were better than comparable ones because competitive marketing tries to make things appear better and distinct than the competition. Due to the fact that it also influences grammatical characteristics, advertisers often tell consumers in lengthy noun phrases that provide in-depth product descriptions, giving the impression that their items are superior. Additionally, the advertisers employed the present tense to convey to the consumers that the advantages of the greater product they will receive will endure for an extended period of time (Luyana & Imperiani, 2021). Meanwhile, this research found that the components that support to make a good advertisement are not only the use attractive words or terms, the affects the syntactic features and the used present tense, but this research found that the components that support to make a good advertisement, and 11 elements found as the determinant factor that influence to make a good advertisements, They are (1) using language expert in developing advertisement (28.7%); (2) language accurately (64.7%); (3) language and image harmoniously (56.0%); (4) accurate word dictions (60.0%); (5) attractive content (55.3%); (6) reflects ecotourism (59.3%); (7) appropriate in color choices (54.7%); (8) attractive sentence structure (40.0%); (9) having an appropriate, attractive, and polite word choice (49.3%); (10) attractive and suggestive figurative languages (19.3%); and (11) the form of simple promotion advertisement and highlighting the important part (57.3%).

VII. CONCLUSION

To sum up, there are 4 weaknesses of linguistic features of Bali Ecotourism Village advertisement, namely: a) the involvement of experts in advertisement development, b) the attractiveness of the sentence structure, c) the appropriateness, attractiveness, and politeness of the word choice, and d) the use of interesting and suggestive figurative language. However, its strengths include: a) the accuracy of the language used, b) the harmonious composition of
language & image, c) the accuracy of word diction, d) the attractiveness of advertising content, e) the ecotourism reflection of advertisement, f) the appropriateness of color choice, and g) the use of simple promotion ads and highlight the important parts.

The linguistic features of advertisement significantly influence tourist visits. Ecotourism villages whose advertisements contain satisfying linguistic features are 3.172 times more likely to be visited by many tourists compared to those that are unsatisfactory. Ten points 2 percent of the visits are influenced by the linguistic features of the advertisement, and the other 89.8 percent by other factors.

Base on the results of study it is recommended to improve the quality of linguistic features of the advertisement by minimizing its weaknesses and maximizing strengths. It should also be considered to utilize linguists in determining the linguistic features of advertisements.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to express gratitude to the rector of Warmadewa University for providing funding, enabling the successful execution of this collaborative research. Special appreciation goes to Central Mindanao University, Bukidnon, Philippines (our international partner) for their support in this research. The author also extends heartfelt thanks to the research assistants for their dedication in collecting data over three months. Gratitude is extended to all the informants and rural ecotourism manager in POKDARWIS [Tourism Awareness Group] for their readiness to provide information on Balinese village ecotourism.

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Analyzing Image Meanings in Chinese EFL Textbooks: A Multimodal Perspective

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Abstract—English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbook image resources provide important materials and ways of learning for EFL students. Previous studies on the meaning and function of images in Chinese EFL textbooks tend to take pedagogy and cognitive psychology as main perspectives. Based on visual grammar, this article analyzes the image resources in Chinese junior high school EFL textbooks from a multimodal perspective, attempting to explore how the images realize three meta-meanings. It is found that cartoon, photo, table, and diagram are four main types of images in Yilin EFL textbooks. Quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis show that the images in the textbooks realized the representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning, but there are still some problems in image design, such as insufficient image types, lack of images promoting knowledge comprehension, and inadequate realization of compositional meaning of images. The research results offer some implications for Chinese EFL textbook editors to design textbooks, and also provide some suggestions for Chinese EFL teachers' teaching practice and students' learning.

Index Terms—images, representational meaning, interactive meaning, compositional meaning, Yilin EFL textbook

I. INTRODUCTION

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks are the main tools to achieve the goals of English curriculum, the basis for EFL teachers to design and implement various teaching activities, and the important source for learners to develop language knowledge and skills. Almost since their emergence, EFL textbooks began to use non-textual resources such as images. Nowadays, image resources like color photos, cartoons, maps and graphs are widely used in EFL textbooks (Lai, 2018). The use of images in textbooks can improve learners' interest in learning, and studies have shown that obviously better teaching results can be achieved when illustrated textbooks are used (Levie & Lentz, 1982; Willows, 1979). Image resources in EFL textbooks are an important part of textbooks and curriculum resources. They play an irreplaceable role in helping teachers to teach and stimulating students' interest in reading. The image and text resources in EFL textbook have respective strengths, and the integration of them definitely contributes to the discourse meaning construction. Therefore, EFL textbooks can be regarded as a kind of multimodal discourse in which images and texts work together to construct meaning.

Based on the analytical framework of visual grammar, this article analyzes the image resources in Chinese junior high school EFL textbooks from a multimodal perspective. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) believed that words were not the only resource to make meaning, and the expression of complete meaning should also involve the participation of other modes. Therefore, they inherited and developed Halliday's (1985) theoretical notion of metafunctions, applied it to visual modes, and proposed the visual grammar theory for image analysis. Visual grammar not only emphasizes the importance of images in conveying information, but also provides a powerful theoretical framework for analyzing image resources, becoming an important theoretical support for multimodal discourse analysis.

The junior high school EFL textbook of Jiangsu Province is an adapted version of Oxford Junior High School English by the textbook compilation group, which is published by Yilin Press (hereinafter referred to as "Yilin EFL textbook"). It has novel layout design and exquisite illustrations, displaying typical multimodal characteristics. As a new textbook compiled under the guidance of the Chinese EFL curriculum standards for compulsory education, it has been widely used in public junior high schools in Jiangsu Province, China. At present, the relevant studies concerning Yilin EFL textbook mainly involve the discussion of teaching methods by taking it as a case (Pang, 2018; Shen, 2024), and of the few studies that have focused on the textbook itself, most are concerned with textbook evaluation (Shao, 2022; Yu, 2020). In addition, previous studies on the meaning and function of images in Chinese EFL textbooks tend to take pedagogy and cognitive psychology as main perspectives (Chen & Liu, 2016; Cheng & Cong, 2020; Pu, 2008; Song, 2005), while the research from multimodal perspective is insufficient.

EFL textbook image resources provided important materials and ways of learning for EFL students, so it is necessary to explore the functions and design issues of textbook image from the multimodal perspective. Previous multimodal studies on EFL textbooks in various contexts mainly took Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) visual grammar as framework (Nordensvard, 2010; Salbego et al., 2015; Tahriarian & Sadri, 2013; Torres, 2015; Weninger & Kiss, 2013). This article attempts to apply the comprehensive framework of visual grammar to Chinese EFL textbooks, which
provides a new perspective for the analysis and evaluation of image resources in Chinese EFL textbooks. At the practical level, the research results can offer guidance for Chinese EFL textbook editors to design textbooks, and provide some suggestions for Chinese EFL teachers’ teaching practice and students’ learning.

II. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) argued that there should be an underlying structure to explain the meaning of visual texts. In their book, Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design (1996), they constructed a framework for analyzing images by applying Halliday’s (1985) theoretical notion of metafunctions to visual modes. According to visual grammar, the images are considered as meaning-making resources and likewise construct three meanings, respectively corresponding to the three metafunctions of language in systemic functional linguistics. Table 1 shows the correspondence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>THREE MEANINGS OF IMAGE VERSUS THREE METAFUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Representational Meaning</td>
<td>Textual Metafunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Meaning</td>
<td>Ideational Metafunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compositional Meaning</td>
<td>Interpersonal Metafunction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The representational meaning concerns the way images represent the relations between the people, places and things they depict (Qi, 2022). Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) distinguish between narrative representation and conceptual representation by “vector” — a motion, an eye line, an arrow, etc., which points to a clear direction. Being a vectorial pattern, narrative representation presents “unfolding actions and events, process of change, transitory spatial arrangements” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 79), which can be subdivided into action process, reactional process, and speech and mental process. The vector in the action process is usually represented by the direction of the action formed by the limbs of the participants in the image. When the vector is formed by an eyeline, by the direction of the glance of the participants in the image, the process is a reactional process. In speech and mental process, the vector is represented by dialogue or thought bubbles relating the speaker or thinker to their speech or thought in images. Being a non-vectorial pattern, conceptual representation is more generalized and stable, representing participants “in terms of class, or structure or meaning” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 79), which can be achieved by classificational process, analytical process and symbolic process. The classificational processes relate participants in terms of a taxonomy, and there is a relation of subordinate-superordinate between participants in the process (Qi, 2022). In the analytical process, the participants in the images are related in terms of a part-whole structure. The symbolic processes indicate what a participant means (Li, 2003).

The interactive meaning concerns the representation of social relations between images and viewers, which is realized by the subsystems of contact, social distance and perspective (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Contact refers to the (imaginary) interpersonal relationship established between represented participants and the viewer through “eye contact”, which is subdivided into the relationship of “demand” and “offer”. The former refers that the participants in images look directly at the viewer, as if the participants “demanded something from the viewer and demanded that the viewer enters into some kind of imaginary relation with him or her” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 118), while the latter is formed when there is no eye contact between the represented participants and the viewer, indicating the image is providing some information for the viewer. Social distance is related to the “size of frame”. Close-up, medium shot and long shot suggest increasing social distance between the represented participants and the viewer (Qi, 2022). The close-up shot indicates an intimate relationship by showing the participants’ head and shoulder. The medium shot establishes a social relationship by showing the participant’s knees and the waist. The long shot, which shows the entire figure or anything ‘wider’ than that, imposes an impersonal relationship (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). Perspective reflects subjective attitudes of the viewer towards the represented participants, which consists of high angle, eye angle and low angle. High angle brings the viewer power over the represented participants, while the low angle does the opposite. Eye angle indicates equality, that is, no power difference between the represented participants and the viewer, and thus the viewer can easily integrate into the image.

The compositional meaning concerns “the way in which the representational and interactive elements are made to relate to each other, the way they are integrated into a meaningful whole” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 176). Information value, salience and framing are three routes to realize the compositional meaning. The elements in the image are endowed with specific information values by the various placement: left and right, top and bottom, center and margin (Qi, 2022). For example, in the image with a left-right structure, the represented participant on the left is known to the viewer, compared to the represented participant on the right, which is possibly unknown for the viewer. For the top-bottom structure image, the represented participant on the top holds the ideal or general information, while the real or detailed information is located at the bottom of the image. In the image of center-margin structure, the represented participant in the center is more important than those at the margin. Salience creates “a hierarchy of importance among the elements, selecting some as more important, more worthy of attention than others” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 201), which is implemented by such techniques as size, foregrounding/backgrounding, color, etc. (Forceville, 1999). Framing is presented
by the presence or absence of framing devices like boxes, lines, space, colors, and so forth. Through framing devices, the elements are visually separated from other elements in the image. The principles of information value, salience and framing are valid in composite images which include texts, images or other multimodal resources (Qi, 2022).

Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) emphasized that visual systems are multidimensional structures in which representational, interactive and compositional meanings complement each other and none of them is dispensable. In this article, visual grammar is applied to analyze image resources in Chinese junior high school EFL textbooks, exploring the realization of three meta-meanings of images in Chinese EFL textbooks. The analytical framework is shown in Figure 1.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The following three research questions are raised and they are answered respectively:

1. What are the types of images in Yilin EFL textbooks?
2. How do the images in Yilin EFL textbooks realize the representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning?
3. What are the problems in image design of Yilin EFL textbooks?

B. Research Subjects

The junior high school EFL textbooks published by Yilin Press in 2012 are studied as research subjects. Yilin EFL textbooks are recommended by Ministry of Education of China, and have been widely used by Chinese EFL students from Grade 7 to 9 in Jiangsu Province. Filled with rich image and text resources, Yilin EFL textbooks consist of totally six textbooks, and each book contains 8 units, except for the last one which has only 4 units. Each unit is composed of 8 modules, namely “comic strip”, “welcome to the unit”, “reading”, “grammar”, “integrated skills”, “study skills”, “task” and “self-assessment”. The images in 6 modules are analyzed, excluding the modules of “study skills” and “self-assessment”, because there are few images in these two modules and most are fixed images. In addition, those images which mainly play the decorative role in the textbooks are also excluded in this study.

C. Research Procedures

First of all, all the images in the above-mentioned modules of Yilin EFL textbooks are collected and classified, and an image corpus is built for further study. Then, in order to explore how the images in Yilin EFL textbooks realize the representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning, a mixed method is adopted: Firstly, a quantitative analysis is adopted to show the statistics and distribution of images in terms of three dimensions as well as their sub-dimensions. Secondly, a qualitative analysis is also adopted to illustrate the meaning-making features of the images with some typical examples. Finally, the problems in image design are explored based on the multimodal analysis of Yilin EFL textbooks.
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Image Types in Yilin EFL Textbooks

The images in Yilin EFL textbooks can be divided into four categories according to their nature: (1) cartoon—cartoons of character or animal, cartoon combinations with speech/thought bubbles; (2) photo—photos of real person or thing; (3) table—tables for presenting grammatical knowledge (excluding fill-in ones); (4) diagram—diagrams showing a certain relationship between parts. Table 2 shows the statistics of image types in Yilin EFL textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>Cartoon</th>
<th>Photo</th>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Diagram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-1</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is shown in Table 2, the four types of images in Yilin EFL textbooks in descending order of quantity are: cartoons, tables, photos, and diagrams. As the grade goes up, cartoons appear less frequently in textbook series, while photos appear more frequently. In addition, as the grade goes up, the number of tables decreases significantly, while the number of diagrams has no obvious change.

Cartoon is the most frequently used image type in Yilin EFL textbooks mainly because it is the most acceptable form for junior high school students. Vivid cartoons can stimulate and maintain junior high school students’ interest in English learning regardless of their relatively low thinking ability and English level. Nevertheless, there is an ascending trend in the number of photos as the grade goes up. The photos in textbook series are either closely related to students’ daily life, or show people and objects as they are, so they are more conducive to presenting the real situation to students. With the maturity of students’ cognitive ability, photos are more helpful for students to understand the situational context of texts and thus achieve knowledge transfer.

Table is also a commonly used image type in Yilin EFL textbooks. Tables, mainly appearing in the “Grammar” section, are used to sort out the important grammatical knowledge learned in the units. Tables are mainly used in textbooks for the lower grades of junior high school, since students of lower grades have relatively low cognitive level and knowledge generalization ability, and it is helpful to promote their knowledge acquisition by presenting and summarizing grammar points in the form of tables. Diagrams appear in every volume of Yilin EFL textbooks but the second volume of Grade 7. Diagrams can be used to cultivate students’ logical thinking ability. However, for junior high school students, diagrams are difficult to understand, and thus there are only a few of them in Yilin EFL textbooks.

It can be seen that the selection of image types in Yilin EFL textbooks is largely affected by the thinking ability, cognitive level and English proficiency of junior high school students, and different types of images play different roles in promoting students’ understanding of English knowledge and improving their English proficiency.

B. The Realization of Three Meta-Meanings of Images in Yilin EFL Textbooks

(a). The Realization of Representational Meaning of Images

According to visual grammar, representational meaning comprises narrative representation and conceptual representation. To figure out the features of representational meaning construction of images in Yilin EFL textbooks, the statistics of narrative representation and conceptual representation are presented and discussed. Table 3 and Table 4 show the statistics respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>NR</th>
<th>Action process</th>
<th>Reactional process</th>
<th>Speech and mental process</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>102</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>642</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion 50.62% 10.12% 39.25% 100%
Table 4:
The Statistics of Images of Conceptual Representation (CR) in Yilin EFL Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>Classificational process</th>
<th>Analytical process</th>
<th>Symbolic process</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion: 16.13% 11.29% 72.58% 100%

As is shown in Table 3 and 4, images of narrative representation are far more than that of conceptual representation. The vector in narrative representation allows students to obtain a sense of engagement, which contributes to building a friendly relationship between students and the represented participants in images, thereby attracting students’ attention and arousing their interests (Qi, 2021).

Table 3 shows that action process and speech & mental process are the main processes of narrative representation, with the former occupying more than 50%, while only about 10% images in Yilin EFL textbooks show reactional process, and most of them appear in the first volume of Grade 7. In Yilin EFL textbooks, images showing action process mainly present the physical actions (such as movements) of participants or the course of events. Most of these images appear in the reading section as illustrations, and also in various exercises, requiring students to fill in the blanks based on the images. The main function of the images showing reactional process is to render a certain emotion through eye contact of the represented participants, arousing emotional resonance of students. For example, in Figure 2, the image in the upper left corner presents a harmonious communication between two girls who are looking at each other and talking happily. The eyeline of both participants forms a vector. This reactional process is conductive to arousing students’ interests in the relationship between the represented participants, and as a result, students are more likely to read the article on their own initiative to find the desired information. The image in the lower right corner shows a typical action process, where the girl playing volleyball is the actor and the volleyball is the goal, and her arms form the vector. This image conveys to the viewers what the participant is doing, thereby helping to facilitate students’ understanding of the article. There is also a high proportion of images showing speech and mental processes in Yilin EFL textbooks. At the beginning of each unit is a set of comic strips, which lead students into the unit study with funny cartoons and concise dialogues. The dialogue and thought bubbles in comic strips display what the represented participants are thinking in an intuitive way, which is more liable to be accepted by junior high school students. In addition, images showing speech and mental processes often appear in the exercises. For example, in Figure 3, the exercises are designed through the ideas and words of the represented participants in the textbooks, which strengthens familiarity for students.

Different from the images of narrative representation, images of conceptual representation represent participants in terms of their class, structure or meaning, so as to deepen the viewer’s understanding of the represented participants. Table 4 shows that symbolic process, which occupies 72.58%, is a dominant process, followed by classificational process, accounting for 16.13%. Images showing analytical process are rare in Yilin EFL textbooks, which can only be found in the first three volumes of the textbook series. The viewers could interpret the symbolic meaning and connotation of the image by analyzing the specific meaning of certain represented participants. The symbolic images are able to activate more relevant information of the viewer through their existing imagination, knowledge and thoughts. In Yilin EFL textbooks,
symbolic images are often used to present the characteristics of festivals, landmark buildings of cities, tourist attractions and so on, which are in line with the theme of the units. For example, Figure 4 shows an American flag, the symbol of the country, and the musical *Cats*, the symbol of Broadway. Such symbolic processes allow students to make immediate associations and prompt them to recall more tourist attractions in New York. With regard to junior high school students, symbolic process is an effective means to develop imagination and thinking ability. There is a relation of subordinate-superordinate between participants in the image showing classificational process, which is commonly seen in tree diagrams, flow charts, spidergram, etc. Such images rarely appear in reading materials, but are common in language exercises and tasks since they can make abstract concepts concrete and make students get a clear and straightforward impression of the content. For example, the “Task” section in Figure 5 uses a spidergram to help students organize their ideas. The analytical process, which links participants in the images in a part-whole structure, can help students acquire knowledge from both perspectives of part and whole, and thus understand the essence. Likewise, this type of image is common to be seen in language exercises and tasks. For instance, Figure 6 presents a growth chart of the giant panda Xi Wang. By analyzing different stages of Xi Wang’s growth process, students could clearly understand the characteristics of giant panda at each stage of growth. In fact, this exercise serves as a useful supplement to the reading article since there is not enough space in the article to show the whole growth process with images. However, it requires higher thinking ability to analyze the logical relations between the represented participants in the images and then obtain the relevant concepts, which might be the reason why few images showing analytical process appear in Yilin EFL textbooks.

To sum up, Yilin EFL textbooks tend to use images to unfold certain story plots, show action processes and create English learning situations for junior high school students. Therefore, the realization of representational meaning of images is mainly realized by narrative representation.

(b). The Realization of Interactive Meaning of Images

Interactive meaning of the images is mainly realized by three subsystems of contact, social distance and perspective. To figure out the features of interactive meaning construction of images in Yilin EFL textbooks, the statistics of images of “contact”, “social distance” and “perspective” are presented and discussed. Table 5, Table 6 and Table 7 show the statistics respectively.
As is shown in Table 5, among the “contact” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, images of “offer” are absolutely dominant, accounting for 98.25%. In such images, the represented participants make no eye contact with the viewer, and the main interactive function is to provide the viewer with some information. In Yilin EFL textbooks, images of “offer” either show students the characteristics of static things (e.g. the layout of the dining room as shown in Figure 7) or present the scene of a certain activity. In “demand” images, the participants make direct eye contact with the viewer. Figure 8 is a typical example, in which the well-known composer Tan Dun held up the trophy and looked excitedly at the viewers. His eyes convey the joy of victory, arousing strong resonance among the viewers. Research shows that most of images of “demand” in Yilin EFL textbooks are cartoons, where different characters (students, teachers, doctors, etc.) usually look at the viewer with a smile, conveying a happy mood and a friendly attitude, thus shortening the distance between the represented participants and the viewers. Due to the insufficient life experience and knowledge of junior high school students, there is a greater need for “offer” images to help them understand the world and accumulate knowledge. The main function of Chinese EFL textbooks for junior high school students is to present knowledge to students and promote students’ accumulation of knowledge, rather than demand something from the students. That could explain why only a few “demand” images can be found in Yilin EFL textbooks.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>Demand</th>
<th>Offer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>899</td>
<td>915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>1.75%</td>
<td>98.25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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</table>

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Intimate</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Impersonal</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
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<td>31</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>160</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>161</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>134</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>142</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>785</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>24.59%</td>
<td>61.53%</td>
<td>13.88%</td>
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</table>

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook volume</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>High angle</th>
<th>Eye angle</th>
<th>Low angle</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>264</td>
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<td>268</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 7-2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>193</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 8-1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>158</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8-2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>169</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9-2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>24</td>
<td>956</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>94.84%</td>
<td>2.78%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
As is shown in Table 6, among the “social distance” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, “social” images account for the largest proportion, followed by “intimate” images, and “impersonal” images are the least. In Yilin EFL textbooks, “intimate” images are mainly used to introduce characters in textbooks or celebrities in real life. Figure 8 presents a close-up shot of Tan Dun, a famous composer. The close-up of Tan’s smiling face makes students feel close to him, thus creating a desire to know more about him. In addition, “intimate” images are often used to show interactions, especially conversations, between characters, thereby bringing the viewers closer to the participants in the images. As for the “social” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, they are mainly used to describe the actions of characters and the ongoing storyline, showing the process of interpersonal interaction to junior high school students. Figure 9 is a typical example of “social” image, which establishes a social relationship with the medium shot, and students could enhance their understanding of interpersonal relationships by viewing it. Figure 10 deploys a long shot to show people and their surroundings, presenting the students with a vision of daily life in the city. An impersonal relationship is hereby imposed between the students who are viewing the image and the characters in the image. The “social” images are frequently used in Yilin EFL textbooks so as to allow students to appreciate social relations while viewing the communication among the characters in the images. The “intimate” images showing facial expressions of characters can eliminate students’ sense of strangeness, and help them maintain a positive learning attitude. The “impersonal” images are not conducive to the establishment of close relations between students and the images, nor is it conducive to the promotion of social interactions, so they are seldom used in the textbook series.

As Table 7 shows, among the “perspective” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, “eye angle” images occupy an absolutely dominant position, while “high angle” and “low angle” images are equivalent, each accounting for a small proportion. Generally, when an “eye angle” is adopted, the viewer and the represented participants in the image have equal status, and thus the viewer can integrate into the image easily. In Yilin EFL textbooks, “low angle” is often used to highlight the grandeur of buildings, as well as to depict objects with the sky as the background, such as kite, airplane, etc., while “high angle” is mainly used to depict an overall view of ground scenes or activities, or to display map information. For example, Figure 11 presents the Statue of Liberty from a low angle. Students will have a strong sense of visual impact when looking at the image, and they will be deeply impressed. Figure 12 presents a panoramic view of the park from a high angle, and in this case students have greater rights to interpret the whole image. In both “low angle” and “high angle” images, students are in an unequal relationship with the elements in the images. The former is easy to cause a sense of depression for students, while the latter makes it difficult for them to integrate into the image. The “eye angle” images appear most frequently in Yilin EFL textbooks since the equal relationship they indicate can ensure that students participate in the learning of textbooks to the greatest extent possible.

(c). The Realization of Compositional Meaning of Images

Compositional meaning of the images is mainly realized by three routes: information value, salience and framing. The relevant statistics are respectively shown in Table 8 and Table 9, and then discussed so as to figure out the features of compositional meaning construction of images in Yilin EFL textbooks.
As is shown in Table 8, among the images of “information value” in Yilin EFL textbooks, those left-right structure images account for 82.84%, followed by top-bottom structure images, and center-margin structure images account for less than 1%. In this textbook series, images of left-right structure are mainly used to show the dialogue between characters. Figure 13 is a typical example, in which two students who meet for the first time are greeting and getting to know each other. However, research shows that not all left-right structure images in Yilin EFL textbooks follow the meaning construction pattern of “known to unknown”. It can be seen that visual grammar has insufficient explanatory power for left-right structure images, which coincides to some extent with the previous findings (Forceville, 1999; Painter et al., 2013). In Yilin EFL textbooks, the information located on the top of the image usually concerns what is imagined by the represented participant, displayed to the students in thought bubbles. As Figure 14 shows, Eddie bought an electronic dog, and what he imagined appears in the thought bubble on the top, that is, the electronic dog would treat it as its owner and take care of its daily life.

When composing an image, image designers tend to place important information in the center and secondary information that plays a supporting role on the edges of the image. Figure 15 is a case in point, where the fire-fighting hero Lin Tao is located in the center of the image for he is the main character the image designer wants to highlight, while the burning building is placed at the edge of the image. However, the research shows that there are only a handful of center-margin structure images in Yilin EFL textbooks.
The main components in textbook discourse are images and texts, so framing discussed here refers to how to distinguish images and words, which is realized mainly by virtual dividing lines or actual frame lines in Yilin EFL textbooks. As is shown in Table 9, among the images of “framing” in Yilin EFL textbooks, images using virtual dividing lines only account for 8.33%, while all the others use actual frame lines to separate images and texts. In Figure 16, the projection under the spotlight forms a virtual dividing line separating the boy on the left from the text; meanwhile, a rectangular frame is employed to separate the text from the girl walking on the catwalk on the right. Actual frame lines separating images and texts make the layout of the textbook clearer, enabling readers to read the images and texts selectively. The “reading” section in Yilin EFL textbooks often adopts rectangles and circles as framing to make the presentation of both texts and images distinct and vivid. In addition, slash line is often used to segment elements in images, dividing different scenes. For example, an image showing that two friends are talking on the phone is divided into two parts by a slash line in between, with each part depicting a different scene of making phone call by a different person. This type of image is commonly seen in Yilin EFL textbooks. Students in junior high schools have a low level of cognitive thinking, so using tangible frameworks to distinguish scenes in images is beneficial for them to better understand the meaning of images and realize the transformation of scenes. Salience is achieved through the contrast of color, size, position, etc. Research shows that the images in Yilin EFL textbooks are rich in color and thus appealing to junior high school students. Most of the images are closely integrated with the texts. The size of the images is reasonable, and the layout appropriate. Furthermore, important element in the image is often placed in the foreground to emphasize its importance.

C. Problems in Image Design of Yilin EFL Textbooks

(a). Insufficient Image Types

It is found that the most important type of image in Yilin EFL textbooks is cartoon, compared to which photo, table and diagram appear less frequently. In fact, different types of images have different characteristics and can play different roles in promoting students’ learning. For example, photos are highly intuitive, which can create learning situations, improve the authenticity of teaching content and stimulate students’ enthusiasm for learning; various kinds of diagrams are conducive to cultivating students’ logical thinking ability and analytical ability. Images with different functions working together in the textbooks will definitely contribute to students’ cognitive development. Therefore, Yilin EFL textbooks can further enrich the types of images. At the same time, more images with “analytical” features can be added into the textbooks for senior students as appropriate, such as flow charts, schematic diagrams and mind maps.

(b). Lack of Images Promoting Knowledge Comprehension

It is found that Yilin EFL textbooks are mainly text-based, with images only playing a supporting role. In fact, quite a few images in the textbook series serve as illustrations for reading articles or language exercises, which are not directly related to the learning content and cannot promote students’ understanding and mastery of knowledge. Some images appear in exercises where images and texts match each other, such as matching newly learned vocabulary with corresponding images, supplementing information based on images, sorting out key points with mind maps, etc. However, such kind of images account for a small proportion in Yilin EFL textbooks, and most images only serve to decorate and assist in illustrating the text information. Therefore, the proportion of images that can promote students’ knowledge comprehension should be appropriately increased in Yilin EFL textbooks.

(c). Inadequate Realization of Compositional Meaning of Images

In Yilin EFL textbooks, left-right structure images dominate, but some images don’t follow the meaning construction pattern of “known to unknown”, which may cause confusion among junior high school students and lead to some trouble in reading images. The top-bottom structure images in the textbook series are mainly used to show what is imagined by the represented participants, and thus there is a lack of diversity in the meaning construction of images. The center-margin structure images, which are scarce in Yilin EFL textbooks, fail to play an effective role of highlighting important information. It can be seen that the compositional meaning of the images in Yilin EFL textbooks is inadequately realized due to the insufficient utilization of “information value”. Therefore, it is necessary to adjust the
image design in Yilin EFL textbooks appropriately according to visual grammar, so as to express the information and meaning of the images in a better way.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Major Findings

There are four main types of images in Yilin EFL textbooks: cartoon, photo, table, and diagram, among which cartoon is the most common image type in the textbook series.

Research shows that the images in Yilin EFL textbooks realized the representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning. In terms of the representational meaning, images of narrative representation are far more than that of conceptual representation in Yilin EFL textbooks. Action process and speech & mental process are the main processes of narrative representation, while images showing analytical process are rare in Yilin EFL textbooks. Images with symbolic meaning are able to activate more relevant information in the viewer's mind through their existing knowledge and imagination. In Yilin EFL textbooks, such images are usually used to display the characteristics of festivals, landmark buildings of cities, tourist attractions and the like, so as to match the theme of the units. Images that embody the classificational process and analytical process mainly appear in language exercises and tasks. In short, the realization of representational meaning of images in Yilin EFL textbooks is mainly realized by narrative representation, and the images serve to unfold certain story plots, show action processes and create English learning situations for junior high school students.

In terms of the interactive meaning, images of “offer” are absolutely dominant among the “contact” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, while there are few images of “demand”. As for “social distance” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, “social” images occupy the largest proportion, followed by “intimate” images as well as “impersonal” images. The “social” images are mainly used to describe the actions of characters and the ongoing storyline, showing the process of interpersonal interaction to students and allowing them to appreciate social relations. The “intimate” images show facial expressions of characters, which eliminate students’ sense of strangeness, shorten the distance between students and textbooks, and help them maintain a positive learning attitude. As for the “perspective” images in Yilin EFL textbooks, “eye angle” images are absolutely dominant, while “high angle” and “low angle” images both account for a small proportion. Yilin EFL textbooks tend to establish an equal relationship with students by utilizing “eye angle” images, so as to ensure that students participate in the learning of textbooks to the greatest extent possible.

In terms of the compositional meaning, the left-right structure images occupy the most among the images of “information value” in Yilin EFL textbooks, followed by top-bottom structure images and then center-margin structure images. It confirms the findings that visual grammar has insufficient explanatory power for images of “information value”. In Yilin EFL textbooks, images and words are mainly separated by virtual dividing lines and actual frame lines. As for the images of “framing”, images using actual frame lines to separate images and texts are absolutely dominant. As junior high school students’ cognitive thinking ability is relatively low, using tangible frameworks to distinguish scenes in images is beneficial for them to understand the meaning of images and realize the transformation of scenes. In addition, salience in Yilin EFL textbooks is mainly realized by means of the contrast of color and size, as well as foreground position of key elements.

Based on the multimodal analysis of Yilin EFL textbook, three problems in image design have been summed up as follows: insufficient image types, lack of images promoting knowledge comprehension, inadequate realization of compositional meaning of images.

B. Implications

This research has some implications for textbook image designers, Chinese EFL teachers and Chinese junior high school students. For textbook image designers, when designing textbook illustrations, they should not only consider the aesthetics of the images, but also the functions of the images. Visual grammar is helpful for designers to broaden their thinking and make textbook images contain richer connotations and more diversified functions. Focusing on the theme of each unit, they should design images that not only conform to students’ cognitive level, but also fully realize three meta-meanings, so as to stimulate students’ interest in English learning, strengthen the interaction between students and images, and promote their understanding and mastery of knowledge. For Chinese EFL teachers, they should value textbook illustrations, regarding them as an important curriculum resource. In the teaching process, teachers can make use of visual grammar to interpret images in textbooks in terms of representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning, and then excavate the teaching value of images, guide students to observe and explore images, cultivating students’ multiliteracies. For junior high school students, they should actively change the way of reading images, carefully analyze the images under the guidance of teachers, and fully understand the three meta-meanings conveyed by the images, so as to utilize the images more effectively to understand the text and improve their multiliteracies.
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Shadows of Language: Revealing the Multifaceted Nature of Euphemistic Expressions in Biden’s Speeches

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Abstract—In the field of political discourse, euphemistic expressions arise as a linguistic strategy. They are utilized by politicians to cleverly navigate the challenges of achieving their intended goals, such as promoting themselves or criticizing others. The present study delves into the neglected dimensions of euphemisms used by President Biden when he speaks about the local and global affairs. To do so, six carefully selected extracts from Biden’s speeches are examined drawing upon Burridge’s classification of linguistic features and functions of euphemistic expressions, van Dijk’s ideological square, Brown and Levinson’s negative politeness strategies, Grice’s conversational maxims, and French and Raven’s bases of power. The study unfolds significant emphasis on the positive ideological shifts under the current American leadership, contrasting them with the negative underpinnings of others. Accordingly, the function to talk up and inflate serves euphemistic expressions to function as a vehicle for projecting positive representations. Moreover, it is found that to reveal and inspire function is utilized for revealing truths and inspiring profound shifts in perception. Power bases lend legitimacy and authorize Biden to employ such linguistic choices, further amplifying the impact of his intended message.

Index Terms—critical pragmatics, euphemism, ideology, power, political euphemism

I. INTRODUCTION

To conduct a study with such a tendency of analysis, is to arrive at a clear vision of power dynamics and masked ideologies that are beyond a particular type of discourse. Accordingly, discourses that are produced by those who have social authority and/or higher positions must be inspired by power and ideology. As a field of study, Sociopragmatics focuses on shared goals found in critical linguistics. This area of study is referred to as Critical Pragmatics. Having the same interest of critical discourse analysis, critical pragmatics devotes its effort to identifying the link between language, ideology, and social power (Huang, 2017).

These two essential treats authorize politicians to make the best use of language to accomplish their intended goals. To be more indirect and bring to the scene substitutions for particular concepts and/or topics is referred to as euphemisms. Etymologically, euphemism is taken from the Greek word eufheme whereby eu and pheme mean good and speak respectively. Traditionally, euphemistic expressions are scenarios whereby taboo expressions appear in a communication. However, the range of euphemistic expressions is widened to include more scenarios such as offensive, embarrassing, vulgar, and so forth (Pan, 2013).

The present study commits itself to bridging the gap in the literature of euphemism studies which were mainly limited to linguistic analysis in general contexts. It uncovers the neglected dimensions embodied in social power and ideology that motivate particular types of euphemisms and how their employments within a political genre sculpt social identities and shape perception.

Accordingly, the following questions are to be addressed in the present study:

1. What are the types of euphemistic expressions, their functions, and the devices used by Biden when speaking about the local and global affairs; and which ones are frequently used?
2. Which negative politeness strategies are realized via these uses in local and global affairs speeches; and which one is frequently adopted?
3. Why does Biden flout the conversational maxims when using the euphemistic expressions; and which maxim is flouted frequently?
4. To what extent do ideology and power influence the euphemistic expressions used by Biden when speaking about the local and global affairs; and which type of ideology and motive of power is frequently seen?

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II. CRITICAL PRAGMATICS, POLITENESS, IDEOLOGY, AND POWER

The differences in scope and applications of pragmatics and critical studies of discourses lead to the production of complementary methodologies. In this vein, Chilton's (2004) study of indirectness and its various strategic uses in discourse that is operated via using presupposition and implicature in political discourses represents the fruitful relationship between the two disciplines. Huang (2017, p. 9) asserts that Critical Pragmatics “refers to the work done in sociopragmatics that follows the tradition of critical linguistics, in particular critical discourse analysis. As in critical discourse analysis, in critical pragmatics, great emphasis is put on the relationship between language and social power and between language and ideology”.

Hence critical pragmatics and critical discourse analysis have one target, which is, highlighting the questions of how language and social power are related as well as how language and ideology are related.

Mey (2001) regards critical pragmatics as an ‘umbrella’ concept under which various social inequalities and ideologies are scrutinized by utilizing pragmatic strategies. In this vein, Chen (2020) sees critical pragmatics as a method through which all the positive and negative communicative actions are examined via shedding light on the hidden ideologies.

Politeness theory emphasizes the importance of language use and expressions in showing a friendly attitude. Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory, based on Goffman's concept of ‘face’, categorizes faces into negative and positive. When people act against face needs, Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) are formed. Strategies to minimize FTAs include claiming common ground, asserting reciprocity, and fulfilling the recipient's wants. Their definition of negative politeness suggests that speakers prioritize the hearer's wants and desires, considering formality, self-determination, and respectful aspects. They propose strategies to avoid threatening the hearer's negative face: indirectness, questioning, pessimism, deference, apologies, impersonation, inclusive perspective, nominalization, and record-keeping.

Grice’s Cooperative Principle (1975), outlines four maxims: Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner. To achieve these maxims, speakers must provide informative speeches, adequate information, be relevant, and avoid ambiguity. Non-observance of these maxims can occur in various situations, such as flouting a maxim, violating a maxim, infringing a maxim, opting-out a maxim, and suspending a maxim. Flouting the maxims can result in implicature, quantity, quality, relation, and manner issues. Speakers can exploit these maxims to launch non-observance, such as excessive speech or irrelevant information.

Van Dijk (1998) categorizes ideology into three crucial ones. Cognitive: studied by cognitive psychologists to highlight values and ideas in people's minds; Social: studied by sociologists to judge values among societal groups; and Linguistic: learned and/or acquired by the written or spoken discourse.

His ideological square stands for the ‘twin strategies’ whereby the positives and negatives of in-groups and out-groups are emphasized and de-emphasized respectively. As such, ‘Us and Them’ are used to refer to the polarized relationship between the in-groups and out-groups positives and negatives.

Daghigh et al. (2018) remark that:

(1) Positive-Self Representation: representing the members of the in-groups ‘Us’ in a positive way, through discourse, by de-emphasizing their negative and emphasizing their positive characteristics; and

(2) Negative-Other Representation: representing the members of the out-groups ‘Them’ in a negative way, through discourse, by de-emphasizing their positive and emphasizing their negative characteristics. Thus, the inequality in discourse is represented through these linguistic behaviors.

Power refers to the asymmetrical relationships among people practiced in different contexts. It is also defined as “unequal capacity to control how texts are produced, distributed, and consumed” (Fairclough, 1995, p. 1). In addition, the ability of certain individuals (usually powerful people) to exert control over and display the interests, behaviors, and performances of others (usually inferior people) indicates the meaning of the notion of power (Paltridge, 2006).

French and Raven (1959) present five bases of power which are categorized into positional and personal ones. The positional category includes legitimate, reward, and coercive bases while the personal category includes the referent and expert bases. Legitimate power is mostly determined by one’s title or position within the state or government. As a result, the influence of one’s position may allow someone with this sort of authority to dictate the actions of individuals. Reward power refers to anticipating approval, receiving favorable assignments, giving praise, accepting, and anticipating positive results are all important motivators for people or organizations to carry out the wishes of others. Coercive power depends on various forms of force, such as punishment, threats, or being assigned undesirable chores, it might be the opposite of reward power. Being forced to accomplish something for which a person is not prepared or does not want to represents the main principle of this type. Undoubtedly, the conduct of a significant portion of a person's followers or devotees will be influenced, directly or indirectly, by their popularity or attraction. As a result, commercials featuring a celebrity or other significant person are far more trustworthy and have a genuine impact than those using unknown individuals. Expert power is individual-based rather than position-based. If someone possesses the skills, expertise, and aptitude to solve problems, come up with logical solutions, and be aware of changing circumstances, this will unquestionably increase their chances of being heard and obeyed.

Euphemism and Political Euphemism

For Allan and Burridge (1991), “[E]uphemism and dysphemism are principally determined by the choice of expression within a given context: both world spoken of and the world spoken in” (p. 4). The various studies of
euphemism such as their (1991, 2007) studies consider euphemism as a universal and comprehensive phenomenon used in everyday communication to achieve different aims rather than being a mere linguistic device (Crespo Fernández, 2005).

Using euphemisms involves using indirect language that is customarily inaccurate or socially acceptable (Hughes, 2006). In addition, Allan and Burridge (1991) assert that euphemism is regarded as a face-saving mechanism initiated on occasions when unwanted or offensive expressions are used.

Further, Xiao (2018) mentions that euphemism can be described as a typical linguistic technique in communicative acts. Whether consciously, or not, speakers employ euphemistic expressions to avoid awkward or inappropriate topics.

Political euphemism involves more than just replacing the verbal equivalents. It differs from euphemisms used in other professions in many distinctive ways. The politicians’ motivation for creating it is evident in their desire to hide the truth and deflect public attention. They use such language to alter how individuals acquire knowledge and communicate it (Zhao & Dong, 2010).

**Functions of Euphemism**

According to Burridge (2012), euphemistic expressions perform six functions: (1) To shield or avoid offense: Language avoidance and evasiveness are traits of euphemisms. When presented with the challenging task of how to speak about topics in various circumstances. (2) To mystify and misrepresent: Politicians usually employ the kind of euphemistic expressions to intentionally mask an idea and to mislead. Thus, the public are being mystified. For example, the euphemistic expressions soft skin target, surgical strikes, and friendly fire are used to deceive or mystify the public when talking about war, military operations, and medical procedures. (3) To talk up and inflate: Euphemistic expressions achieve to talk up and inflate function when speakers believe that it is preferable to alter words with others since the latter has favorable connotations. Potholes to pavement deficiencies and bottlenecks to localized capacity deficiencies are examples of this function. (4) To reveal and inspire: It is achieved when the speakers employ them intending to explain taboo topics to motivate the addressees to look behind the obvious level of the message being expressed. Journey and beginning of new life are substitutions for death. (5) To show solidarity and help define the gang: Taboos are one of the shared beliefs that bind particular community members together; they serve as a symbol of social cohesiveness. Shared taboos in a society, the customs and habits that go along with our euphemistic conduct enhance the social framework and create cohesiveness by fostering a sense of uniqueness. (6) To have fun and entertain: The sixth function of euphemistic expressions is to achieve fun and entertainment. It is the speakers’ manipulative way of using linguistic expressions in situations whereby accomplishing amusement and fun becomes its main function.

**The linguistic strategies of euphemistic expressions**

Burridge (2012) underscores that various euphemistic expressions are achieved by means of using three linguistic strategies; namely, analogy, distortion, and borrowing. Each of these strategies calls for different linguistic devices. Nevertheless, the present study is limited to the linguistic strategy of analogy as follows:

a. **Metaphor**: Euphemisms are associated with figurative language to accomplish the aim of metaphor whereby an expression is used to denote another different thing, as in the word mellow that describes those in their riper years or ripe old years.

b. **Whole for part or part for whole substitutions**: Expressions that are conceptually related in some way to the forbidden meaning are frequently used as substitutes. Particularly when saving face is the primary goal, speakers seek vagueness in euphemisms, and frequently the substitutes contain a high degree of abstraction. As such, the expression certain describes people (usually women) when they are pregnant when saying they are in a certain condition.

c. **Hyperbole**: Exaggeration is what this linguistic device means. As far as the euphemistic expressions that are related to age, the phrase past one’s prime refers to the body condition of a person.

d. **Understatement**: Speakers who use euphemisms that downplay the importance of the topic make use of this tactic. Not youthful or not as young as we used to instead of old people are common examples.

### III. Materials and Method

The samples of the present study are six extracts taken from Biden’s speeches in a transcript format from (www.whitehouse.gov) to investigate Biden’s employments of euphemistic expressions. Various topics such as war, politics, economy, healthcare, and environment are discussed in these extracts. The ones related to America are referred to as the local affairs speeches whereas the ones related to the whole world are referred to as the global affairs speeches.

Two methods are conducted in the present study; namely, qualitative and quantitative. The former method is achieved via analyzing the data in question in line with the eclectic model of the study which draws upon Burridge’s (2012) classifications, linguistic features, and functions of euphemism, Brown and Levinson’s (1987) negative politeness strategies, Grice’s (1975) conversational maxims, van Dijk’s (1998) ideological square, and French and Raven’s (1959) bases of power. The latter method is achieved by using frequencies and percentages to conduct calculations of occurrences of euphemistic expressions and comparing results.

**Extract (1)**

And the United States and our Allies and partners are moving as fast as possible to continue to provide Ukraine the forces that they need — the weapons they need — excuse me — and the equipment they need — their forces need to defend their nation.
Extract (1) illustrates that Biden calls for the euphemistic expression “equipment” at the word level. The linguistic feature of “analogy” is employed via using “the part for whole substitution” device. In doing so, he uses the word equipment to refer to the whole weapons, ammunition, drones, and other war supplies. Thus, Biden uses the type of expressions that make the topic about war stuff more benign for the audience. “To talk up and inflate” and “To reveal and inspire” functions are achieved when using the euphemistic expressions by Biden. Exaggerating the topics that are related to the equipment of war leads to the initiation of the first function whereas revealing the role of the United States of America in this war will inspire the Ukrainians to resist and fight for their country, thus, the second function is achieved. The main reason behind choosing these euphemistic expressions is to emphasize the positive role of America that revolves around helping Ukraine defeat Russia.

As for the negative politeness strategies, extract (1) clarifies that Biden activates three strategies namely, “Minimise the imposition”, “Adopt an inclusive perspective” and “Nominalize” when using the euphemistic expressions in question. The first strategy is seen when the speaker tries to lessen the impact of Ukraine’s war against Russia. The second strategy is activated when the president calls for an inclusive perspective when talking about the weapons and the countries that will provide the Ukrainian army with them. Finally, he gives names to this equipment when speaking about America and their Allies’ support, thus, the third strategy is achieved.

Implicature is initiated due to Biden’s flouting of the quantity maxim. In doing so, the speaker aims to make the target look for the kind of meaning that is not mentioned at the plain level when using the euphemistic expression. Thus, this type of non-observance is caused when Biden avoids mentioning informative details when he uses “the equipment”. The positive ideology and the social variable of power of the current American leadership are reflected. The emphasis is given to the good things that are manifested through supporting the Ukrainian army with the appropriate equipment to help themselves defend their enemy revealing the positive ideology of the American leadership. Being the president of America legitimizes him to linguistically behave so. This behavior reveals the influence of power as a social variable. The motives behind doing so are “To reveal the legitimate power” since he is the president of the United States, “To reveal the reward power” through which the Ukrainian army is rewarded for fighting the Russian army and also he wants “To reveal the referent power” through which Biden acts in a way to show himself as a model for the American presidency.

Extract (2)
So, the way I see it: The biggest risk is not going too big, if we go — it’s if we go too small. We’ve been here before. When this nation hit the Great Recession that Barack and I inherited in 2009, I was asked to lead the effort on the economic Recovery Act to get it passed. It was a big recovery package, roughly $800 billion. I did everything I could to get it passed, including getting three Republicans to change their votes and vote for it.

Extract (2) shows that Biden utilizes the euphemistic expressions “The economic Recovery Act” at the phrase level. The linguistic feature of “analogy” is activated in this extract by using the devices of “metaphor” and “hyperbole”. Thus, the euphemistic expressions “The economic Recovery Act” is metaphorically used by Biden to depict the economic recession of America as a recovery action in an exaggerated manner. Using these euphemistic expressions leads to the achievements of “To talk up and inflate” and “To reveal and inspire” functions. The first function is activated when the President exaggeratedly speaks about his role in dealing with the economic crisis of America in 2009. The second function is launched due to Biden’s speech about revealing his role to remedy the economy which in turn will inspire the American community to be positive towards such issues.

Biden launches three negative politeness strategies via using euphemistic expressions. Firstly, the strategy of “Minimise the imposition” is realized to notify the addressees about his leadership’s great efforts to remedy the recession. Secondly, the strategy of “Be pessimistic” also takes place since he exposes his disappointment about how the former leadership dealt with such a critical issue.

It is understood that Biden flouts the maxim of quantity when using euphemistic expressions in extract (2). This type of non-observance takes place because the president does not provide enough information when speaking about the recession. Instead, he speaks about his role and his leadership in rescuing the American economy from the previous recession. This flouting, therefore, achieves implicature in extract (2).

It is the positive things of the American leaders that are highlighted in this extract whereas the negative things of the former leaders of America are also highlighted and they were the reason behind the economic recession crisis at that time. Additionally, the influence of the social variable of power is revealed in extract (2) since he exploits the euphemistic expressions to describe the economic recession of America as “the economic recovery act”. This means that Biden is legitimate to employ these euphemistic expressions when talking about the economic crisis since he is the president of the United States. In doing so, the motives of “To reveal the legitimate power”, “To reveal the coercive power”, and “To reveal the referent power” are achieved. Speaking critically about the economic recession that was evident in 2009 achieves the first and second motives while depicting himself as a model to be followed and managed to find the accurate remedy for the economic recession achieves the third motive.

Extract (3)
In Illinois, for example, the state has launched a broad effort to invest in converting old power plants to solar farms, led by Governor Pritzker.
Concerning the environmental perspectives of the planet, it is explicaded in extract (3) that Biden uses the euphemistic expressions “solar plants” at the phrase level to substitute the one that has negative implications, that is, the power factories that depend on fuel. The linguistic feature of "analogy" is activated due to the device of "part for whole substitution". This means that the speaker uses the euphemistic expression "solar plants" to refer to the power system as a whole. Besides, Biden's use of the euphemistic expressions leads to the accomplishment of the "To reveal and inspire" function when talking about the matters that are related to climate change. Revealing the American plans to alter the old power plants with new technology leads the Americans to be inspired by such developments in power production.

In relation to the negative politeness strategies, it is realized that Biden executes the strategies of "Be conventionally indirect" and "Minimise the imposition" when using the euphemistic expressions in extract (3). While the first one is activated when the speaker indirectly speaks about the old power system which basically depends on fuel and, thus, pollutes the environment, the second one is activated when he tries to lessen the imposition that resulted from the old policies of America.

When talking about the old power system in an obscure manner leads to the flouting of the maxim of quantity. In other words, the insufficient information about the old and new sources of power in America by Biden flouts the maxim of quantity. In doing so, he implies that he is doing his best to make the power system of America on natural resources rather than fuel that have a negative influence on the ecological system and its expensive costs.

What has been emphasized in this extract is the positive ideology of the current leadership of America and the negative ideology of the previous leadership of America through prioritizing positive things such as those of the power system. Most importantly, it is seen that Biden openly declared his speech to the public when speaking about such critical issues. The reason behind that is that he is authorized to employ such euphemistic expressions since he is the President of the United States. Thus, the social variable of power is revealed. In doing so, the motives of "To reveal the legitimate power" and "To reveal the referent power" are activated. The first one is seen when the president aims to show that he is authorized to speak about any matter such as the ecological matter that concerns America, in particular, and the whole world, in general. The second one is understood when Biden intends to describe his leadership as the typical one in comparison to the former ones since he pays attention to the power system production and its cost.

Extract (4)

They look at the mob that stormed the United States Capitol on January 6th — brutally attacking law enforcement — not as insurrectionists who placed a dagger to the throat of our democracy, but they look at them as patriots.

Extract (4) clarifies that Biden uses the euphemistic expression “mob” at the word level to describe the people who brutally destroyed the capitol of the United States on January 6th, as he describes them. The linguistic device of “metaphor” is used to initiate the linguistic feature of “analogy” when using this euphemistic expression. More adequately, Biden metaphorically uses the word “mob” as a substation of “riot” to describe those people who attacked the capital of the United States. “To talk up and inflate” function is accomplished owing to the employment of the expression "mob". In doing so, he aims to highlight the damage of destructors during the era of Trump, the former president. As such, the negative things of the former policy are highlighted.

"Be pessimistic" is the negative politeness strategy that is initiated in extract (4). In doing so, Biden expresses his view against the negative attitudes of the former leadership by naming those who attacked the White House as patriots. The maxims of quantity and manner are flouted when using the euphemistic expression. This type of non-observance of maxims is attributed to Biden’s use of less information about those who attack the White House and, thus, makes this issue unclear to the addressee.

The positive ideology of the current American policy and negative ideology of the previous American policy are revealed since Biden uses the type of euphemistic expression that denotes so by emphasizing the positive things of his leadership and the negative things of the former leadership. The positive things are embodied by showing the damage that is caused to America by such people whereas the negative things are embodied by making those destroyers as patriots. Notably, the influence of the social variable is evident in his speech due to the employment of the euphemistic expression “the mob” when describing those protesters who brutally attacked the White House, as he described them. This means that Biden is authorized to do so since he is the President. Due to this linguistic behavior, the motives of "To reveal the legitimate power" and “To reveal the coercive power” are launched. By occupying the presidency position Biden wishes to exploit his authorized policy to linguistically punish the former leadership of America and to prioritize the current one.

Extract (5)

You know, these past weeks have seen a terrible human cost of Putin’s ambition for conquest and control. Approximately two thirds — two thirds — of all Ukrainian children have been displaced from their homes. More than 5 million Ukrainians have fled their country. It’s an absolute outrage. The idea this is happening approaching the second quarter of the 21st century is just — (sighs).

Last month, when I was in Europe, I announced that the United States would welcome 100,000 Ukrainians so that we share in the responsibility of supporting Ukrainians fleeing Putin’s war machine. We've already welcomed tens of thousands of Ukrainians to the United States.

The expressions "We've already welcomed tens of thousands of Ukrainians to the United States" that are used by Biden achieve the type of euphemistic expressions at the sentence level. Extract (5) clarifies that Biden exploits the
sentence type of euphemistic expressions to substitute the expressions "approximately two thirds — two thirds — of all Ukrainian children have been displaced from their homes". Here he wants to alter these expressions with euphemistic ones to nullify the offensive connotations that are attached to the first ones. The linguistic strategy of "analogy" is activated via the employment of the device of "hyperbole". Using this device initiates the functions of "to talk up and inflate" and "to reveal and inspire". Exaggerating the Americans' role in welcoming the Ukrainians accomplishes the purpose of the first function, whereas revealing the positive news to the Ukrainians about being welcomed will inspire them to have optimism during the war.

The negative politeness strategies of "Be conventionally indirect", "Nominalize", and "Adopt an inclusive perspective" are used by Biden when speaking about the Russian-Ukrainian war. Biden indirectly intends that it is Putin's irrational actions that lead to the destruction of Ukraine and the parting of its citizens. Using the euphemistic expressions in extract (5) reduces the amount of imposition that is caused by the war. Biden wants the Ukrainians to feel that they are in their country. Thus, minimizing the imposition strategy is achieved. Besides, Biden's use of an inclusive perspective strategy to include the Americans and the Europeans in this crisis and welcomes those innocent Ukrainians.

In addition, the achievement of implicature is attributed to Biden's flouting of the maxim of quality. This non-observance type resulted from giving insufficient information about how America welcomed the Ukrainians. The reason behind doing so is that Biden aims to implicate that it is America that helps Ukraine to defeat Russia as well as support those who left their homes. Thus, implicature is achieved due to the employment of the euphemistic expressions at the sentence level.

The President of America wants to emphasize the good of his leadership and policy and the negative of Putin's leadership and policy. Thus, the positive ideology and the negative ideology of Biden's leadership and Putin's leadership are emphasized respectively. This emphasis is influenced by the social variable of power because speaking about this critical issue requires authorization such as that of Biden. What motivates Biden to do so is "To reveal the legitimate power" and "To reveal the reward power" as well. This means that Biden aims to show his authority to speak about critical matters and, accordingly, reward the Ukrainians by welcoming them to America.

Extract (6)

Unlike Trump, we don't believe America is dark and negative, a nation driven by anger, fear, and revenge. When Trump spoke at his inauguration, he spoke about American carnage. That's what he spoke about, if you recall. At my inauguration, I spoke about American possibilities. We believe we are hopeful, an optimistic nation driven by a simple proposition that everyone deserves a fair shot.

The word carnage in the phrase "American carnage" is substituted by the euphemistic expression "nation" in the phrase "an optimistic nation". Thus, the word type of euphemistic expression is achieved in extract (6). The linguistic strategy of "analogy" is initiated by the device of part for the whole substitution. This means that Biden uses this expression to substitute all possibilities that are related to vacancies, climate change, power systems, and many others. As such, the functions of "To talk up and inflate" and "To show solidarity and help define the gang" are executed. These functions indicate that the President aims to emphasize the negative implications of Trump's policy in administering the community and to prioritize his leadership by finding the possibilities that will rescue the American community from darkness to light.

Extract (6) authenticates that the negative politeness strategies of "Be pessimistic", "Nominalize", and "Adopt an inclusive perspective" are employed by Biden. Showing the negative perspectives of Trump's administration and its bad outcomes on America and stating his name directly initiate the first two negative strategies in his speech. Besides, it is the American community that is addressed by Biden's speech, thus, the third negative politeness strategy is accomplished. The reason behind that is to criticize the former administration.

In addition, the maxim of quantity is flouted by Biden when speaking about such an important issue as Trump's era since he provides less information about how Trump parted the Americans' unity. Also, the maxim of quality is flouted by Biden when using the euphemistic expression "nation". This type of non-observance is initiated due to Biden's use of insufficient information that is concerned with Trump's role in America.

The positive ideology of the current leadership and the negative ideology of the former one(s) are emphasized due to Biden's employment of the euphemistic expressions. Accordingly, this behavior prioritizes the good things and the negative things of the current and former American leaderships respectively. It is also seen that these expressions are influenced by the social variable of power since they are saliently employed to criticize Trump's leadership of America. Consequently, the motives of "To reveal the legitimate power" and "To reveal the coercive power" are seen on the spectrum of Trump's social power. The first motive is observed when Biden critically discusses Trump's inappropriate leadership whereas the second motive is seen when Biden linguistically punishes Trump's policy in this manner.
IV. RESULTS

TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 illustrates that Biden exploits the euphemistic expressions types differently in local and global affairs speeches. In the local affairs the prominence is given to the word type followed by the phrase type (66.6%) and (33.3%) respectively. However, the sentence type is not used (0%). Besides, the same euphemistic types register an equal percentage that amounts to (33.3%) for each type (word, phrase, sentence) when they are employed by Biden in global affairs.

TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Devices</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperbole</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole for part and part for whole substitution</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understatement</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the devices of the linguistic strategy of analogy, Table 2 authenticates that Biden employs these devices differently in local and global affairs speeches. On the one hand, it is the device of metaphor that occupies the priority of use with (50%) of the employment whereas both the devices of hyperbole and whole for part and part for whole substitution register the other half of the employment (25%) for each in local affairs. On the other hand, the device of whole for part and part for whole substitution records higher employment with (66.6%) while the device of hyperbole gets less employment with a percentage of (33.4%) in global affairs. The device of understatement is not used in local and global affairs speeches with (0%).

TABLE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To talk up and inflate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reveal and inspire</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To show solidarity and help define the gang</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To shield and avoid offense</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To mystify and misrepresent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the functions of euphemistic expressions, it is presented in Table 3 that the percentages assigned to each vary in local and global affairs. The function of to talk up and inflate occupies the highest employment in local affairs with (60%), whereas the same function occupies the second rank in global affairs with (40%). In addition the function of to reveal and inspire gets frequent use with (60%) in global affairs whereas the same function receives the least employment with (20%) in local affairs speeches. Further, the function of to show solidarity and help define the gang is only seen in local affairs with (20%) while the same function is not used in global affairs. The functions to shield and avoid offense and to mystify and misrepresent are not used in both local and global affairs speeches.

TABLE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be pessimistic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimize the imposition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalize</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopt an inclusive perspective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonate S and H</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be conventionally indirect</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not incurring a debt</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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What has been emphasized in Table 4 is that the negative politeness strategies that are adopted when using the euphemistic expressions differ in use in local and global affairs. The total frequencies that are assigned to the global affairs (8 times) are higher than that given to the local affairs (6 times). In global affairs, the negative strategy of minimize the imposition is highly used with (37.5%) followed by the negative strategies of be conventionally indirect and adopt an inclusive perspective with an equal percentage of (25%) for each. The negative strategy of nominalize registers the lowest percentage (12.5%). In contrast, the negative politeness strategies of impersonate S and H, be pessimistic and be on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting H are not used in global affairs speeches. Conversely, the same negative politeness strategies are used differently. The higher emphasis is given to the negative politeness strategy of be pessimistic with (50%). The negative politeness strategies of minimize the imposition, nominalize, and adopt an inclusive perspective reach an equal percentage of (16.3%) for each. However, impersonate S and H, be conventionally indirect, and go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting H, are not used by Biden when talking about the local affairs with a percentage of (0%) for each.

### Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maxim</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the non-observance of maxims is concerned, it is found that Biden flouts the maxim of quantity more frequently than the other types in both the local and global affairs. The percentages that are given to this maxim read (66.6%) and (75%) in local and global affairs respectively. Besides, the maxim of quality receives the lowest percentages with (33.3%) and (25%) in local and global affairs respectively. In contrast, Table 5 shows that the maxims of manner and relevance are not flouted in local and global affairs speeches.

### Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive ideology</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative ideology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the positive and negative ideologies, Table 6 presents that Biden aims to reveal the positive and negative ideologies when using the euphemistic expressions. In global affairs, the positive ideology and negative ideology are equally utilized with a percentage of (50%) each. By contrast, the emphasis is given to the positive ideology more than the negative ideology in local affairs with percentages that arrive at (60%) and (40%) respectively.

### Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive</th>
<th>Local affairs</th>
<th>Global affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To reveal legitimate power</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reveal coercive power</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reveal referent power</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reveal reward power</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 illustrates that the motives of power are differently revealed when Biden exploits the euphemistic expressions in his speeches. In local affairs, the percentages that are assigned to each motive indicate that Biden aims to prioritize the motive of to reveal the legitimate power and to reveal the coercive power that amount to (42.8%) respectively whereas the motive of to reveal referent power gets (14.4%). In global affairs, approximate percentages are presented in Table 7. While the higher percentage (42.8%) is given to the motive of to reveal the legitimate power, the following equal percentage (28.6%) is given to the motives of to reveal reward power and to reveal referent power. In addition, the motive of to reveal the reward power is not used in local affairs and the same for the motive of to reveal the coercive power in global affairs both register (0%).

### V. Discussion and Conclusions

The euphemistic expressions are exemplified by using words, phrases, and sentences used for the sake of achieving certain purposes. In political contexts, Biden calls for these expressions so as to achieve the functions of to talk up and inflate, to reveal and inspire, to show solidarity and help define the gang, to shield and avoid offense, and to mystify and
misrepresent. Besides, the devices of metaphor, hyperbole, understatement, and part for whole or whole for part substitutions are used to initiate the linguistic feature of analogy. However, it is found that not all these functions are used in his speech. In local affairs, Biden frequently calls for the euphemistic types of word whereas in global affairs, it is seen that all types of euphemistic expressions are equally used. It can be inferred that the word type is appropriate for tackling the local affairs whereas all types are required to tackle the global affairs. As for the devices, metaphor receives higher emphasis in local affairs while whole for part and part for whole substitutions register higher emphasis in global affairs. This means that Biden tries to depict and exaggerate things related to local affairs, whereas he substitutes things with others and exaggerates when speaking about global affairs. The function of to talk up and inflate is mostly used so as to overstate the achievements of his leadership concerning the local affairs, whereas the function to reveal and inspire is mostly executed in global affairs to send a message that America stands to bring remedy to unfortunate matters.

1. Be pessimistic, minimize the imposition, nominalize, adopt an inclusive perspective, impersonate S and H, be conventionally indirect, and go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting S are the negative politeness strategies used in political contexts. The priority is assigned to the negative politeness strategy of be pessimistic in local affairs so as to saliently show the negative attitude of the former leaderships and their inappropriate procedures while the negative politeness strategies of minimize the imposition and be conventionally indirect are seen in global affairs to indirectly criticize the matters that are related to the globe and send a positive message that America is doing its best to make the world better.

2. Biden flouts the maxims of quantity when using the euphemistic expressions in his speeches on local and global affairs so as to initiate an implicature that the current leadership of America is present and follows planned objectives to correct what had been damaged by the former leadership and destructors of the globe.

3. The positive and negative ideologies are revealed in local affairs to show the American society that what his leadership does is the appropriate procedure whereas what other leaderships did is not. In global affairs, the positive ideology is emphasized since he wants to convince the world that America aims to make the world prosperous and safe for living. Thus, ideology influences the euphemistic expressions in his speech. Besides, the social variable of power also influences the employment of the euphemistic expressions. This influence can be explained by pertaining to the motive of to reveal legitimate power, to reveal coercive power, to reveal referent power, and to reveal reward power. In local affairs, the motive of to reveal legitimate power and to reveal coercive power are frequently reflected to show the American society that his leadership is authorized and can punish illegal or inappropriate actions by the former leadership. In global affairs, the motive of to reveal the legitimate power and to reveal reward power are used frequently to send a message to other countries that America is powerful and can reward countries with adequate procedures, solutions, and assistance as a result for any danger they may encounter.

4. Biden skilfully shapes the narrative on the engagements of America in the international affairs and economic stability by downplaying previous economic policy mistakes and emphasizing America’s support for Ukraine. In addition, Biden establishes confidence and trust with both local and foreign audiences by sophisticatedly using euphemistic language to communicate progress and hope while also recognizing previous setbacks and errors. By underlining the influence of language on forming impressions and public opinion, Biden’s use of euphemistic expressions reveals a deep awareness of the complexity of political speech and the importance of framing topics to connect with varied people.

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Asst. Prof. Faisal participated in several international as well as local conferences, participated in several workshops and seminars. She published a number of academic papers in local and international journals. Under her supervision, numerous MA theses and Ph.D. dissertations have been authored in both the English Language department and the Department of Educational and Psychological Sciences.
Investigating the Impact of Social Media Applications on Promoting EFL Learners' Oral Communication Skills: A Case Study of Saudi Universities

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Abstract—Social media platforms exert a substantial influence on the improvement of learners' spoken communication abilities. The objective of this study is to investigate the effects of incorporating social media platforms on enhancing the development of oral communication abilities among English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners enrolled in the English Department at Qassim University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). This study aims to examine the correlation between the utilization of social media applications and the enhancement of oral communication abilities among EFL learners, to determine the impact of social media on oral communication skills. The present study employed a descriptive-analytical methodology to explore the effects of utilizing social media applications on enhancing students' proficiency in oral communication abilities.

To get adequate data for this study, a survey was conducted among a sample of 40 participants. The purpose of the questionnaire is to gather data regarding the learners' perspectives on their attitudes toward utilizing social media as a means of enhancing their oral communication abilities. The questionnaire comprises a total of ten items. The survey instrument employed in this study utilizes a close-ended question format, wherein participants are instructed to select the most suitable response option by marking it. The Likert Scale questionnaire was utilized to gather statistical data. The results of the study indicated that the utilization of social media platforms among EFL learners majoring in English at universities in Saudi Arabia yielded favorable results, leading to improvements in their spoken communication abilities.

Index Terms—social media applications, information and communication technologies, oral communication skills, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

In contemporary society, social media platforms have become deeply intertwined with various facets of human existence. Social media platforms provide users with the ability to generate, disseminate, exchange, and modify many forms of material. It facilitates and fosters equitable access to information for all participants, enabling the establishment of interpersonal connections and collaborative endeavors. According to Schaffer (2013), social media mostly revolves around the transmission of knowledge through effective communication. According to Boyd (2006), social media is considered a significant Internet tool for facilitating communication and connecting individuals on a global scale. The primary objective of this study was to specifically examine EFL learners who are pursuing an English major in universities in Saudi Arabia. Upon examining the escalating prevalence of individuals utilizing social media platforms for both professional and recreational purposes, scholarly investigations have deduced that the fundamental purpose of these sites is to facilitate interpersonal contact and foster connections among individuals. According to the aforementioned description, social media can be succinctly characterized as a digital platform that enables interactive communication among many individuals via online Internet access. This implies that the objective of social media platforms is to establish and augment novel methods of interpersonal communication. Based on the aforementioned

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assertion, it can be deduced that those who utilize social media platforms are likely to be more proficient at promptly sharing knowledge with others. The aforementioned circumstances encouraged the researchers of this study to investigate the utilization of social media applications and its potential correlation with the oral communication abilities of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Saudi Arabian universities.

A. Statement of the Problem

The primary objective of this research is to examine the impact of social media platforms on the enhancement of oral communication abilities among EFL students majoring in English at universities in Saudi Arabia. Individuals employ these skills on a daily basis in their daily lives. Contemporary observations validate the prevalence of oral communication in the present era. Individuals must have the necessary competencies to effectively disseminate knowledge. Hence, the primary objective of this study is to facilitate the development of oral language proficiency. In this regard, social media applications are seen as potential platforms that can simulate authentic language use for foreign learners.

B. Research Objectives

The ultimate goal of this study is to see the effect of using social media applications on developing some oral communication skills of Saudi University Learners majoring in English. This general purpose can be categorized into some specific aims which can be interpreted as follows:

1. To determine the impact of social media on oral communication skills.
2. To examine how university learners of English build their communication skills by using social media.
3. To come up with a set of recommendations that could help the students to overcome communication problems.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Social Media

According to Manning (2014), "social media" is shorthand for innovative media forms defined by interactive participation. It's common to divide the history of media between the broadcast period and the interactive era. A single radio or television station, newspaper company, or film production studio would typically serve as the primary distributor of messages to a wide audience during the period of broadcast media. Indirect, sluggish, and impersonal feedback was common for media outlets. Limited forms of mediated communication between individuals included writing letters, talking on the phone, and occasionally using means with a somewhat larger reach, including making copies of family newsletters. Deconstructing the phrase 'social media' into its component parts—'social' and 'networks'—is the key to grasping its meaning. 'Social' is the first idea being considered; it refers to a connection with and participation in social institutions, such as interpersonal communication and spending time with people. The second idea is that of "Networks," which is shorthand for the linking together of various computer systems (Eren, 2012; Namaziandost et al., 2018). Following the reference in Namaziandost and Nasri (2019), according to Namaziandost and Nasri (2019), "social media" encompasses any technological platform that facilitates the dissemination and exchange of information over the Internet. "Writing, blogging, and the sharing of images and videos are all ways in which users of today's many social media platforms and websites can interact with one another for professional purposes. Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat, Pinterest, Instagram, and YouTube are just a few of the most well-known social networking sites.

The term "social media" refers to the widespread practice of communicating and interacting with others in real time across digital platforms such as blogs, forums, and social networking sites, as well as mobile apps. Due to the rapid growth of technology, especially the introduction of Web 2.0 and the subsequent development of Web 3.0, the worldwide education business is undergoing a substantial transition at present. Student participation in content creation, communication, and the spread of information have all benefited from technology developments in recent years. There has been a great deal of academic discussion and passionate deliberation about social media in recent years, as evidenced by in-depth analyses and heated debates within scholarly journal articles and at conferences. This discussion has primarily focused on elucidating how students' independent study might benefit from cutting-edge technological innovations. A lot of research effort has also been put into determining how much of an impact social media has had on academic success and whether or not it can be used as an effective pedagogical tool, both in and out of the classroom. At the same time, scholars have become interested in studying social media because of its broad use to learn more about its possible benefits and drawbacks in a variety of settings. This research has revealed cutting-edge ways in which computers and mobile devices can be put to use.

In conclusion, it's vital to recognize that teaching speaking skills is no easy task and that teachers must be cognizant of their students' unique requirements and preferences to help them achieve speaking competence. Teachers of EFL also tend to place a high value on and make extensive use of ICTs (information and communication technologies) in the classroom. There is little doubt that ICTs have contributed much to the growth and improvement of the educational system. Teachers should make an effort to make efficient use of technological tools. Without a doubt, this method is the most efficient way to keep things as they are. The use of ICTs in today's EFL classrooms is becoming increasingly seen as mandatory. Therefore, one could argue that teaching children how to effectively communicate and speak is no longer an option but a requirement.
B. Speaking Skill

Both students and teachers benefit greatly from developing their oral communication skills. Bygate (2002) argues that the ability to communicate effectively is intricate and multifaceted. The intricacy stems from the fact that, to communicate successfully in real-world contexts, speakers must draw upon their linguistic expertise and engage their latent abilities.

When it comes to teaching a new language, nothing beats the power of the spoken word. It has played a pivotal and complex role in the development of language education over the course of human history. The importance of teaching speaking has been undervalued for a long time, but in the last two decades, it has emerged as its own field of study (Hosseini et al., 2017). It's not just about being able to form words into sentences for someone to be considered a speaker. In order to help their students enhance their English proficiency, teachers of the language place a premium on oral communication training.

It is important to highlight that the orientation in the context of language training is used to classify the four language skills. For this purpose, we will refer to the learner's own productions of language (through speaking or writing) as "productive," and to externally directed texts (via reading or listening) as "receptive." Another crucial idea to keep in mind is "the channel," which refers to how the message is disseminated, be it verbally or in written form. Therefore, it can be said that listening and speaking are two sides of the same active talent. The procedure entails coming up with logical language formulations that convey the desired meaning.

The ability to express oneself well orally is a vital skill. Students need to have strong communication skills so they can participate in a variety of basic interactions. Individuals' prospects of success in different spheres of life are generally judged in relation to how well they perform in their unique talent, as stated by Namaziandost, Abdi Saray, and Rahimi Esfahani (2018). The aforementioned organization helps people get along with one another, sets up social hierarchies, makes it easier to advance in one's career, and makes business possible. Therefore, one may say that more thought is needed when it comes to teaching oral communication.

C. Social Media in Pedagogical Processes

Student groups' use of online social media has skyrocketed in the modern era. While many people still think of technology as simply a means of amusement, it is increasingly being used in classrooms (AbdAlgane, 2022; cited Top, 2012). Application stores offer a vast selection of low-priced and complementary software applications that could be very useful to the academic community. These programs' widespread use is a key factor in the rise of a social media-centric culture, which in turn has an undeniable impact on people's preferred methods of information exchange, instruction, and study (Mao, 2014). Lau (2012) argues that students are more likely to take initiative in their education when they have access to online social networks. Students' use of social networking sites opens up huge doors for interaction and information sharing, which is great for their intellectual growth. Mao (2014) conducted research into the affordances of social media with a focus on high school pupils. The study's overarching purpose was to get insight into students' views on contemporary technology and the challenges and concerns related to its use, particularly social media. The results showed that students have favorable opinions and perspectives on using social media in the classroom. Several kids spoke up about how they thought using social media could improve their educational opportunities. In addition, many reported having fun while using social media for academic purposes like schoolwork or unstructured, self-directed learning. Nonetheless, some students have claimed that using social media is a waste of time and a distraction (Mao, 2014).

D. Social Media in EFL

There has been a positive impact on people attempting to study a foreign language thanks to the rise of social media platforms' prominence as academic tools. Aforo's (2014) research found that Facebook quickly became the most popular social networking site among those attempting to learn English as a second or foreign language. Facebook is a useful medium for sharing, storing, and retrieving a wide range of educational material suitable for classroom discussion. In addition, Instagram has been recognized as a medium that can improve students' abilities, especially in the areas of writing and learning, according to Omar (2015). Instagram's primarily English-language video content is a reflection of its user base. Teachers can help their students learn a new language and improve their listening skills in this way. However, due to the longer time often associated with YouTube videos, students are more likely to use these as a way of audiovisual English learning as opposed to videos on Instagram. Students prefer YouTube as a tool to improve their oral communication skills, including their listening comprehension and pronunciation.

E. Social Media in Saudi Tertiary Level EFL Context

Researchers in Saudi Arabia have studied the impact of social media there extensively. Ahmed's (2016) research looked at how using Facebook affected the discussion of grammar and the development of writing skills among Saudi EFL students. Sixty students from Oklat Al Suqoor College were enlisted for the study and randomly assigned to one of two groups. After that, pre-and post-tests of grammar and composition were given to the respective groups. Post-test results for both writing and grammar were much higher for the experimental group who had been taught using the Facebook platform. Several researchers (Allam et al., 2017; Alsharidi, 2018; Alshalan, 2019) have looked at how Twitter is used in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The purpose of Alsharidi's (2018) research was to investigate the
prevalence of Twitter use among Saudi female EFL students. She concluded that Twitter was a major factor in the improvement of the students' English. Alshalan (2019) investigated the effectiveness of Twitter as a resource for boosting the vocabulary of Saudi EFL students. The results of the study showed that students' writing and reading abilities improved after they used social networking sites. Ali and Bin-Hady (2019), Almogheerah (2021), Alshammari et al. (2017), Bensalem (2018), and Khan et al. (2021) are just a few of the authors who have looked into WhatsApp from an academic perspective. Bensalem (2018) compared the effectiveness of using WhatsApp with more traditional methods of instruction while teaching vocabulary to EFL students in Saudi Arabia. Both undergraduate and graduate students participated in the study. The results showed that the WhatsApp-using experimental group outperformed the control group that received conventional teaching methods. Almogheerah's (2021) research looked at how idiomatic expressions were learned and how WhatsApp-based activities helped EFL students in Saudi Arabia. Imam Mohammad ibn Saud University's EFL program provided the study's sample population of 70 female students. The methodology of the investigation was experimental. As shown by the data, the members of the experimental group learned many more idioms than those in the control group. Recent research by Albahiri and Alhaj (2020) and Al Harbi (2021) found that EFL students at Saudi universities benefited greatly from using YouTube to improve their language skills.

Research questions:
1. What is the effect of social media applications on the English major at Saudi Universities?
2. How far are social media applications effective on promoting the oral communication skills of EFL students of the English major at Saudi Universities?

F. The Use of Online Applications as a Means of Instruction for Better Public Speaking

Students have a background in using social media for personal communication and amusement. This opened the door for the researchers to make use of social media sites like TikTok, YouTube, Instagram, Skype, Facebook, WhatsApp, WeChat, and Telegram to improve the teaching of public speaking. Several of the stated platforms, such as ooVoo, Ted Talks, Imo, and Voice Thread, were either not well-known or rarely used. YouTube was found to be the most popular social media platform, used in a number of the probes. The results of the tests conducted show that researchers were able to effectively use WhatsApp to improve verbal communication outside of the classroom. Instagram, a popular social media platform among the target audience of young people, produced similar results. Participants in a study performed using Instagram gave the app high marks as a helpful tool for learning a new language. This view held true even among the weaker and less active students.

In general, the comments were encouraging, showing that the speaker had improved their oral communication skills, as well as their motivation and confidence in their own words. Nilayon and Brahmakasikara (2018) suggest using social media sites like Edmodo and ooVoo to provide appropriate remedial exercises for students with low English proficiency. Ghoneim and Abeldalsalam (2016) argued that spending time with others is crucial for developing one's voice. Sevy-Biloon and Chroman (2019) conducted research that emphasizes the significance of using video chat functions as a tool for learners to engage in genuine and purposeful communicative activities, with an emphasis on the growth of oral communication skills. Educators and teachers could help students overcome their fear of public speaking by creating a class environment that is natural and comfortable for them to speak in, all while using this strategy. Zaitun et al. (2021) used the video-sharing app TikTok as a setting for students to practice public speaking. The results of the study showed that when students interactively used the app, they saw significant improvements in their language skills. TikTok also gave pupils a platform for self-expression, which was a significant benefit. The Instagram photographs used in Rahmah's (2018) study were an innovative way to boost students' linguistic skills and confidence.

Marleni and Asilestari (2018) conducted a study to see if and how WhatsApp affected students' verbal skills. Class A second-semester students make up the experimental group, while class B students make up the control group in this study. The researchers used a quasi-experimental approach based on purposive sampling. Pre- and post-tests, as well as questionnaires and photographs, were used to compile the data. The results of the data analysis and subsequent discussion suggest that the experimental class students outperformed their control group counterparts in terms of oral communication skills. According to the results, more students in the WhatsApp group performed well on the quiz than in the control group.

III. Method

The descriptive-analytical research method has been adopted in this study so that the researchers are enabled to describe a specific behavior as it takes place in a particular environment then analyze and discuss the results. In this study, the researchers used the descriptive-analytical method using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), to achieve accurate results in an attempt to describe the research problem as it is. A closed-form questionnaire was used to obtain reliable and valid data for the study. The questionnaire was designed to elicit the influence of social media applications on developing EFL learners' oral communication skills.

Research questions:
The present study attempts to answer the following questions with regard to the impact of social media applications on improving students' oral communication skills:
1. What is the effect of social media applications on developing some oral communication skills of EFL students of the English major at Saudi Universities?
2. How far are social media applications effective on promoting the oral communication skills of EFL students of the English major at Saudi Universities?
IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The objective of this study was to examine the influence of social media applications on the development of oral communication skills among Saudi university students who are pursuing a degree in English. The survey was distributed to individuals who are studying English as a second language. This section is dedicated to presenting the statistical replies obtained from the data collection method, which is the students’ questionnaire. Additionally, it aims to examine the findings derived from these statistics. The findings were given and subsequently analyzed in the subsequent section.

1. I use social media in my daily life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 1, a significant majority of respondents, specifically 90.8%, express agreement or strong agreement on using social media as a regular part of their daily routines. 7.4% of individuals express a neutral stance, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. 1.9% of respondents expressed significant opposition towards using social media in their daily routines, while no comments suggested any form of dissent. The data suggests that a significant percentage of individuals (90.8%) incorporate social media into their daily routines. At the same time, a minority has a neutral stance, and an even smaller fraction actively expresses disagreement with its usage.

The calculated mean value of 4.16 suggests that, on average, the respondents tend to prefer "Strongly agree" or "Agree" about their utilization of social media within their daily routines. This finding indicates that a substantial proportion of participants frequently use social media platforms. The observed standard deviation of 0.6177 indicates a reasonably low level of variability in the data. This implies that the responses exhibit a high degree of proximity to the mean, suggesting a limited extent of variation in the responses. Most participants express agreement, with a notable proportion falling into the "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" categories, while a minority of respondents belong to the remaining categories. In general, the figures mentioned earlier indicate that the utilization of social media in individuals' everyday lives is prevalent among the participants, exhibiting a substantial degree of consensus among them.

2. I use social media applications for educational purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>57.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the findings presented in Table 2, a considerable proportion of individuals (74.1%) express agreement or strong agreement on their utilization of social media applications for educational intentions. About this remark, it is noteworthy that 57.4% of individuals agree, while 16.7% exhibit a strong inclination towards agreement. A minority of respondents (24.1%) hold a neutral stance on the subject, whereas a mere 1.9% express significant disapproval towards using social media for educational objectives. Notably, no responses indicate outright dissent. This observation implies that many individuals perceive social media as valuable for acquiring knowledge and engaging in educational activities.

The calculated mean value of 3.87 indicates that, on average, survey participants tend to lean towards the "Agree" or "Neutral" response options when considering using social media applications for educational objectives. This finding suggests that a significant proportion of participants express either agreement or neutrality toward using social media for educational objectives. The calculated standard deviation value of 0.70 suggests a modest variability in the collected data. The distribution of responses in the current question has a slightly wider range than the preceding question. At the same time, most respondents still seem to align with the "Agree" or "Neutral" options. A range of responses is observed, with many participants expressing strong agreement, a portion remaining neutral, and a minority expressing disagreement or severe disagreement. The figures mentioned earlier indicate a favorable inclination towards utilizing social media applications for educational objectives, albeit with certain discrepancies in the degree of consensus among the participants.

3. I use the different existing social media applications that can be used to improve oral communication skills.
According to Table 3, the data suggests that a significant proportion of individuals (65.9%) express agreement or strong agreement on their utilization of various established social media platforms to enhance their proficiency in oral communication. More precisely, 51.9% of respondents agree, while 13% strongly agree with the assertion, as mentioned earlier. A considerable proportion (29.6%) of respondents exhibit a neutral stance toward the subject matter, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement with the utilization of social media as a means to enhance oral communication abilities. A minority of respondents (3.7%) express disagreement, while a smaller proportion (1.9%) strongly disagrees with the earlier assertion. In general, the research indicates that a significant proportion of individuals perceive the utility of utilizing social media platforms to augment their proficiency in verbal communication. However, there exists a spectrum of perspectives regarding this subject matter.

Based on the findings shown in Table 3, a considerable percentage of respondents (65.9%) indicate a positive inclination or a high level of agreement about utilizing diverse established social media platforms to improve their oral communication skills. To clarify further, it is worth noting that 51.9% of the participants agreed, while 13% strongly agreed with the assumption, as mentioned earlier. A substantial segment (29.6%) of participants demonstrates a neutral position regarding the topic, indicating their absence of concurrence or disagreement with using social media to improve oral communication skills. A small percentage of participants (3.7%) indicate disagreement, while an even smaller fraction (1.9%) strongly opposes the previous statement. Overall, the existing study suggests that a considerable fraction of people view the efficacy of employing social media platforms to enhance their competence in verbal communication. Nevertheless, there is a range of viewpoints concerning this particular topic.

4. I usually use social media to talk with native speakers of English around the world.

According to Table 4, it can be observed that a majority of respondents, namely 51.9%, express agreement with the notion that they utilize social media programs as a means to engage in conversations with individuals who are native speakers of the English language residing in various parts of the globe. A total of 16.7% of respondents expressed strong agreement with the statement, as mentioned earlier. A significant proportion of individuals, specifically 42.3%, express disagreement or strong disagreement regarding using social media for this particular objective. A significant proportion of respondents, specifically 25.9%, expressed a neutral stance towards the topic, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. The data indicates that a notable proportion of participants (51.9%) perceive merit in utilizing social media platforms as a means of engaging in communication with individuals proficient in the English language and belonging to various geographical locations. Conversely, a subset of respondents has neutral or unfavorable perspectives regarding this particular application of social media.

The calculated mean value of 3.61 indicates that, on average, survey participants tend to prefer the "Agree" or "Neutral" response options about their inclination to utilize social media platforms for communication with native English speakers across the globe. This finding suggests that many participants either express agreement or maintain a neutral stance towards utilizing social media platforms for language exchange. The calculated standard deviation of 0.83 suggests a modest variability in the collected responses. Although most replies seem to align with the "Agree" or "Neutral" positions, the data shows a certain degree of variability. Respondents have various perspectives regarding the utilization of social media as a means of communication with native English speakers to enhance language proficiency. These perspectives encompass strong agreement, neutrality, and disagreement or extreme disagreement.

5. Students who use social media learn more oral communication skills than those who do not.

According to Table 5, it can be observed that a significant proportion of respondents (65.9%) express agreement or strong agreement on their utilization of various established social media platforms to enhance their proficiency in oral communication. More precisely, 51.9% of respondents agree, while 13% strongly agree with the assertion, as mentioned earlier. A considerable proportion (29.6%) of respondents exhibit a neutral stance toward the subject matter, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement with the utilization of social media as a means to enhance oral communication abilities. A minority of respondents (3.7%) express disagreement, while a smaller proportion (1.9%) strongly disagrees with the earlier assertion. In general, the research indicates that a significant proportion of individuals perceive the utility of utilizing social media platforms to augment their proficiency in verbal communication. However, there exists a spectrum of perspectives regarding this subject matter.

Based on the findings shown in Table 3, a considerable percentage of respondents (65.9%) indicate a positive inclination or a high level of agreement about utilizing diverse established social media platforms to improve their oral communication skills. To clarify further, it is worth noting that 51.9% of the participants agreed, while 13% strongly agreed with the assumption, as mentioned earlier. A substantial segment (29.6%) of participants demonstrates a neutral position regarding the topic, indicating their absence of concurrence or disagreement with using social media to improve oral communication skills. A small percentage of participants (3.7%) indicate disagreement, while an even smaller fraction (1.9%) strongly opposes the previous statement. Overall, the existing study suggests that a considerable fraction of people view the efficacy of employing social media platforms to enhance their competence in verbal communication. Nevertheless, there is a range of viewpoints concerning this particular topic.

4. I usually use social media to talk with native speakers of English around the world.

According to Table 4, it can be observed that a majority of respondents, namely 51.9%, express agreement with the notion that they utilize social media programs as a means to engage in conversations with individuals who are native speakers of the English language residing in various parts of the globe. A total of 16.7% of respondents expressed strong agreement with the statement, as mentioned earlier. A significant proportion of individuals, specifically 42.3%, express disagreement or strong disagreement regarding using social media for this particular objective. A significant proportion of respondents, specifically 25.9%, expressed a neutral stance towards the topic, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. The data indicates that a notable proportion of participants (51.9%) perceive merit in utilizing social media platforms as a means of engaging in communication with individuals proficient in the English language and belonging to various geographical locations. Conversely, a subset of respondents has neutral or unfavorable perspectives regarding this particular application of social media.

The calculated mean value of 3.61 indicates that, on average, survey participants tend to prefer the "Agree" or "Neutral" response options about their inclination to utilize social media platforms for communication with native English speakers across the globe. This finding suggests that many participants either express agreement or maintain a neutral stance towards utilizing social media platforms for language exchange. The calculated standard deviation of 0.83 suggests a modest variability in the collected responses. Although most replies seem to align with the "Agree" or "Neutral" positions, the data shows a certain degree of variability. Respondents have various perspectives regarding the utilization of social media as a means of communication with native English speakers to enhance language proficiency. These perspectives encompass strong agreement, neutrality, and disagreement or extreme disagreement.

5. Students who use social media learn more oral communication skills than those who do not.
According to the data presented in Table 5, a majority of respondents, namely 66%, expressed agreement or strong agreement that students who utilize social media platforms tend to acquire superior oral communication abilities compared to their counterparts who do not engage in such activities. A proportion of 24.5% of individuals exhibit a neutral stance towards the topic, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. 11.2% of respondents express disagreement or severe disagreement regarding the notion that students who engage in social media activities have enhanced oral communication abilities. In general, a considerable proportion of participants (66%) believe using social media can improve students' proficiency in oral communication. Conversely, a smaller fraction of respondents maintains neutral or unfavorable perspectives.

The calculated mean value of 3.57 indicates that, on average, the respondents tend to express agreement or neutrality about the assertion that pupils who utilize social media acquire more proficiency in oral communication abilities compared to those who abstain from its use. The data suggests that a significant proportion of participants express agreement or neutrality towards the notion that using social media contributes to enhancing oral communication abilities. The calculated standard deviation of 1.10 suggests a notable degree of variability in the collected responses. Although most replies seem to align with the "Agree" or "Neutral" positions, there is a notable variation in the distribution of opinions. A range of responses exist among the participants, including strong agreement, neutrality, and disagreement about the given statement. In general, as mentioned earlier, the results indicate a diverse range of opinions regarding the influence of social media usage on students' oral communication abilities, with a discernible disparity in the degree of consensus among the participants.

6. I communicate with my teachers outside the classroom by using social media applications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 presents the data. A significant majority of respondents, including 71.3%, express agreement or strong agreement on using social media applications to communicate with their teachers beyond the confines of the classroom. 17.3% of respondents exhibit a neutral stance towards the subject matter, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. A total of 13.4% of respondents expressed their disagreement or strong disagreement about using social media to communicate with teachers beyond the confines of the classroom. The data suggests that a significant proportion of participants (71.3%) demonstrate a willingness to or actively participate in communication with their educators via social media platforms beyond the confines of the traditional classroom setting. Conversely, a smaller fraction of respondents holds neutral or unfavorable perspectives regarding this approach.

The calculated mean value of 3.85 indicates that, on average, participants tend to express agreement or strong agreement on the assertion that they communicate with their teachers outside of the classroom through social media platforms. This finding suggests that a significant proportion of participants agree or strongly agree with this particular behavior. The standard deviation (0.89) implies a modest level of variability in the replies. While the mean trends towards "Agree" or "Strongly Agree," there is some variance in the replies. Respondents have a range of perspectives about using social media as a means of connecting with teachers beyond the confines of the classroom. These perspectives encompass strong agreement, agreement, neutrality, disagreement, and extreme disagreement. In general, the data indicates that a significant proportion of participants is receptive to or actively participates in communication with their instructors via social media platforms beyond the confines of the educational setting. However, there is some variability in the extent of concurrence among the responses.

7. Using social media applications allows increased amounts of oral communication skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7</th>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 7, a significant proportion of respondents, specifically 44.5%, agreed or strongly agreed on the positive impact of social media applications on enhancing oral communication skills. 31.5% of individuals express a neutral stance towards the topic, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. A significant proportion of individuals, namely 24.1%, express disagreement or severe disagreement with the notion that using social media applications contributes to enhancing oral communication abilities. The data indicates that a considerable proportion of participants (44.5%) believe that utilizing social media platforms can contribute to improving oral communication abilities. However, many respondents maintain neutral or unfavorable perspectives about this notion.
The calculated mean value of 3.38 indicates that, on average, the respondents exhibit a small inclination towards a "Neutral" stance regarding the statement that using social media applications facilitates the development of enhanced oral communication abilities. This finding suggests that the participants, on average, exhibit a moderate level of agreement or disagreement with the given statement. The calculated standard deviation of 1.24 suggests moderate variability in the collected data. Although the average tends to be "Neutral," there is variation in the responses. A range of responses was observed among the participants, with some expressing agreement or strong agreement, others adopting a neutral stance, and a subset expressing disagreement or strong disagreement on the notion that social media applications contribute to improving oral communication abilities. In general, the figures mentioned earlier indicate a heterogeneous opinion concerning the influence of social media applications on oral communication abilities, with a discernible disparity in the degree of consensus among the participants.

8. Social media applications motivate learners and contribute to developing oral communication skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 8, a significant majority of respondents, specifically 68.5%, expressed agreement or strong agreement with the positive impact of social media applications on learner motivation and the development of oral communication skills. Approximately 27.8% of individuals have a neutral stance toward the topic, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. A minority of 3.7% holds a dissenting viewpoint regarding the notion that social media applications enhance spoken communication abilities. The data suggests that a significant proportion of participants (68.5%) believe that social media platforms can serve as a source of motivation for learners and facilitate the enhancement of oral communication abilities. Conversely, fewer respondents express neutral or unfavorable perspectives regarding this notion.

The calculated mean value of 3.95 indicates that, on average, survey participants agree that social media platforms serve as a source of motivation for learners and enhance their oral communication abilities. This finding suggests that a significant proportion of participants agree or strongly agree with the statement, as mentioned earlier. The calculated standard deviation of 0.74 suggests a modest variability in the collected responses. Although most replies seem to align with the "Agree" category, a certain degree of variability is observed in the data. Respondents have a range of opinions about the extent to which social media applications serve as a source of motivation for learners and facilitate the development of oral communication skills. Some respondents express strong agreement, while others agree. Additionally, some respondents remain neutral or contrary to this matter. In general, the statistics mentioned earlier indicate a favorable inclination towards the notion that social media platforms serve as a source of motivation for learners and facilitate enhancing oral communication abilities. However, it is worth noting that there exists some variability in the extent of agreement among the participants.

9. From my personal study experience, I find that the impact of social media applications on promoting oral communication skills is valuable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 9, a significant proportion of respondents, specifically 28.2%, agreed or strongly agreed about the perceived value of social media applications in enhancing oral communication skills based on their personal study experience. Approximately 48.15% of individuals hold a neutral stance on the subject matter, signifying their lack of agreement or disagreement. A significant proportion of individuals, namely 22.22%, express either disagreement or strong disagreement about the notion that social media applications benefit the enhancement of oral communication abilities, drawing from their own experiences with academic studies. The data suggests a rather equitable dispersion of perspectives about this subject matter, with a noteworthy proportion of participants adopting a neutral stance. Conversely, a subset of individuals expresses favorable or unfavorable sentiments, which appear to be influenced by their individualized educational encounters.

The calculated mean value of 3.04 indicates that, on average, participants tend to express a slightly neutral inclination about the statement regarding the perceived use of social media applications in enhancing oral communication skills within their personal study experience. This finding suggests that, on average, the respondents exhibit a neutral stance towards the statement, showing neither strong agreement nor disagreement. The calculated standard deviation of 0.35
suggests relatively little variability in the replies. The responses exhibit a tight clustering around the mean, indicating a notable consensus among the participants. Most participants exhibit a neutral stance or a degree of agreement with the given assertion. In general, the statistics mentioned earlier indicate that the respondents hold a predominantly neutral or slightly positive stance regarding the influence of social media applications on enhancing oral communication skills, as inferred from their individual study experiences. Notably, there is minimal disparity in the degree of agreement among the respondents.

10. Social media applications should be an additional teaching resource.

TABLE 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the data presented in Table 10, a significant majority of respondents, 62.9%, agreed or strongly agreed that social media applications should be considered supplementary resources for educational purposes. Approximately 29.6% of individuals exhibit a neutral stance toward the subject matter, signifying a lack of agreement or disagreement. A total of 8.4% of respondents express disagreement or strong disagreement with using social media applications as supplementary tools for educational purposes. The data indicates that a significant proportion of participants (62.9%) believe that social media applications can be a supplementary educational tool. Conversely, fewer respondents expressed neutral or unfavorable perspectives toward integrating social media into teaching.

The calculated mean value of 3.68 indicates that, on average, the respondents agree that social media applications should be considered supplementary tools for educational purposes. This finding suggests that a significant proportion of participants agree or strongly agree with the statement, as mentioned earlier. The calculated standard deviation of 0.99 suggests considerable variability in the collected responses. Although most replies seem to align with the "Agree" category, the data has a certain degree of variability. There exists a range of opinions among respondents about the utilization of social media applications as supplementary educational tools. These opinions span from strong agreement to neutrality, disagreement, and extreme disagreement. The figures mentioned earlier indicate a favorable inclination towards utilizing social media applications as supplementary educational tools, albeit with some degree of disparity in the extent of concurrence among the participants.

V. CONCLUSION

The survey findings suggest that social media is extensively utilized in the everyday routines of the questioned demographic, with a noticeable surge in the inclination towards employing social media platforms for educational objectives. The impact of social media on oral communication skills is subject to varying viewpoints. However, social media can enhance teacher-student communication and be a supplementary educational tool. In order to fully utilize the educational capabilities of social media, it is advisable to conduct additional research, engage in professional development, and advocate for best practices. These measures are necessary to guarantee the successful integration of social media into the educational process.

A. Results

1. Social Media Usage: A significant proportion of participants express a high level of agreement regarding their regular utilization of social media, highlighting its extensive adoption throughout the examined cohort.
2. Educational Use: A considerable proportion of participants express their inclination towards utilizing social media applications for educational objectives, indicating an emerging pattern in harnessing these platforms for learning.
3. Improving Oral Communication Skills: While a considerable percentage of individuals agree with the utilization of social media programs as a means to improve spoken communication abilities, a notable part maintains a neutral position regarding this issue. This observation demonstrates that there are varied interpretations regarding the efficacy of social media in this setting.
4. Communication with Native Speakers: The utilization of social media by respondents for communication purposes with native English speakers exhibits a varied pattern, with a significant proportion falling under the neutral category. This observation suggests the possibility of enhancing these relationships.
5. Impact on Learning: The issue of whether students who engage in social media platforms acquire superior oral communication abilities compared to their non-engaging counterparts is a subject of contention, with a substantial proportion of individuals adopting a neutral stance. This observation implies that the influence of social media on educational achievements could vary depending on individual experiences.
6. Communication with Teachers: A significant proportion of participants concurs that they communicate with their instructors beyond the confines of the classroom through the utilization of social media platforms, hence emphasizing its significance in augmenting connections between professors and students.
7. Increased Oral Communication Skills: There is a diverse range of opinions on whether social media applications allow for increased amounts of oral communication skills. Many respondents are neutral, indicating a need for further investigation into the effectiveness of social media in this context.

8. Motivation and Skill Development: There is a division among respondents regarding the extent to which social media applications serve as a source of motivation for learners and contribute to enhancing oral communication skills. While a notable proportion of individuals agree, some respondents hold neutral or disagreeing viewpoints, suggesting the existence of potential areas for enhancement in utilizing social media for motivation and skill enhancement.

9. Personal Study Experience: A considerable proportion of participants demonstrate a neutral stance toward social media platforms’ influence on enhancing oral communication abilities, as indicated by their individual research experiences.

10. Additional Teaching Resource: Evidence suggests that social media applications can serve as a supplementary educational tool, as indicated by a significant proportion of respondents expressing agreement or strong agreement.

B. Implications

1. Diverse Perceptions: The findings demonstrate the various opinions regarding the importance of social media in education and skill development. Educators must consider the aspect of diversity when integrating social media into their pedagogical approaches.

2. Opportunity for Improvement: The varied opinions surrounding the influence of social media on verbal communication abilities indicate a necessity for additional investigation and the establishment of optimal methods for successfully incorporating social media into language acquisition.

3. Enhancing Teacher-Student Communication: The positive response about communicating with teachers outside the classroom via social media implies that educators can use these platforms to develop better teacher-student connections and assist students' learning needs.

C. Recommendations

Professional Development: Educators must get comprehensive training to proficiently utilize social media platforms for educational objectives, including enhancing oral communication proficiencies.

1. Research and Assessment: Educational institutions must allocate resources towards researching to evaluate social media's influence on learning outcomes, with particular emphasis on the development of oral communication abilities.

2. Promotion of Best Practices: Educational institutions must establish comprehensive standards and adopt optimal methodologies for utilizing social media platforms within the educational context to maximize the advantages they offer.

3. Encouraging Cross-Cultural Communication: Educational institutions and instructors have the potential to foster language proficiency among students by promoting the utilization of social media platforms as a means of communication with native speakers.

D. Limitations

The scope of this study was limited to a certain cohort of subjects and an educational institution. Conducting a comparable study that targets university students from different institutions and thereafter comparing the outcomes of such investigations would yield considerable academic interest. This study aimed to identify the shared oral skills requirements within the Arabic-speaking population, thus further studies could be conducted to investigate EFL learners who speak other languages as their mother tongue.

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REFERENCES


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Ethnolinguistic Study of Marine Fishes’ Characters of the Biak Tribe, Papua

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Insum Malawat
Indonesian Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Papua, Manokwari, Indonesia

Abstract—This study aimed to describe lexical and cultural meaning of marine fish characters from the perspective of the Biak tribe, Papua. The Ethnolinguistics method used was assisted by Charles Carpenter Fries' lexical and cultural meaning theory. Lexical or general meaning referred to denotation, while cultural meaning described the connotation of the Biak tribe. The data was obtained from an informant belonging to the Biak tribe, possessing comprehensive knowledge of the nomenclature, morphology, and cultural significance of marine fish used. Meanwhile, data was collected using interviews, recording, listening, and note-taking methods. The analysis was done by identifying fish names according to characteristics and traits before classifying them into lexical and cultural meanings. The results showed 13 types of the Biak marine fish, whose characteristics were similar to humans.

Index Terms—lexical meaning, cultural meaning, fish, ethnolinguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a cultural product created by the conventions of a group of tribes. Meanwhile, naming or labelling is an artistic convention containing the perspective of a particular group. In this context, culture and language are mutually connected into a cohesive and integrated entity (Sugiarto, 2017; Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019; Arafah et al., 2023a). Language serves as a reflection of culture, enabling individuals to discern and appreciate the cultural identity of speakers (Hasyim & Arafah, 2023b; Takwa et al., 2024). Cultural development can be seen in the language used since the concept is directly proportional to the level of civilization of an ethnic group (Arifin et al., 2022; Arnawa & Arafah, 2023).

The Biak tribe is a native Papuan population originating from the Biak Regency with several local terms used in the regional language. These local terms refer to multiple biotic and abiotic components or events, such as names of marine life, musical instruments, as well as plants and place names. The Biak tribe live in coastal areas, and their main livelihood is fishing. This geography influences the strong emotional ties between the Biak tribe, sea, culture and language, reflected in various local terms. Specifically, the characteristics of several marine biota are compared with those of the Biak tribe in a positive or negative context. As a cultural product, naming various sea fish is a marker that differentiates the Biak tribe from others in viewing the ocean. This occurs because geographical conditions also influence culture's growth and development, including character formation, perspective and method of treating nature (Suhadi et al., 2022; Arafah et al., 2021; Takwa et al., 2022a).

Ethnolinguistic study is the science that analyzes language and culture in society (Siwi et al., 2022; Manuger en et al., 2023). Furthermore, it explores the variations and use of language related to developments over time, beliefs, the influence of ethnic habits of specific tribes, differences in areas of communication, kinship systems with the speaker's culture, and the customs of an ethnic group (Awaluddin, 2016; Mokoginta & Arafah, 2022). The ethnolinguistic study focuses on lexical and cultural meaning of marine fish species as well as characteristics and habitat from the perspective of the Biak tribe in Papua. In social and cultural contexts, the branch of linguistics discipline is used to explore language (Foley, 2001; Widiatmoko, 2022; Arafah et al., 2020; Takwa et al., 2022b; Asri et al., 2023). Ethnolinguistic study of marine fish characters can explore the linguistic forms and meanings recorded in fish types, habitats, and characters, as well as wisdom values (Kaharuddin et al., 2022; Arafah et al., 2024) in the form of social values. Wardoyo and Sulaiman (2017) conducted a study entitled Ethnolinguistics in the Naming of Building Names in the Yogyakarta Palace. This study examined the naming of buildings in the Yogyakarta palace and its ritual ceremonies from an ethnolinguistic perspective.

Mofu (2018) conducted a study entitled The Biak People’s Proverbs in Various Sea Fish (Oral Folklore Study) to analyze the relevance of proverbs with the Biak tribe's views on the nature of sea fish. The study entitled Lexical
Meaning and Cultural Meaning of Names of Food and Equipment in Toba Batak Traditional Ceremonies: Ethnolinguistic Study was carried out by Harahap et al. (2023) to determine lexical and cultural meanings of the names of food and equipment used in Toba Batak traditional ceremonies in Simangumban District, North Tapanuli Regency. Rizkia et al. (2023) conducted another study titled Lexical Meaning and Cultural Meaning of Ornaments and Historical Relics in the Tuo Rantau Panjang House: An Ethnolinguistic Study to determine lexical and cultural meanings of the ornaments and historical relics at the Tuo Rantau Panjang House in Merangin Regency, Jambi Province.

Many tribes performed analyses using ethnolinguistic methods with the object of marine fish (Asriyanti et al., 2022; Usman et al., 2024). This study is essential because cultural practitioners, academics, and marine or fisheries can use the results to add references related to cultural names, characteristics and fish habitats. The close relationship between humans and the natural environment creates an emotional relationship, reflected in regional language vocabulary (Arafah et al., 2023c; Yudith et al., 2024).

II. THEORETICAL STUDY

Ethnolinguistics comes from the words ethnic and linguistic. Ethno is the ‘science that analyzes tribes’, while linguistics investigates the intricacies of everyday human language (Sudaryanto, 1996; Mutmainnah et al., 2022; Baa et al., 2023). Ethnolinguistics focuses on the analysis of language, representing a particular culture. This scientific analysis has a role in recording cultural phenomena as evidence of linguistic and cultural aspects (Rahayu & Permana, 2004; Sunyoto et al., 2022; Yudith et al., 2023). The ethnolinguistic method is used to uncover cultural phenomena in the form of lexicons (Fadillah et al., 2022; Harahap et al., 2023) with contextual meaning (Hasjim et al., 2020; Hasyim & Arafah, 2023a).

Ethnolinguistics is (1) a branch of linguistics investigating the relationship between language and rural tribes. In addition, the field is also known as anthropological linguistics, (2) a branch of anthropological linguistics examining the relationship between language and linguistic attitudes towards language (Kridalaksana, 2001; Arafah et al., 2020; Iksona et al., 2022). According to Mbete (2007), ethnolinguistics is also called anthropological or cultural linguistics, which dissects the choice of language use, methods and thought patterns (Hasyim et al., 2020; Arafah & Hasyim, 2023a). Meanwhile, Abdullah (2013) reported that this branch of linguistics was related to the dimensions of language (vocabulary, phrases, clauses, and discourse) in broader social and cultural dimensions to promote and maintain cultural practices and the social structure of society (Sunardi et al., 2018; Yulianti et al., 2022; Arafah & Hasyim, 2023b).

The ethnolinguistic study is limited to selfish names’ lexical and cultural meanings. Ethnolinguistics views language from an anthropological perspective by showing the meaning of the use and misuse of language from different styles (Maize et al., 2021; Hasyim et al., 2023; Kaharuddin et al., 2023).

In language, meaning can be divided into lexical and cultural aspects (Fries in Tarigan, 2016; Afiah et al., 2022; Arafah & Hasyim, 2023b). Linguistic meaning is general and easy to recognize in line with the speaker's agreement (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019; Afiah et al., 2022). According to Wijana (2015), lexical meaning is defined by the linguistic units without combining them with other languages. Meanwhile, cultural meaning is obtained from the mindset and culture of the speaking tribe (Kaharuddin et al., 2021; Purwaningsih et al., 2022). With ethnolinguistics, meaning related to language structure and culture can be obtained. This branch of linguistics describes language structure, function, and use in sociocultural situations (Anggrawan et al., 2019; Arafah, 2023c).

III. STUDY METHODS

This study adopted a qualitative paradigm (Malawat & Hengki, 2021; Abidin & Kaharuddin, 2021; Kaharuddin et al., 2023) with an ethnolinguistic method used as a scalpel to analyze language in the sociocultural context of the Biak tribe. The method examined the relationship between language and culture, specifically to observe the use of language within tribe groups (Zuhria et al., 2022; Mardiana et al., 2023; Kaharuddin et al., 2024). This data consists of 13 names of marine fish from the Biak Regency, Papua Province, Indonesia. The data sources comprised three tribal chiefs: Mr Demianus Mofu, Yunus Padwa, and Yunus Maran, aged 72, 65, and 57. The informant understood fish names in the Biak tribal terms and cultural meanings. Meanwhile, data was obtained using interview and documentation methods (Malawat & Hengki, 2023; Kaharuddin, 2022; Kuswanty et al., 2023). Data were collected through literature, interviews, recording, and note-taking (Arafah et al., 2023b). Furthermore, data analysis was performed by identifying, exploring, interpreting and concluding.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the results of data analysis obtained during the study. Approximately 13 types of marine fish have cultural meanings from the perspective of the Biak tribe. Fish names were analyzed based on their meaning using ethnolinguistic methods. Fries divides the meaning into linguistic and social. In addition, the linguistic meaning is divided into lexical and structural (Fries in Tarigan, 2016; Halil et al., 2024).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Local Name (Biak)</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Picture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1   | Indur Sarfer (Squirrelfish) | - Has three species  
- Living in a tropical reef  
- Move backwards and forward while making sounds in its throat  
- Popularly known as stone fish | ![Squirrelfish] |
| 2   | Aruken (Pufferfish) | - Big belly  
- Thorny and non-thorny  
- Sensitive  
- Very protective  
- When touched, the stomach grows up like a balloon  
- Give sound while the stomach is growing up | ![Pufferfish] |
| 3   | Inasar (Barracuda) | - It consists of three species.  
- Agile and nimble  
- Aggressive  
- When disturbed, will rage and blind  
- Stabbing from the front is a form of resistance  
- Large and small *sako and sou* | ![Barracuda] |
| 4   | Aunower (Suckerfish) | - Very small in stature  
- Often attached to or following large fish  
- Black in colour  
- measuring 10-20 centimeters  
- Resembling the Nine fish  
- Front head plate | ![Suckerfish] |
| 5   | Kaibam (Bumphead Parrotfish) | - Big and wide  
- Blue in colour  
- Live in groups  
- When shocked, it will hit whatever is in front of it (nets/rocks) | ![Bumphead Parrotfish] |
| 6   | Inarar (Flatfish) | - Very aggressive but sensitive  
- When stepped on, it will run forward and back away to hide. | ![Flatfish] |
| 7   | Indaf (Coral Trout) | - Very aggressive  
- If you see the bait, you immediately ambush it without leaving anything behind.  
- Everything in front of him was brushed away. | ![Coral Trout] |
| 8   | Insir (Emperor) | - Body as big as the palm of your hand  
- The colour is slightly brownish white  
- Eat little by little and usually leave the food in the mouth. | ![Emperor] |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Fish Name (Biak)</th>
<th>Lexical Meaning</th>
<th>Cultural meaning of the Biak tribe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Inggabow (Chopstack Fish)</td>
<td>- Living under a stilt house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- There is a sizeable black pattern in the middle of the body</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Usually, spray water upwards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Imbabar (Terapon Jarbua or Thornfish)</td>
<td>- Has three names</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Very agile and nimble</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Never staying in one place, constantly moving here and there</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Intokabu (Parrotfish)</td>
<td>- Almost the same as cockatoos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Stubborn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Knof Kasidam (Lionfish)</td>
<td>- Poisonous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- It has a lovely pattern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Kin of Kabduref (Stonefish)</td>
<td>- Poisonous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Having an ugly appearance/pattern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2**  
LEXICAL AND CULTURAL MEANING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Fish Name (Biak)</th>
<th>Lexical Meaning</th>
<th>Cultural meaning of the Biak tribe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Indur Sarfer (Squirrelfish)</td>
<td>Betok fish or Ungang renggginang (Myripristis violacea) is a type of marine fish that belongs to the Holocentridae family. This fish lives on coral reefs with nine spines and 12 soft rays on the dorsal fin. The first four dorsal and pelvic fin spines are serrated, broad and rough. The pectoral fins are orange with a yellow spot on the head, with bright yellow dorsal fins.</td>
<td>According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of the <strong>indoor server</strong> fish, which only lives on the rocks while making sounds in the throat, is symbolized by humans who only talk. This behaviour represents the human character who is lazy and likes to grumble.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Araken (Pufferfish)</td>
<td>Pufferfish or porcupinefish are one of the most dangerous spiny fish in the ocean. This fish has high behavioural and anatomical adaptations to coral waters (Pratama et al., 2014).</td>
<td>According to the Biak tribe, the response of the broken fish, which reacts with an expansion of the stomach and emits sounds when touched, is a symbolic reflection of human sensitivity, susceptibility to offence, and preference for uninterrupted tranquility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Inasaru (Barracuda)</td>
<td>Inasaru fish (Tylosurus sp. or Jilung Fish) is a pelagic inhabiting sea waters and associated with coral. Sako fish belong to the Belonidae family (Sudiono et al., 2015).</td>
<td>According to the Biak tribe, the conduct of the <strong>Ansar</strong> fish, characterized by a propensity to react aggressively, symbolizes the nature shown by humans, who are quick to anger when disrupted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Aunower (Suckerfish)</td>
<td>Remora fish (Echeneidae) are a family of fish in Carangiformes. This fish has eight species and has a sucking disc on top of its head which is used to attach its body (parasite) to large fish. Therefore, they swim with sharks (Xu et al., 2021).</td>
<td>According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of another fish that likes to stick to or follow large fish is associated with parasites, namely humans depending on others or having a beggar mentality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kaibam (Bumphead Parrotfish)</td>
<td>Kaibam (parrotfish/ Bumphead Parrotfish) is a Scaridae Parrot family coralfish. This fish has several types. Parrotfish is a fish that produces sea sand. The leading food is algae that stick to dead coral. The sand produced comes from eating coral. This fish can also change gender from male to female.</td>
<td>According to the Biak tribe, the conduct of the Kaibam fish, known to dwell in communal settings and resist human intrusion, serves as a metaphor for the emotional and temperamental aspects of human nature. However, the behaviour also includes attributes such as unity, solidarity, and mutual aid. In times of adversity, fish exemplify a collective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Fish (Scientific)</td>
<td>Fish (Bismu)</td>
<td>Characteristics/Significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Inarar (Flatfish)</td>
<td>Indar (Triggerfish) or chicken fish (scientifically, Balistidae), local language togek, are fish with slanted fins pushed forward (Jaziri et al., 2019). According to the Biak tribe, the behavioural traits of the inner fish, characterized by aggression, sensitivity, and a tendency to flee when threatened, are connected to the emotional volatility, provocative nature, and cowardice shown by specific individuals.</td>
<td>Resolve swiftly aiding any member facing challenges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Indaf (Coral Trout)</td>
<td>Indaf (coral trout) is a fish member of the subfamily Epinephelinae, family Serranidae in the order Perciformes. There are many types of goropa fish (Kusuma et al., 2021). According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of the indaf fish, which is aggressive and clever and immediately devours all fish, symbolizes humans who are greedy and selfish.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Insir (Emperor)</td>
<td>Characteristic features: - 9 dorsal fin rays - 8 anal fin rays - The base of the pectoral fins is scaly 5 or 6 orange stripes on the sides - The rear edge of the gill cover and the front of the gill cover are bright red According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of the insider fish, which breeds like a goat, namely storing leftover food in its mouth and chewing at another time, is analogous to the type of human who works by hiding bones or being lazy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Inggabow (Chopstick Fish)</td>
<td>Chopstick, Spinner, or Archer Fish forms a monotypic family, namely Toxotidae. These fish are known for preying on land insects and other small animals by shooting with water droplets from unique mouthparts. As the name suggests, blowpipe fish can choke using water, insects or prey that land on leaves or twigs above the surface (Melta, 2014). According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of the inggabow fish, which live under stilt houses and often spray water upwards, is analogous to the character of the tribe who live helpful for others. This fish shot down all insects as food by spraying water upward.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Imbabar. (Terapon Jarbua or Thornfish)</td>
<td>Imbabar is a type of ray-finned fish of the family Terapontidae. Fish has 11 to 12 spines in their dorsal fin. This fish has a small, slender body. Fish lives in shallow water near the coast. According to the Biak tribe, the behaviour of the imbabar fish, which is agile and nimble, never stays still and likes to move here and there, is analogous to humans who are restless, nosy, or always busy with other tribes' business. This type of person feels perfect and looks for other tribe's mistakes or shortcomings. They are reluctant to appreciate other tribe's work and tend to justify it. However, the imbabar fish's behaviour symbolizes being diligent in working or not liking to sit idly by.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Intokabu (Parrotfish)</td>
<td>Intokabu (Parrotfish) is a type of scaridae family. They are found in coral reefs. According to the Biak tribe, a characteristic of the intokabu fish, having a hard head, is associated with a tribe with a stone head, who like to fight or do not listen. However, the behaviour of the intokabu fish also implies the meaning of a person who has a firm opinion or is not easily influenced by others. This type of person sticks to his opinion because he is always right.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Kin of Kasidam (Lionfish)</td>
<td>Kin of Kasidam/Lionfish, scientific language Dendrochirus, species Petrois is a coral fish that is very dangerous in the ocean but has a lovely pattern and is venomous in its beautiful fins. Lionfish have nine species (Usseglio et al., 2017). According to the Biak tribe, the venomous characteristics of the kin of kasidam fish are associated with humans behaving evilly, violently and violently. This type of person is always toxic to other tribes and a source of problems. Infaniryur fish reverses the behaviour of the kin of Kasidam fish.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Kin of Kabduref (Stonefish)</td>
<td>Kin of Kabduref fish ugly-looking marine fish species with colours drab and bodily elongated (Novena, 2022). According to the Biak tribe, the ugly and venomous characteristics of the kin of kabduref fish symbolize humans who are not helpful to another tribe. The principle of the Biak tribe is that life should be a blessing to others. Therefore, humans must harbour kindness, a beautiful heart and a clean mind despite having an ordinary face.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The Meaning of Fish According to the Biak Tribe*

(1) **Indur Sarfer (Squirrellfish)**

*Indur sarfer* or squirrel consists of two words, namely *Indur* and *surfer*. *Indur* is derived from the word *durem* in the Biak language, which means grumbling, while *Surfer* means fishing. *Indur Sarfer* describes fishing with tentacles. In the context of lexical meaning, *indur sarfer* is a type of coral fish pacing around in rocks while making sounds in the throat. This fish hides during daylight hours due to its vulnerability to sunlight but comes out at night. However, catching is easily carried out through a hook because of the largemouth.

From cultural semantics perspective, *indur sarfer* describes the character or nature of a stone fish, namely pacing back and forth while making sounds in the throat. Phrase sound in the throat is analogous to a grumbling and pacing human. Persistent complaints often involve avoiding responsibilities and showing more grumbling than productive work. The individuals typically lack courage, show indecisiveness, possess a propensity for empty rhetoric, only dare to criticize from a safe distance, and frequently resort to grumbling. Cultural semantics analyzes the significance of language within the framework of the speaker (Abdullah, 2013).
The cultural message in the concept of *Indur Sarfer* serves as a guide for the youth, aiming to enhance individuals with magnanimous hearts, courage to express feelings in public, and propensity to prioritize action over words. However, cultivating the traits may lead to societal discomfort and challenge the established social values passed down by ancestors.

(2) *Aruken (Pufferfish)*

*Aruken* is derived from the word *daruken*, which means opposing the transformation of the word *daruken* to *arukan*, which shows a process of contraction or shortening, resulting in the loss of the phoneme 'd'. Despite the phonetic alteration, the semantic content of the word remains unaffected. According to Chaer (2013), apheresis is a contraction or sound change at the beginning of a word. Contraction is the shortening and shrinking of phonemes in a word or phrase without resulting in a change of meaning (Chaer, 2013). *Aruken* changes body shape according to the situation, and when shot or disturbed, the body becomes large and wide. The stomach slowly bulged, followed by the growth of spines all over the body.

Furthermore, fish resembles a pig’s thorn, with sharp and elongated spines. The body floats on the water's surface to defend against potential predators. In the cultural context of the Biak, individuals characterized as sensitive, irritable, emotional, temperamental, or touchy are referred to as *arukan*. Some of the characteristics of a tribe easily offended are (1) having an excessive reaction to criticism, (2) taking other tribe’s conversations seriously, (3) holding grudges, (4) being susceptible to mood swings, and (5) withdrawing or feeling isolated. In the cultural framework of the Biak, the term *arukan* denotes an individual prone to being easily offended when subjected to criticism. When criticized, the individual tends to increase anger, driven by a firm conviction of righteousness. According to the cultural understanding of *arukan*, there is an inherent message emphasizing the importance of constructive criticism. This shows the acknowledgement that no individual is flawless and that human beings cannot thrive in isolation. In this framework, criticism serves the purpose of self-improvement, enhancing the journey towards becoming better versions.

(3) *Inasar (Barracuda)*

Morphologically, *Inasar* is derived from the word *in* and *sharp*, meaning fish and sharp, respectively. *Inasar* undergoes sound change or contraction of the phoneme ‘n’ in the middle of the word, known as syncope by Chaer (2013). Contraction is the shortening or shrinking of phonemes without resulting in a change in the meaning of the word or phrase (Chaer, 2013). Considering fish morphology, *Inasar* has sharp teeth used as knives or weapons to stab prey.

Within the Biak tribe, individuals characterized as temperamental, easily irritated, or prone to quick anger when disturbed are referred to as *Finisar*. Culturally, the term carries connotations of poor anger management, leading to swift outbursts of anger. The cultural message transmitted through the archetype of *Finisar* emphasizes the importance of patience and possessing a magnanimous heart. Individuals can coexist peacefully and harmoniously with others by cultivating patience and tolerance. The reputation for being communicative, open-minded, and endowed with humour improves the ability to celebrate differences as divine blessings.

(4) *Aunower (ikan Remora)*

In the lexicon, *aunower* is a state of confusion, dizziness, or slowness in thought. However, within cultural semantics, the term implies restlessness and a propensity to move about, following superiors or influential figures. Individuals labelled *aunower* typically occupy subordinate positions, persistently shadowing superiors in pursuit of wages. This cultural characterization suggests a lack of independence since individuals rely solely on superiors for sustenance and show reluctance to explore alternative methods. The cultural message transmitted shows the importance of human autonomy and self-sufficiency. In this context, God endowed humans with reasoning abilities to navigate various opportunities for survival without begging. The idea is to exert diligent effort without infringing on others while showing astuteness in situational dynamics.

(5) *Kaibam (Parrot Fish)*

In Indonesia, *Kaibam* is known as parrotfish, derived from the word *bam*, which means protruding. The meaning refers to the shape of a fish, which has a face protruding forward with a large body. In the cultural context, *kaibam* describes the notion that life should benefit others, as shown in the perpetual production of sand by *kaibam*.

(6) *Inarar (Sand Fish)*

Morphologically, *inarar* comes from the word *in* and *arar*, which means fish and essential. *Inarar* is a fish found in sandy environments, using sand or sand beds as a hiding point. The fish is characterized by diminutive size and slender physique, possessing a sleek skin texture. Furthermore, *Inarar* retreats into the sand when disturbed, and the body's anatomical structure suggests a resemblance to individuals who show evasiveness or verbosity. These individuals may benefit from support in honouring commitments, and cultural significance is profound, emphasizing the need for consistency between cultural messages and the behavioural traits of Inarar. Human communication should also prioritize honesty and consistency in line with the analogy.

(7) *Indaf (Coral Trout)*

*Indaf* is derived from two syllables: *in* and *daf*, meaning fish and current, respectively. *Daf* is derived from the word *dafder*, or eat a lot, as a lexical meaning. The lexical semantics of the word refer to the name *indaf*, which means greedy. *Indaf* is a large-bodied coral fish with a mouth resembling a stone hole for trapping small fish.

Cultural semantics define *indaf* as an individual characterized by a voracious appetite but reluctant to engage in labour. This individual shows a disposition similar to beggars by shunning effort and passively awaiting assistance. The
cultural message suggests the importance of diligent labour for sustenance and fulfilment, emphasizing the necessity for proactive engagement to achieve a balanced and prosperous existence.

(8) **Insir (Emperor)**

The term *insir* shows fish inclined to seek refuge in coral rocks when disturbed. Culturally, it symbolizes an individual who habitually seeks safety when faced with interference from others. The cultural message shows the importance of conflict avoidance and cultivating harmonious human relationships. The term advocates prioritizing peaceful resolutions and enhancing interactions to promote collective well-being.

(9) **Inggabow (Chopstick Fish)**

*Inggabow* consists of two syllables: *in* and *bow*, meaning fish and top. The consonant ‘gg’ is inserted between words *in* and *bow* forms *Inggabow*. According to Chaer (2007), the concept is known as anaptyxis or devotional voice, a change in sound by adding a particular vowel sound between two consonants to make speech smoother. The sound added is a weak vowel sound with three types of anaptyxis: prosthesis, epenthesis, and paragog. Anaptyxis is adding a vowel sound between two consonants or a particular word.

The lexical definition of *inggabow* describes fish with a propensity for pushing water upward. *Inggabow* exemplifies altruism by helping smaller fish obtain food. Fish dislodge ants into the seawater by agitating the water near trees, nourishing smaller species. These behaviours are often observed in the habitat of mangrove forests. Culturally, the semantics of *inggabow* shows the principle of benefiting others in life. Recognizing strengths and weaknesses emphasizes using the advantages to aid individuals with limitations. This cultural message shows the importance of mutual support and cooperation in enhancing collective well-being.

(10) **Inbabar**

*Inbabar* has two syllables: *in* (fish) and *babar* (speedy). Lexical semantics is a type of fish that usually plays on the beach, not in the middle of the ocean. The fish likes grabbing human feet submerged in water or anything that passes. Cultural semantics are greedy or gluttonous. This type of human tends to grab anything that passes before him. The cultural message is that humans must be good at being grateful and learn to live according to the blessings they have been given.

(11) **Intokabu**

*Intokabu* has two syllables: *in* (fish) and *kabui* (ironwood). Morphologically, fish have anaptyxis, which is a type of sound change. In this context, there is the addition of a vowel sound between two consonants or the addition to a particular word. The addition of the word *to* in the middle of the word is known as epenthesis.

The literal definition of a knife includes the classification as a tool composed of metal, designed for cutting or thrusting, typically with a sharp edge. This attribute symbolizes resilience and fearlessness in confronting adversaries. The connotations are extended to materials such as iron or wood, showing qualities of durability. In addition, knives have cultural significance for human fortitude in confronting challenges and adversaries.

(12) **Kinof Kasidam**

*Kin of Kasidam* consists of two syllables: *kin of* (fish) and *kasidam* (coconut leaves). Lexical semantics is a type of rockfish with a beautiful pattern and long and thick fins. When anchored or floating, the two fins open wide, such as the midrib of a coconut leaf. This fish can anchor calmly because of its deadly venom. An underlying sense of disquiet accompanies cultural semantics due to a volatile temperament. These individuals pose a threat by assuming adversarial roles or manifesting hypocritical tendencies. Cultural aspects show the importance of not assessing individuals based on outward appearances. A pleasing exterior does not correlate with a virtuous or genuine character, thereby mitigating the susceptibility to be misled by superficial impressions.

(13) **Kinof kabduref**

The term *kinof kabduref* presents a paradoxical notion when connected with the concept of *know kasidam*. In this context, *kinof* refers to a type or category, while *kabduref* shows a malevolent entity. Etymologically, *kinof* signifies fish, while *kabduref* represents evil. Lexical interpretation suggests a specific rockfish species with an unattractive or repulsive appearance. However, disturbance provokes a response similar to the cautionary adage, "Do not think that calm water does not have crocodiles." Beyond the literal connotations, cultural significance extends to the diversity of human creation by a divine entity. This imparts a lesson on gratitude towards all provisions bestowed by the divine and advocates for the stewardship of every gift granted.

Lexical and cultural meanings of the 13 types of marine fish were reported. Lexical meaning and cultural meaning are used in the theory of meaning from Fries. The terminology and meaning of fish names in the Biak tribe, Papua, is the target of the theory. This is consistent with Koentjaraningrat (2005), who states that every tradition has a meaning expressed through language.

This study shows a strong emotional bond between the Biak tribe, the ocean, and the contents. In the Biak language, specialized terms exist for marine biota, methods of management, and navigation systems, reflecting the intricacies of maritime understanding within culture. For example, the Biak tribe recognizes five types of wind commonly used by fishermen as a navigation system. These include (1) *wambarek* wind blows from the west to the east of the island, (2) *wamurem* wind blows from the east to the west, (3) *Wambrekw* wind blowing from the south to the north, (4) *wambrur* wind blows from the north down south of the island, and (5) *wamires* wind blows from the southeast to the northwest.
Several local terms are used to describe marine biota, namely asteripang (pimam), lola (kadwor), lobster (barupu), beer moon (ranser), kima (arom), napoleon fish (imamen).

These marine natural phenomena related to knowledge prove that the Biak tribe has a high level of civilization in the natural navigation system. Therefore, A.B. Lapian, in a book entitled Sea Tribe, Pirates, Sea Kings, History of the Sulawesi Sea Area in the 19th Century (1986), refers to the Biak tribe as Pirates or the Vikings of Papua.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there were 13 types of marine fish in the regional language of the Biak tribe, which possessed lexical and cultural meanings. The names of these fish were classified based on habitat, character and physique. The results showed that the meaning of the word fish in the Biak language must be understood. Furthermore, the regional language in Ambon called the word fish with the term ‘iar’. In the Biak language, the word fish was attached directly to the types of fish. A total of 3 fish out of the 13 types did not use markers, and cultural meaning in the names refers to words in the context of the Biak tribe. The cultural message showed the human principles of diligence, selflessness, cooperation, and altruism, as exemplified by the fish character.

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Engaging Chinese EFL Students’ Reading Through PBL in a Blended Learning Environment

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Abstract—Project-based learning has drawn the attention of language educators in recent years. With technology increasingly becoming an integral part of language education, how technology-enhanced PBL facilitates students’ reading in the Chinese EFL context still needs further exploration. Through a year-long reading project, this study explored the affordances that PBL could provide for Chinese EFL students in their reading engagement. Data include a survey, interviews, and documents, such as videotaped presentations. The problems and challenges in this project’s implementation are also discussed.

Index Terms—PBL, Chinese, EFL students, reading, blended learning environment

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Project-Based Learning

As an experiential learning method, project-based learning (PBL) was introduced into the field of education by Kilpatrick (1918) more than 100 years ago. This approach may facilitate learning by creating a student-centered environment with greater engagement and motivation as noted by studies conducted in a variety of settings with different populations. Subsequently, PBL was adopted by educators in the language field to engage students in more active learning of both the language and content and skills within more authentic contexts (Beckett & Slater, 2020). Researchers began exploring project-based language learning in the 1970s (Eslava & Lawson, 1979) and continued throughout the 1980s and 1990s from practice to theoretical research, such as Beckett (1999), Eyring (1989), and Stoller (1997). The influence of PBL on the theory and practice of second language and foreign language teaching also gradually increased. In the 21st century, PBL research in language education has been furthered by several important studies (Fried-Booth, 2002; Beckett & Miller, 2006; Beckett & Slater, 2005, 2020). These studies greatly promoted project-based learning and teaching. Application of PBL in the foreign language field in China began later (Wang, 2020; Yang & Diao, 2024) with Gu and Zhu (2002) being the first PBL research published in China. Since then, PBL research has been developing, including investigations of the impact of PBL on language learning (Deng & Wang, 2009; Wang, 2010, 2013); the role of technology in PBL (Gu, 2007; Zhu & Zhang, 2011), and the use of PBL in language skill development, such as writing (Yang & Han, 2012). Zhang (2015) provided a localized PBL foreign language teaching model, based on long-term PBL practice in his studies. Wang and Wang (2022) explored the possibility of PBL virtual teaching and research centers for foreign language education. These studies confirm the positive role of PBL in foreign language education. Still, more studies are needed to explore further PBL use in more specific areas, such as reading, which is an important part of language education.

B. The Blended Learning Environment

Today, with technological advancement, students can conduct a large part of their reading beyond traditional classroom instruction. Researchers also explored the effectiveness of blended learning in high school (English, 2018) or college English contexts (Qin et al., 2020). When students engage outside the classroom, they have access to online resources, such as e-books, articles, and other online materials, which could provide flexibility and efficiency for students, who can read at their own pace without worrying about pressure from teachers or peers. These might enhance students’ learning experiences by offering a more engaging, immersive experience, which should be encouraged in the digital age. This blended learning environment could dominate future teaching, even with the exit of the COVID-19 epidemic, which greatly promoted online learning. Thus, it is significant to examine the learning that occurred in a blended learning environment. Therefore, this study intends to explore the role of PBL in improving students’ reading and other important skills to explore a new effective teaching model for foreign language teaching in a blended learning environment.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory of affordances, as a concept in ecological psychology, was developed by the American psychologist, James Jerome Gibson. Central to Gibson’s view of the world is the idea of affordance, or the opportunities for action
provided by the real world. According to Gibson, “the affordances of the environment are what it offers the animal, what it provides or furnishes, either for good or ill. [An affordance] refers to both the environment and the animal [and] implies the complementarity of the animal and the environment” (Gibson, 1979, p. 127). This theory describes the relationships between individuals and environments. Individual behaviors cannot be studied in isolation from their environment. Our perception of an object or environment is influenced by the potential actions or uses it affords. In other words, affordances are the possibilities or opportunities for action that an object or environment provides. The theory of affordances has been applied in a variety of fields, including cognitive psychology, human-computer interaction, design, and language education.

For the application of affordances theory in language education, van Lier (2004) made significant contributions, particularly in the field of second language acquisition. Van Lier’s understanding of affordances expands on the ecological psychology perspective, focusing on how learners perceive and interact with the language environment to facilitate language learning. From van Lier’s point of view, language learning should be approached from a dynamic perspective since both the learners themselves and their environment are under constant change. Another point from van Lier is not only the physical environment should be taken into consideration, but also the social and cultural environments are of vital importance as well. With this, he argued language learning would need to take into consideration the individual learners, the classroom environment, and the broader social and cultural milieu. Van Lier (2004) believed for learning to happen, learners should develop their awareness of the existence of language, then integrate external linguistic materials with the acquired knowledge or schema and build connections. From an ecological perspective, when learners are aware of the language materials, these materials could provide affordances to provide opportunities for the next round of learning. During this process, if the environment could provide more affordances then, it will enable learners to develop a better sense of autonomy and, therefore, improve his or her language learning process.

Many studies with affordances theories provided important insights about learning, in general. Some studies focused on the physical environment (Li & Wu, 2016, 2017). Jiang (2017) discussed how digital multimodal composing afforded EFL students’ learning. He divided the affordances into three types: technological affordances, educational affordances, and social affordances, which produced multiple impacts on EFL students’ learning. Qin, He, and Ouyang (2020) investigated the ecological affordance actualization through a large-scale survey combined with interviews. Cai (2023) studied how low-proficiency students were affected by environmental affordance through structural modeling in online learning contexts. These studies showed affordances theory could provide a vigorous framework and, therefore, is chosen as the theoretical framework of this study. This study intends to explore how PBL can afford Chinese EFL students’ reading in the blended learning environment. More specifically, this study addresses the following two questions:

1. What affordances does PBL provide for the reading engagement of Chinese EFL students in a blended learning environment?
2. What are the problems and challenges in reading engagement through PBL implementation?

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Context and Participants

Under the broader context of enhancing international communication and the promotion of Chinese culture in the international community, it is becoming necessary for Chinese students to know more about China so they can better represent China and introduce China to other countries in the future. Understanding Contemporary China is a textbook about contemporary China, including topics in politics, environment, economy, and culture, to enable students to better understand China’s contemporary development. Written in English, this book provides language majors with a valuable resource about China. Therefore, as part of the curriculum, it is integrated into the regular reading course through a PBL project in the university where this study was conducted.

From September 2022 to June 2023, this project was conducted within two classes. A total of 47 students took part in the project. Participants were given instructions about the reading materials as part of their project learning. They were required to read the designated units mainly after class and present what they had learned about the book at the end of the semester. The students conducted their presentations individually during the first semester and in groups during the second semester. For the first semester, each student selected one unit from the three units recommended by the instructors. They read the materials after class and then presented what they had learned from the related units. The instructors offered directions and text analysis materials on the online course folders, which all students had access to at the beginning of the semester. Thus, students would have sufficient time to prepare their presentations—to demonstrate their understanding of the reading materials. Instructors also connected some units with the reading course when relevant. After the students prepared their presentations, they uploaded their products to the online platform of the related reading course.

For this study, data, such as surveys, interviews, and documents, mainly come from one of the classes with 28 students. These students are in the second year of their college study in a city in Northern China. Among these students, seven are males and twenty-one are females. The author is the instructor of this class. Students were informed that data
would be collected for language teaching and research purposes. The instructor also obtained permission for the interviewees and their usage in this study.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

The data for this study include a survey, interviews, and documents, such as videotaped presentations, PowerPoint slides, and students’ reflections. The survey inquired about the students’ attitudes toward the reading materials and the PBL approach used in their reading and course engagement. Twenty-four of 28 students submitted the survey which has 19 items and one open question. The 19 items of the survey included several components: text understanding (3 items); language skills, including reading and oral expressions (3 items); technical skills (2 items); students’ collaborations (2 items); students’ emotions, such as students’ satisfaction (4 items); and other skills, such as thinking skills, learning initiatives (4 items). The final item asked whether students prefer individual presentations or group presentations. The open question asked about some difficulties or challenges they have with the project. Besides this survey, five students were selected randomly to discuss the affordances and problems in the PBL process. Each interview lasted between 20-40 minutes, depending on different participants. All research was conducted in the students’ native language—Chinese. Student documents: videos, PPTs, and reflections were also collected.

The interviews were transcribed using automatic transcribing software, Xunfei Tingjian, translated into English, and then analyzed through a qualitative inductive process (Miles & Huberman, 1994). First, the data were read many times by the author for keywords/phrases related to the affordances of PBL to code into categories. Then, the smaller categories were incorporated into more general categories. Finally, the survey data, reflections, as well as students’ documents, such as PowerPoints or videos, were also used to triangulate the data.

IV. FINDINGS

According to the theory of affordances, the interactions between individuals and their environment are of vital importance. Here the environment not only refers to the physical environment but also the social and cultural environments, too. In this environmental framework, many factors could come into play to provide affordances for the students.

A. Resources Affordances Through PBL

(a). The Required Reading Texts

In the survey, students were asked to share their experiences about using the PBL approach in their reading on a scale of 1-100. In terms of text understanding, students indicated the PBL approach enhanced their understanding of contemporary China by understanding and discussing topics related to contemporary China (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Text Understanding](image-url)

Besides the generally positive perceptions through the survey, the participants also reported by reading the materials, they learned new terms or had a better understanding of some concepts they had learned: In my reading, I sometimes encounter some new terms, including “fang guan fu,” the “judicial accountability system,” and… I will look them up specifically to find out the meaning of these terms. So, I think it began with the material in the textbook and then became a trigger for me to know more about this knowledge. It is also helpful to know some knowledge that I do not have much contact with or learn in daily life.

It really helps a lot in understanding contemporary China. I think on the one hand I can learn some words, such as the English expressions of some political concepts that we’ve learned from political science textbooks in the past. And, on the other hand, these concepts can indeed enable us to pay attention to some new political developments of our country, and then cultivate our political literacy. (Interviewee 1)

This interviewee thought the topics discussed in the text provided her with a chance to know more about some of the terms or concepts that she may have not noticed in her daily life. She not only read from the text, but it also became the starting point for her to explore further. In the videotaped presentations of Interviewee 1, she discussed the “fang guan fu” (streamline administration and delegate power, improve regulation, and upgrade services) and judicial
accountability system, among others when discussing the law-based governance in China. This showed she did learn these terms and was able to present and share them with her audience.

(b). Resources Beyond Texts

Participants utilized the available resources and integrated them into their presentations. In their PowerPoints, the participants demonstrated their understanding of the reading materials. Besides summarizing the main idea of the reading materials or quoting the reading materials as relevant to their presentations, they chose one of the themes to explore further. The students thought the PBL approach provided them with the freedom of autonomous learning along with their reading. Additionally, they were given the chance to explore more specific topics, while working under the same theme. For instance, during the first semester, 11 students chose to discuss the topic of “beautiful China,” which advocates the protection of the environment. While the theme was the same, students selected different focuses and discussed their ideas about environmental protection (see Table 1).

| Ecological protection in the Yangtze River basin, China | The change of Kuboqi Desert in northern China |
| Eco-environmental progress in the loess plateau region of China | Urbanization and environment |
| Wetlands (mangroves) management in China | Protecting the eco-environment, China in action |
| Environment Protection Beijing vs New Delhi | Carbon neutrality |

As young people, the participants showed their attention to what happened outside the required reading materials. Most of the students connected relevant information to their reading. For instance, in their presentations, they discussed China’s One Belt and One Road Initiative and connected ancient China’s history with recent developments. When talking about the topic of anti-corruption, they also used pictures of recent popular movies with similar topics. Students also quoted the 20th Congress of CPC and the latest international conferences on environmental protection. Also, they used multiple media in their presentations, rather than the traditional reading report by integrating pictures, videos, charts, diagrams, etc. to make their presentations more appealing to the listeners. All participants used pictures and over half used statistics and numbers to support their viewpoints in their PowerPoint slides. Some used short video clips to present the different economic developments in the past and present.

Besides the required texts, the participants also borrowed from other courses and transferred this information into their presentations or learned from this course was carried to other courses.

When we discuss telling China’s story through the reading of the textbook (Understanding Contemporary China), it naturally reminds me of the group practice in our Marxism philosophy course. In that course, we had some group work activities where we presented what we learned through situational dramas and other types of videos. Therefore, to demonstrate creativity and better spread Chinese stories to the world, we decided to present them through videos. (Interviewee 5)

We have one theme in each class in our oral interpretation course. Some of the themes in this textbook overlap with those in our interpretation class. We could learn some expressions from this course and apply them to our interpretation course, and vice versa. When we have oral interpretation practice, we might find our vocabulary insufficient, and we could find corresponding expressions in this book. This encourages us to apply what we learned here in the oral interpretation course. (Interviewee 4)

B. Technological Affordances Through PBL

(a). Information Search Through the Internet

This study found that technological affordances have become an integral part of the PBL process. Web search was heavily used to collect relevant information to supplement their presentations on related topics. When asked about the source of the supplementary materials, all interviewees mentioned that after they decided on the topic of their presentation, they would start to search for relevant information online besides reading the assigned text. Information search now becomes handy because of the accessibility of the internet, not only on computers but also on mobile devices, particularly with the variety of apps available.

(b). Technological Tools Use in the Presentations

The participants are considered good users of a variety of technology tools. Their use of technical tools ranged from presentation preparation to presentation delivery. When preparing their presentations, besides face-to-face meetings, the participants frequently used the Tencent Meeting Software app to organize meetings. Besides, WeChat online discussion groups were also regular communication tools. These free apps provided great conveniences and students were quick to learn to use them. Students also freely used translation software in their presentation preparation. However, they were aware of possible problems with it and would take measures to improve or revise what they produced through machine translation.
Q: If you want to include Chinese materials in your PPT, do you use machine translation or do you translate it yourself?
A: Some materials may have a particularly long section, for example. To save time, I may use machine translation first, then read the version by referring to the original to see if there are any problems, and then revise and improve it. After this, it would be used as part of the presentation materials. Some other parts, such as my own feelings or perceptions, or my own opinions, I think I’ll write myself. ...We are also doing this in some other translation courses...It is also a way to improve our translation skills and language skills.” (Interviewee 3)

In delivering their presentations, the participants are proficient in using screen-recording software to record their presentations. Some mentioned they would write scripts for their presentations and choose one they considered more successful from several recordings. When asked about the use of scripts, as Interviewee 3 mentioned, they would rely on the script, but they would also speak as spontaneously as necessary, based on the materials they are discussing. These preparations would provide materials for their language learning. Some also edited their presentations by using more complex editing software to connect the different parts of their presentations.

C. Interaction Affordances With Peers and Instructors Through PBL

The PBL approach created a possibility for the participants to collaborate in finishing the presentation tasks. This is particularly the case with the group presentations. As shared by the interviewees.

We would have a group discussion before each of our presentations. Usually, we would first read the text together to get the main idea of the text. Also, we would read the lead-in section of that unit and then read the questions at the end of the reading as well as the supplementary materials of the unit. We would then try to get some points we felt were interesting or some points that would inspire us. After this, we would usually do brainstorming. Next, we would decide on the themes to present and a rough framework. Finally, we would search for more information and relevant materials online. (Interviewee 1)

For the group presentations, the interviewees mentioned they would read the materials and discuss what to present. When asked about how they prepared for their reading project, this interviewee mentioned many elements. For instance, group discussions were gathered by the students themselves. The instructor mainly worked as a facilitator and consultant. It was interesting the student also paid attention to the affordances of the design of the texts, such as the lead-in section and the questions at the end of the reading as well as supplementary materials. They would search for these available resources to help them better understand their reading materials and then they would search for points they would like to further pursue.

Besides the close collaboration in their preparation for their presentations, the participants were also given the chance to watch other students’ presentations shared online to learn from each other. The online teaching platform provided a space for these students’ products to be preserved and shared by others. The availability of resources makes it possible to become new affordances that technology could provide to the students, who benefit by accessing these without the limit of the classroom border. Interviewee 5 mentioned she would watch other students’ presentations and learn how they illustrated their points, which she considered quite inspiring. For this part, the interviewees provided varying opinions. Interviewee 2 mentioned that some videos with similar topics might have some overlap and, therefore, believed not very interesting (this is particularly the case when students conducted individual presentations since there were three themes. This means there may be seven or eight videos on the same theme (although different specific topics).

Compared with the frequent interactions between the students, the interactions between the instructor and students varied. The instructor provided guidance and worked as a counselor in the implementation of the project. WeChat groups were formed and students would share their rough ideas first and the instructor would provide feedback. Then, the students would prepare their presentations, usually with PowerPoint slides. The instructor would offer feedback to the drafts and then the students would revise accordingly. Sometimes, these exchanges lasted several rounds. There were differences between different groups. Some groups spent more time interacting with the instructor in terms of presentation structure or details about their presentations; some did not interact much with the instructor.

D. Language and Other Affordances Through PBL

As to language-related skills, students reported how they perceived the PBL approach to help them improve their language skills, more specifically vocabulary, reading comprehension, and oral English delivery of their reading (see Figure 2).
In their interviews, participants also mentioned in their reading process, they also learned the English expressions of some new terms or some terms they might have learned in Chinese. Recently, I read Unit 9, which introduced the topic of the human community of shared future. In fact, before reading, we already learned similar topics in the politics course in high school. But at this time, we just had a rough idea about what it was. Now, when reading Unit 9, I learned not only the meaning of this concept, but also what actions we should take to build it from many components.

Another is there are a lot of terms, I need to learn. I’m not very familiar with English expressions of some terms, for instance, multilateralism… (Interviewee 2)

Through reading the text, he found himself with a better understanding of the concepts and gained further knowledge related to the term. He presented his understanding of the term, multilateralism, as part of his presentation.

Besides this, the participants also reported that affordances provided them with chances to hone their other skills, such as analyzing from different perspectives, taking initiative in their learning, integrating language learning with language use, as well as information searching skills. In this process, some interesting contradictions are also found. That is, the participants mentioned one of the difficulties they had was finding the proper supplementary materials they would like to use. Additionally, they reported they benefited greatly through PBL and the information search. It seems the challenging tasks here did not restrain the students, but provided a chance for them to better improve their searching abilities, an important skill in the information age. Other skills students reported include analyzing things from different perspectives, a skill which could also prove beneficial in their future lives and careers (see Figure 3).

E. Problems and Challenges in PBL Implementation

The participants were also asked about some difficulties they encountered and they could choose more than one item as listed in Table 2:
Some of the problems are related to course materials, such as being difficult or not so interesting. This is also illustrated by the interviews. Interviewee 4 mentioned some terms she found could be barriers to her reading. Besides terms, Interviewee 2 also mentioned difficulties in understanding the contents of the reading materials and would like stronger teacher support.

I prefer classroom presentations… I think a good aspect of classroom presentation is that while students are presenting, there can also be some guidance from the teacher. Additionally, because I feel students’ understanding of some concepts may not be entirely correct, it may require the teacher’s timely intervention. Besides, when the concepts are vague or abstract, the teacher can help by providing more details and offering guidance. Some parts might be difficult for students to handle independently without a teacher’s guidance and support.

For the presentation preparation, over two-thirds mentioned they encountered difficulties in finding the information they needed. Some students also mentioned their oral proficiency and the heavy course load caused difficulties in project learning.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

PBL provides a positive environment for participating language learners. On the one hand, through the design of a reading project, the environment provides participants with abundant learning resources and interactive opportunities. Students can perceive these positive benefits and transform them into beneficial learning experiences. The theory of affordances forms an ecological circulation of the learning process. In this ecological system, participants were not limited by their textbooks and traditional classrooms. They fully utilized various affordances in the surrounding environment and used them to improve their language learning experiences. The PBL provided a matching approach for this positive ecological circulation.

PBL makes successful reading engagement possible through the powerful assistance of technology. In this study, the participants took advantage of multiple technological tools available to them to help them understand their reading texts, organize group discussions, and search for information in their preparation. The delivery of their presentations was also enriched, due to the use of technology. Online platforms also make it possible for them to upload and share their presentations with others without being restricted by time and space.

In the PBL approach, the support network was working to promote learning; in the project implementation process, the participants were encouraged to communicate with the instructor and their peers. Through constant interactions, they received valuable feedback from the instructors as well as their peers. They learned from their peers and helped each other improve their language skills, as well as other skills, such as collaboration and team spirit. This design provides students with more interactive opportunities and promotes their language communication and cooperation abilities.

The PBL approach promotes individual learner’s active participation. Through the PBL, the participants were offered freedom and time to design their activities and perspectives about how to present their readings with their ideas. Given this opportunity to fully explore an interactive language learning environment, their agency was fully encouraged. Being the master of their own tasks, the students freely took advantage of the resources available. For instance, students freely borrowed what they found as good ways in some other courses and applied them to this course. Or they learned the expressions in this course and applied them to other courses, too. When this kind of activity frequently happens, it is shown students can use their agency and pick from environmental elements that would benefit their language and employ them in their presentations. All participants showed very positive interactions between the students and their environment, and students could take advantage of the affordances in their immediate, more distant environments to adapt and use them in their reading and learning.

Reading in the digital age is undergoing dramatic changes. Traditional ways of detailed study in class might be supplemented by other ways, such as the PBL approach, which adapts 21st-century skills that students are supposed to possess to better meet daily challenges. By using the theory of affordances as its framework, this study showed students were engaged in their reading through the PBL approach and were able to utilize the availability of their environment and improve their reading, as well as other skills. The students used their textbooks to extend their research beyond—they can connect with other courses, utilize resources available to them, and interact with instructors and peers. Technology affordances play a significant role in the PBL implementation process. In the PBL process, participants
showed their awareness of the language in their readings and were able to learn concepts and new expressions through their presentations, fully utilized their autonomy, and made learning a more authentic, fulfilling experience. This study also found some issues in the process, which should be further addressed in future teaching and studies. One is the instructor’s role as a key player in the interactions of the participants with their environment and other peers. The other is the assessment of the PBL in the reading. These issues could be explored in future studies.

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Developing EFL Learners’ Vocabulary Repertoire Through Semantic Relations Techniques

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Abstract—The study investigates the impact of teaching vocabulary through semantic relations (i.e. including hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, homonymy and metonyms) on the breadth and depth of EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge. A convenient sample of 50 freshman EFL learners from a state university in Jordan was recruited. The study followed an experimental approach; data were collected through pre- and post-tests over an academic term. An interview was also conducted to elicit students’ attitudes toward this vocabulary-learning strategy. The results of the ANOVA test have revealed that Jordanian EFL learners find certain difficulties concerning the identification and production of all semantic relations. They scored low in identifying semantic fields properly though they were more aware of synonyms and antonyms than others. The T-test analysis of the data revealed that the degree of awareness of the major types of semantic relations significantly differed between both tests. This implies that using this strategy has improved students’ semantic awareness. Besides, students have shown positive attitudes towards using this technique asserting that it contributes to the development of their mental lexicon. The study has many pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research.

Index Terms—EFL, semantic relations, mental lexicons storage

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary acquisition is considered fundamental for building language proficiency (Ilmiddinovich, 2021; Nation, 2000; Alam, 2023). Vocabulary is essential for the communication and comprehension of languages. However, they constitute a main obstacle that several students encounter in learning a language (Afzal, 2019; Mohammed & Ahmed, 2019). The difficulty of learning vocabularies resides in their very nature as this entails realizing their forms, connotations, denotations, and correct usage in meaningful contexts (Odinokaya et al., 2021).

Though most Jordanian undergraduate EFL learners can understand the English language, the majority of them are still classified at a low level of competency. They face problems in effectively communicating, and developing their ideas in speaking and in writing due to the lack of adequate repertoire of English vocabulary. Such a problem could be ascribed to the traditional way of teaching which focuses on passive learning (Mapesos, 2017) which is considered ineffective for developing learners’ communication and critical thinking (Richmond, 2007). Therefore, effective techniques for appropriately learning and storing vocabulary are crucial in this aspect (Gizoli & Bedri, 2015) to form a source of power for better language users.
Schmitt (2019) claims that developing a practical model of vocabulary acquisition is a fruitful research area. Research reveals that indirect vocabulary can be learned directly and indirectly (Armbruster et al., 2003). Most learners acquire vocabulary through indirect repeated or multiple exposures to them in different contexts by listening, talking, and reading (Lestari & Hardiyanti, 2020; Perez, 2022). Exercising these skills results in long-term vocabulary improvement (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998; Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). Learners also acquire new vocabulary through explicit instruction such as repeated multiple readings, word histories, computer-based, semantic mapping and restructuring the task (Ullrich, 2021; Burt et al., 2022). Indirect instruction of vocabulary is found useful especially for those with low primary vocabulary awareness levels since it enables teachers to focus on certain words that learners would use independently to facilitate understanding, thus motivating learners to develop more word consciousness (Yaghoubi & Seyyedi, 2017; Saraghi, 2019). Semantic mapping is another effective approach for teaching vocabulary (Sathientharadol, 2020; Udaya, 2022; Fitriani et al., 2022; Wahab & Astri, 2022). It involves activities that students require to map vocabulary to other associated words to increase learners’ knowledge of particular words and their closely associated meanings. Inferencing strategies are also desirable because they enhance comprehension of texts as a whole (Shuang, 2022). They encompass making cognizant assumptions of the connotation of a word based on their linguistic knowledge and general knowledge of the world besides benefiting from obtainable linguistic cues in the texts.

Building a good semantic model is based on having a good cognitive structure demonstrating certain aspects or words and representing their various linguistic, psychological and pragmatic features. Teaching vocabulary through associating them with other words is found effective. Term association is a concept introduced by Sinopalnikova (2004) reflecting the sort of connection between ideas and words existing in the human mind where one entity entails the appearance of the other in the mind. It is influenced by many variables among which are familiarity and context. The more familiar the words, the faster the related words appear in the mind (Nair et al., 2020).

Nation (2000) calls for teaching semantically related words due to many reasons. They are easier to retrieve from memory, help learners figure out meanings, organize knowledge and store their information in their mind. Despite that, semantic relations still pose great difficulty to learners as they deviate from the literal meaning in some cases (Allott & Textor, 2022). Such associations between words signify the hidden links between them, their visualization and related thoughts. This is termed by Kess (1992) as a word association system, which is comparable to a spider web in which vocabularies in the mental network are related to other words. Examining semantic errors raises teachers’ awareness of these errors and directs them to the best way to address them in classrooms. Though linking words to their rational semantic senses is perceived as an effective learning strategy that enriches learners’ mental lexicon, it seems the least frequently vocabulary learning-teaching strategy employed in classrooms (Altay, 2017).

Researchers claim that receptive competence is more refined by language learners than productive competence and they are not corollary (Richards, 2015; Jaashan, 2022). They passively learn vocabularies at the beginning and then actively produce them. Nonetheless, the taxonomy to name and categorize words seems to be contradictory on numerous occasions, which may result in some impediments. The changeable nature of what we call context offers only obscure descriptions (Storjohann, 2010). These linguistic ambiguities and conflict lead to further problems in language education, but semantic relational mapping may provide a panacea. Despite that, Alaee (2022, p. 87) argues “Among various word learning strategies, semantic network practices have received the least attention from researchers”. The present study addresses researchers’ (Sathientharadol, 2020; Udaya, 2022; Alaee, 2022) call for more experimental research to prove the effectiveness of the semantic relations approach that would be more effective than others would.

Nataliya and Elena (2020, p. 105) claim that “Foreign language acquisition is notoriously constrained by learners’ lack of awareness of the systemic relations that are obtained among stable multiple-unit semantic items”. Scholars support intentional learning of the most frequently needed words using certain strategies (Sökm en, 1997; Ellis, 2002). Despite the plethora of vocabulary research in language learning, researchers claim that there have been very few studies on semantic awareness in L2 or FL learning (Fitzpatrick & Clenton, 2017; Akbarian et al., 2020). Akbarian et al. (2020) call for more research on very important factors such as the prompt, instruction, and vocabulary level whose potential effect on learners’ vocabulary production cannot be ignored in language acquisition. Thus, this study aims to bridge the gap by answering the following research questions:

To what extent are Jordanian EFL learners aware of semantic relations?
Is there a significant impact of using semantic relations techniques on students’ vocabulary knowledge and reading competency?
What are Jordanian EFL learners’ attitudes toward using semantic relations techniques in vocabulary learning and instruction?

The significance of the study stems from the fact that it touches on a significant topic concerning semantic relations strategy, which can be used to help students learn new words and add a great deal to their diction. Vocabulary acquisition is the source of enhancing learners’ language skills and proficiency in general. Researchers have proved that acquiring lexical relations is essential for constructing fortified learners’ schemata as a solid basis required for having large-scale and long-term vocabulary growth (Altay, 2017; Ullrich, 2021; Burt et al., 2022). Akbarian et al. (2020) call for more studies on lexical availability as they can greatly contribute to a better recognition of learners’ productive vocabulary knowledge. It is expected that the results of this study are of chief significance to various research fields among which are language acquisition, psycholinguistics, semantics etc.
To the best of the researchers’ knowledge, this study is the first of its kind that investigates Jordanian EFL awareness of all semantic relations, the impact of using these techniques on cultivating their vocabulary repertoire and their attitudes toward using this technique in language instruction. Identifying the students’ levels of awareness and sources of difficulties concerning a particular aspect of vocabulary acquisition is considered a crucial step toward solving them. Successful linguistic understanding entails perpetually sorting out semantic ambiguity (Nair et al., 2020). Higher communicative efficiency could be achieved through resolving challenges concerning the use and reusing of semantically related and contextually appropriate words (Piantadosi et al., 2012). In light of this, certain suitable teaching and learning strategies could be proposed for improving linguistic and meta-linguistic skills in the target language.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The semantic field is concerned with a system of words that are connected since they share the same area of relation and knowledge or interest (Boran, 2018). The Semantic Field Theory was developed by Ferdinand de Saussure’s notion of language as an interconnected system of elements which is considered a new phase in the history of semantics. It is defined as “... the view that the vocabulary of a language is a system of interrelated lexical networks, and not an inventory of independent items” (Crystal, 1992, pp. 346-347). It plays a great role in facilitating learning vocabulary efficaciously and systematically by constituting a thorough constantly evolving lexical system (Beck et al., 2013; Gao & Xu, 2013; Faraj, 2022).

Semantic relations are so named because they involve relationships between senses whereas lexical relations can be instances of semantic relations as not only meaning but also morphological form or collocational patterns of the lexemes are associated (Murphy, 2010). Semantic relations can be classified under ‘has-a’ relations and ‘is-a’ relations (Altay, 2017) including metonymies, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, homonyms or homophones, heteronyms and polysemous words. Metonymies are words used as a substitute for related things such as brass, which means military officers. Synonyms are different words but with almost similar meanings such as sick and ill whereas antonyms are words with opposite meanings such as alive-dead. Hyponyms are words referring to components of a larger category such as football and sports. Homonyms or homophones refer to words that are different in meaning but are pronounced the same such as tail-tale. Heteronyms are words that are spelled the same but pronounced differently such as lead (i.e. guide) – lead (i.e. metal)/led. Homographs refer to words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and may have different pronunciations such as quail (i.e. to cower) and quail (i.e. a type of bird). Polysemous words with multiple meanings are related conceptually in some way such as bear (i.e. tolerate) – bear (i.e. carry).

Researchers (Boran, 2018; Stringer, 2019; Hakimova et al., 2020; Dwihastuti et al., 2022) recommend applying semantic relations for efficacious EFL vocabulary teaching as it motivates and encourages learners to learn numerous vocabulary. It has also proved to be an effective strategy for organizing the semantic field in the human brain (Aitchison, 1994). This could facilitate acquiring vocabulary because words are stored in learners’ mental terminology clusters with related notions, not as a single item (Ebrahimi & Akbari, 2015). Fajrah (2019) argues that using the semantic relations techniques is needed as it clarifies the meaning of words by enabling learners to visualize the way they relate to each other. The connotations of words can only be recognized by examining and comparing their semantic associations with other words sharing the same context. Highlighting words fundamental for understanding texts and associating them with other words using sense relations help in making texts coherent and clarifying other unknown words.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Lexical knowledge is a great concern that attracts teachers’ and researchers’ attention as an essential component in language learning and a challenge most learners encounter (Crossley et al., 2009). James (1998) identified various types of lexical errors among which are semantic relation errors. A semantic field is a linguistic approach to the explanation of interrelations between vocabularies in specific categories (Sathientharadol, 2020). It has been applied in teaching and learning vocabulary by researchers across different levels of participants.

Reviewing the literature shows that the topic of semantic relations has been investigated from different aspects. Some research studies have concentrated on the level of awareness and the difficulties faced by English language learners. For example, Chen and Lai (2012) investigated EFL learners’ responses to various metonymic and metaphoric expressions. The analysis of the data showed that EFL learners could distinguish between figurative and non-figurative sentences. They were even surer in judging metaphorical expressions than metonymic ones. Statements expressing emotions of anger were found easier to recognize. The findings implied that it would be advantageous to incorporate metonymy and metaphor in the curriculum to raise learners’ awareness of figurative expressions. Saud (2018) examined the lexical errors committed by EFL students. The analysis of the data elicited via an achievement test assessed in light of Jame’s (1998) taxonomy revealed 137 lexical errors categorised into formal and semantic. Formal mis-selection was the most frequent lexical formal error while mis-formation was the least frequent one. Confusion of sense relations was the most frequent among lexical semantic errors. The most problematic words learners faced were near-synonyms and the least problematic words were general terms for specific ones and overtly specific terms.
Some other research studies have focused on the impact of understanding semantic relations on improving EFL students’ vocabulary mastery. For instance, Alameh (2018) found significant differences between the experimental and control groups revealing a positive effect of teaching semantic relations through blending task-based data-driven learning instruction and in-class instruction. Akbarian et al. (2020) investigated the impact of the different prompts in the lexical availability task and the different amounts of English exposure on learners’ lexical availability output. The analysis of the data elicited by a lexical availability task and the new vocabulary levels test revealed both variables influenced on the number and quality of learners’ word responses. A positive moderate correlation was found between the scores on the employed task and test and predicting learners’ vocabulary level. Nataliya and Elena (2020) examined Russian EFL learners’ degree of entrenchment of idiomatic knowledge encompassing synonymy, antonym, and polysemy. The ANOVA analysis of the data revealed significant differences in learners’ knowledge of synonymy and polysemy compared to antonymy. In light of this result, some pedagogical implications regarding updating and revisiting educational materials and procedures were given.

Sathientharadol (2020) examined Prathom Suksa students’ vocabulary proficiency after applying the semantic field instruction and their satisfaction with this teaching method. The results revealed that their vocabulary proficiency significantly improved due to teaching semantically related vocabulary. Besides, there were positive attitudes towards using this learning and teaching method. Liu and Wiener (2020) studied the way previously learned vocabulary might influence acquiring new words in L2. The results revealed recognizing and acquiring new words were facilitated by previously learned homophonic words, which in turn resulted in L2 lexical development.

Aydemir et al. (2021) examined EFL learners’ level of awareness of semantic prosodic (SP) and its correlation with English proficiency levels. It also investigated learners’ usage of semantic prosodic features and their ways of dealing with the associated challenges. Data collected through an open-ended questionnaire and a structured interview revealed that learners’ SP knowledge correlated with language proficiency. However, little correlation was found between awareness levels and the student’s proficiency. The researchers suggested that curricula designers should include content pertinent to the semantic prosody in syllabi to enhance students’ ability to create semantically relevant sentences like their native counterparts. A recent study conducted by Alae (2022) compared semantic network practices with the most traditional learning strategy EFL learners used. The analysis of the tests revealed that semantic network practices significantly influenced both the participants’ depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge compared to the commonly used ones.

The review shows that the mentioned research studies have touched upon semantic relations in various contexts. Though they share a theoretical framework, there are differences in samples and teaching approaches. However, none of them has been conducted on Jordanian EFL learners through in-classroom teaching and self-learning. Thus, this study aims to bridge this research gap. It is also more comprehensive in the sense that it addresses the research idea from different points of view: the level of awareness, the impact of using semantic relations strategies on lexical availability output, and learners’ attitudes towards it.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample of the Study

The random sample of the study consisted of 50 undergraduate EFL studying sharing a comparable social and educational background at a state university in Jordan. The purposive sample was 29 females and 21 males. Their age ranged from 20-21. They were majoring in English language and literature at a state university in Jordan.

B. Research Instruments

This study is a mixed methods research. The study followed an experimental approach: pre-and post-tests and an interview. This word association test consists of two parts: a newly devised list of frequently used words to which the participants are asked to write a related word that comes to their mind and a list of words that they should re-organize according to their relational sense. This casts light on the way vocabulary knowledge is structured in their mind. This type of test is considered and used by several researchers as a good technique for studying the cognitive structure and assessing proficiency in a foreign language (Bahar & Hansell, 2000; Wolter, 2002). Besides, it is effective and easy to administer, mark and analyze. It helps reveal great data about the process of retrieving words from students’ long-term memory reflecting on the overlap of and the structure within and between words, thus assisting in measuring the semantic proximity of the input words. The interview helps in eliciting detailed data from the participants regarding their perceptions and attitudes about using strategy in learning and teaching vocabulary. Using numerous research instruments is considered a good research practice for exploring the topic from all feasible perspectives and triangulating results from more than one method to achieve sound findings (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Balram et al. (2003) argue that backing up quantitative results with qualitative ones can offer a robust resource to inform and crystallize the participants’ perspectives and practices, thus achieving a good understanding of the issue under investigation. Validating the research instruments helps in achieving the objectives of the study besides attaining valid and reliable results. The test and the interview questions were examined by a jury of three English professors whose suggestions regarding the clarity of the test items and their relevance to the research objectives were taken into consideration. The
reliability of the findings was ensured by the great resemblance in the results of the co-analysis of the content of the participants’ responses.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Data were collected over an academic term. The participants all agreed to take part in the study after being aware of its objectives and the processes of the research. The participants first took a pre-test to determine their level of awareness of semantic relations, and then they were taught about semantic relations and how to use them to build semantic networks between unfamiliar words and already known words during the whole semester through diverse online and offline instruction and tasks aiming at enhancing students’ lexical awareness and development. They were taught 3 hours every week in an advanced reading class. The principal researcher who was also the instructor played an important role as a facilitator to provide students with information about this technique and present some examples to them. The intervention was in the form of practicing each semantic relation technique over two weeks through various types of exercises. Students were also provided with extra exercises to practice at home. A post-test was then administered to the participants at the end of the term to determine the impact of this strategy on their vocabulary repertoire. They were then interviewed concerning their viewpoints on adopting this strategy for building a fortified vocabulary repository. The data were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. The data were analyzed using the ANOVA test to analyze the differences between the means of all semantic relations. The means and standard deviation scores were computed in order to determine the level of awareness of all semantic relations. Respondents with a mean of 2.4 or less were classified as less aware of the semantic relations, those with a mean of 2.4-3.4 as medium in their knowledge), and those with a mean of 3.5 and higher as most aware of the semantic relations. The pre-and post-test results were compared using a T-test to determine if there was a significant impact of using the semantic relations techniques on students’ vocabulary knowledge and reading competency. The significant differences were rolled out based on the means and SD when the result was equal or less than (p< .05). In order to maintain data anonymity, the participants’ real names were substituted with numbers. The data elicited via semi-structured interviews were analyzed thematically.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. To What Extent Are Jordanian EFL Learners Aware of the Semantic Relations?

The analysis of the data collected from the pre-test revealed the participants’ low level of awareness of the semantic relations. It appeared that students faced difficulty recognizing the basic categories of semantic relations. As shown in Table 1, synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms were recognized more than other semantic relations with means of (4.80, 4.38 and 4.10) respectively. They recognized polysemy and heteronyms with means of (2.40 and 2.04). The least recognized categories of them were homonymy and metonymies with means of 1.96 and 1.56. The participants found metonymies the most confusing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.233</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.144</td>
<td>.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.229</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.309</td>
<td>.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.261</td>
<td>.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.402</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicate that Jordanian EFL learners are unaware of all semantic associations. Though they could identify synonyms, hyponymy and antonyms, they can not still provide various words sharing these semantic relations. Their responses are often based on one or two words that were synonyms or antonyms of the stimulus words maximum. This indicates that learners have little awareness of the significance of considering semantic relations techniques for grasping the meaning of unfamiliar words. This could be ascribed to the lack of clear-cut instruction of vocabulary as teachers mainly teach vocabulary based on a slight reference to vocabulary connotation in the process of teaching other courses focusing mainly on highlighting these two semantic relations only. Synonyms and antonyms are generally the most introduced and used semantic relations. The results could also be ascribed to the fact that vocabulary in in-class instruction is often limited or even neglected entirely by some teachers. It could also be because teaching vocabulary is not asserted in curricula and is left to teachers to manage themselves.

This result explains further learners’ inability to vary their performance (both written and oral) and distinguish between the multiple senses of words. These findings are consistent with other researchers’ findings who attributed this to the impact of lack of frequent exposure to vocabulary and their semantic relations. They found that the frequency effect is a robust predictor of L1 and L2 competency and the creation, fortification and processing of the associated linguistic patterns (Ellis, 2002; Arnon & Snider, 2010; Durrant & Schmitt, 2010; Lieven, 2008; Türker, 2016). The
result is also aligned with Alameh’s (2018) finding that through providing fortified vocabulary semantic relations instruction, students’ language skills should be developed and reinforced.

B. Is There a Significant Impact of Using the Semantic Relations Technique on Students’ Vocabulary Knowledge and Reading Competency?

The analysis of the data collected through the post-test and compared with those of the pre-test reveals that there are significant differences between the learners’ scores. This indicates that there is a positive correlation between using the semantic relations technique and students’ vocabulary knowledge and reading competency. Table 2 demonstrates the T-test values with the degree of significance of each of the seven categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Lower 95% CI</th>
<th>Upper 95% CI</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypoynymy</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.944</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>3.107</td>
<td>4.213</td>
<td>13.311</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonymy</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.654</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>3.530</td>
<td>4.470</td>
<td>17.104</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonymy</td>
<td>4.120</td>
<td>1.734</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>3.627</td>
<td>4.613</td>
<td>16.804</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysynymy</td>
<td>5.100</td>
<td>2.043</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.519</td>
<td>5.681</td>
<td>17.653</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heteronymy</td>
<td>5.460</td>
<td>1.908</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>4.918</td>
<td>6.002</td>
<td>20.233</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homonymy</td>
<td>5.420</td>
<td>1.970</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>4.860</td>
<td>5.980</td>
<td>19.454</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mestonymy</td>
<td>5.540</td>
<td>2.062</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>4.945</td>
<td>6.135</td>
<td>18.727</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As demonstrated in the results, there is a positive correlation between using the semantic relations technique and students’ vocabulary knowledge. This could be ascribed to the fact that adopting this technique helps learners establish a connection between different words including their meaning and usage. Besides, integrating this vocabulary learning and teaching method could always motivate language learners to create more connections between words they come across and those stored already in their minds, which ultimately results in vocabulary acquisition and linguistic competence. This demonstrates how remembering words becomes easier through hooking new words to the strain of the already stored joined words. This sounds logical since as Boers and Lindstromberg (2008) state semantic and structural elaboration operating in deep mental processes impact longer-lasting memory. This further implies that it is not significant how recently learners have learned words; rather what is of more significance is the depth of understanding and learning of the meanings of words through processing their semantic relations deeply.

The study demonstrates the effectiveness of using sense relations to educate them since all of the students passed the post exam and more significantly only very few of them had difficulty using terminologies correctly. The deep processing of semantically related words could consequently lead to better retention of their denotation, a deeper understanding of words’ conceptual knowledge as well and memorizing new words quickly and effectively. Amer (2018) found learning semantic relations a powerful method that mimics the brain’s way of organizing data as interrelated networks of words rather than an unstructured list of words. Agustín-Llach (2023) found the categorization of words a crucial cognitive activity that enables learners to make sense of the world and use new vocabulary to interpret reality. Agustín-Llach (2023) has also revealed that learners store the concepts they recognize and acquire as members of taxonomic categories based on their internal properties and external relations with other vocabulary. This implies that the more efficient pedagogically teaching approach is the one that considers the psychological processes of semantic relatedness. This further entails providing learners with frequent encounters with the vocabulary being taught as it is essential for vocabulary acquisition and a high degree of learning. Such techniques would motivate the students, activate their schemata to compare and organize words and facilitate learning highly specialized words actively and independently.

Therefore, the more students establish a connection amongst words, the more their memory and brain stay active by relating, repeating and emphasizing them, which in turn results in great enhancement of vocabulary proficiency. This finding lends support to previous researchers’ (Darussalam, 2022; Mousavi & Seifoori, 2022; Udaya, 2022; Agustín-Llach, 2023; Bengochea & Sembiane, 2023; Sukying, 2023; Roussouliot & Seferiadou, 2023) findings which have proved that applying semantic relations has resulted in enhancing EFL /ESL learners’ linguistic competency. Phurudomseth (2010) recommends using the semantic field approach since it is effective for intermediate or highly proficient students and secondary and college students. The results are congruent with other researchers’ findings (Yaghoubi & Seyyedi, 2017; Akbarian et al., 2020) that explicit teaching and learning of vocabulary approach influence the number and quality of learners’ vocabulary knowledge.

C. What Are Jordanian EFL Learners’ Attitudes Toward Using Semantic Relations Techniques in Vocabulary Learning and Instruction?

The analysis of the interview revealed that the participants perceive vocabulary learning as one of the major challenges they face in acquiring English as a foreign language. After being taught using semantic relation strategies, the students found such techniques good as they could help them become independent in learning EFL vocabulary. The results have revealed learners’ positive attitudes toward using this technique in teaching and learning vocabulary for
many reasons. Almost 94% of the learners state that learning these strategies is fun as in “I really enjoyed them all, they were amusing strategies that motivated me and enhanced the quality of the newly learned words”. They enjoyed the process of trying to find connections between words as in games. This implies that they motivate students and activate their minds to start acquiring as many vocabularies as they can. Besides, it appears that 96% of the interviewees felt that this technique creates a comfortable atmosphere inside the classroom. They felt that they were well-guided by their teachers and their mental ability to appropriately store and build fortified vocabulary repositories as in “if my teacher used this great technique, I would feel being rightly guided by her to enrich our vocabulary knowledge and help succeed in learning English”.

Moreover, all learners indicated that this strategy should be adopted in the process of teaching vocabulary as it facilitates the process of recalling words once needed and remembering their denotations and connotations. This could be attributed to the fact that when learning vocabulary, mental links are made between semantic items in the mental lexicon which is believed to support vocabulary acquisition as argued by Roux (2013). This implies that generating such positive attitudes toward employing this method for teaching vocabulary would in turn result in yielding more positive attitudes and motivation towards acquiring languages as a participant says “It cultivates our vocabulary knowledge that enhances our learning and language skills, this will be reflected in our enhanced education.” This would certainly accelerate and ease learning in general. Furthermore, learners refer their lack of good vocabulary knowledge to the fact that teachers often neglect explicit teaching of vocabulary using this technique and due to that, students also overlook this. This indicates their urgent need to implement this technique in the process of teaching vocabulary so as to encourage them to acquire new words.

It seems that the outcomes of the interview support the main results of the tests. A very interesting finding is that Jordanian EFL learners may ignore learning the semantic relations of the English lexicon if there is no explicit instruction of them. This indicates that implicit and explicit teaching of semantic relations among words should not be undervalued. Failure to notice any semantic relations between words may cause confusion and even impede reading, listening, writing and speaking. Students would find it easy to determine the meaning of words once they come across unfamiliar ones through calling their semantic relations. This finding lends support to other researchers’ findings (Mehdi, 2008; Dwihastuti et al., 2022) that using semantic strategies could motivate and encourage students to learn the novel vocabulary. This is because mastering knowledge of words’ semantic relations helps in determining their meanings as well. It is also in line with other researchers’ findings (see Aydemir et al., 2021) which accentuate the importance of considering explicit vocabulary teaching. It could bring out subconscious relations in learners’ mental word knowledge base that is continuously evolving through changing associations between concepts, adding new ones to the existing ones, thus having an expandable, deepened and strengthened vocabulary mental set.

The results indicate that there should be an effective didactic plan for developing a good storage system of vocabularies in learners’ minds, which strongly fosters the teaching of coordinates depending on sense relations. They have implications for both implicit and explicit learning and their interactions. Teachers should have as their main goal developing students’ awareness of semantic relations. This entails at first triggering an interest in students and developing their focus to consider learning and using vocabulary and semantic relations consciously. This in turn could help them develop a positive attitude toward learning and using vocabularies and improving their language skills. Developing a positive attitude could result in triggering an enduring interest in analyzing words meaning in various contexts and using them in diverse texts for a whole variety of purposes. This would certainly encourage learners to find their way of learning word meanings independently. Their mind will always stay challenged and activated once they come across new words trying to connect them to other stored words and apply this knowledge to real-life situations. This result supports Stahl and Nagys’ (2006, vii) claim that “to have the desired impact, vocabulary instruction must not only teach words but also help students develop an interest in words”.

The outcomes of the analysis have practical implications for those interested in material development, curricula design and language acquisition. They indicate that deliberate attention should be given to vocabulary instruction and in particular to explicit analysis of semantic relationships as a good teaching and learning strategy. This is because exploring semantic relations by other researchers could help provide more insights into the organization and development of EFL learners’ mental lexicon. Teachers could benefit from such insights in designing semantic relation-based corpora to develop activities, tasks and tests. Using such well-developed corpora by teachers and learners is highly advocated.

VI. THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has many pedagogical implications. The researcher recommends teachers adopt a multi-semantic relations instructional strategy for generating a semantic relation-oriented model for acquiring vocabulary. Considering the fact that learners prefer vocabulary instruction, such intentional semantic relations teaching strategies could encourage and provide entertainment to learners and in turn help them accelerate their vocabulary growth and reading comprehension proficiency. Devoting sufficient time for teaching vocabulary may help teachers stimulate learners’ minds through using the acquired semantic relations in a meaningful and productive way which may result in successful communication and producing perfect pieces of writing or even efficient analysis of literary pieces. The results could also give insights for curriculum and syllabus designers to concentrate on semantic relations as a good resource to develop an efficacious
vocabulary bank for language learners. Teacher-training programs should focus on highlighting the importance of using semantic relations as teaching techniques of vocabulary. The results are beneficial for those interested in computational linguistics as they encourage them to build advanced semantics-based models for teaching and making inferences about learners’ vocabulary knowledge.

VII. CONCLUSION

The study examines Jordanian EFL learners’ awareness of semantic relations encompassing synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, homonymy, metonyms and hyponymy. The results of the ANOVA test have revealed that Jordanian EFL learners face certain difficulties concerning the identification and production of all semantic relations. The T-test analysis revealed that the degree of awareness of the major types of semantic relations has significantly enhanced thanks to this strategy. The findings reveal that learning vocabulary is reinforced significantly through teaching semantic relations strategies. The learners also showed positive attitudes towards using this technique asserting that it has contributed to their mental lexicon. Further replication of the study with a huge sample integrating various educational levels is recommended. The current study is also limited to using semantic relations as powerful techniques to enrich learners’ vocabulary knowledge, thus future studies should investigate the impact of other techniques such as contextual clues on vocabulary development and overall language proficiency. More comparative studies are needed to provide valuable insights into how language learners develop deep lexical knowledge.

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Saudi Female EFL Learners’ Perceptions of the Impact of ChatGPT on Vocabulary Improvement

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Abstract—This study investigated the Saudi female EFL students’ perceptions of the effect of using ChatGPT on their vocabulary enrichment. Specifically, it explores their opinions regarding the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of the utility of ChatGPT as a tool for vocabulary improvement. This study adopted a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative data obtained from a questionnaire answered by 101 Saudi female EFL learners with qualitative insights gained by interviewing 13 of the participants who have been enrolled in Majmaah University. The findings of this study demonstrated that ChatGPT is advantageous when utilized for vocabulary building. Among the advantages reported by the participants was the ability of ChatGPT to provide accurate definitions, explanations, and examples. Moreover, the capability of ChatGPT to give contextual alternatives was considered useful for EFL students to be engaged in real-time practice opportunities and accordingly improve their vocabulary skills. Furthermore, ChatGPT allows EFL learners to expand their lexical repertoires by being exposed to unfamiliar words. However, disadvantages such as repetitive word suggestions, affordability issues, and occasional inaccuracies in ChatGPT’s responses were also indicated. This study contributes to the existing literature by exploring the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of using ChatGPT for vocabulary enrichment based on EFL learners’ perceptions in the Saudi context. It gives insights into the advantages and disadvantages of ChatGPT as a tool to expand EFL students’ lexical repertoires, providing practical implications for EFL educators and learners.

Index Terms—ChatGPT, artificial intelligence, online, vocabulary, building

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, technology has played a vital role in altering the process of language learning by providing EFL learners with convenient and interactive tools through various digital resources such as language learning websites, mobile applications, and online platforms. EFL learners have opportunities to get access to a wide range of sources and materials that improve their language proficiency. Technology easily facilitates access to authentic language content like articles, videos, and podcasts, exposing EFL students to real-life language usage and language skills enhancement. Specifically, the interactive nature of language learning applications and software allows users to practice their language offering them features like speech recognition for practicing pronunciation and grammar correction for written communication. Moreover, technology encourages global connections, enabling EFL learners to integrate into conversations with native speakers and language enthusiasts leading to evolving their fluency and cultural understanding. One notable advancement is developing language models like ChatGPT. According to Javaid et al. (2023), ChatGPT is an OpenAI (Artificial Intelligence) language model that reads and establishes human-like writing. ChatGPT has revolutionized the approaches to language learning by providing a unique and interactive platform for enhancing language abilities.

EFL learners often struggle when trying to expand their vocabulary because of the complexities of a language, especially with the unlimited number of words included in this language. However, traditional teaching methods, even effective ones, cannot fully address individuals’ needs and preferences. Therefore, engaging ChatGPT in language classes offers a promising chance for improving vocabulary skills due to many reasons. First, ChatGPT, as a deep learning-based AI language, can produce consistent and relevant text-based output depending on input prompts. Second, it enables EFL learners to be engaged in conversations, emphasizing its potential as a valuable tool to increase their vocabulary (Monika & Suganthan, 2024).

To the researcher’s best knowledge, there is a paucity of research regarding the investigation of EFL learners’ perceptions of the effect of ChatGPT on vocabulary building while there has been limited research on using ChatGPT in English language classrooms. Specifically, there are no published studies, which have adopted a mixed-methods approach, conducted in this area, in the Saudi context. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of Saudi female EFL learners regarding the impact of the utilization of ChatGPT-generated dialogues on their vocabulary enrichment. The research questions are:

1. How do Saudi female EFL learners perceive the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?
2. What advantages do Saudi female EFL learners identify that contribute to the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?
3. What disadvantages do Saudi female EFL learners identify that hinder the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?

This study is of considerable significance for teachers, academics, and policymakers engaged in developing language education policies to meet EFL students’ needs, as it aims to shed light on the role and function of ChatGPT in EFL contexts of vocabulary development. By providing valuable insights and perspectives on the efficiency of using ChatGPT as a complementary tool by EFL learners to improve their vocabulary skills, this research explores the potential influence of this technology from the users’ viewpoints. Moreover, the findings of this study may contribute to developing future language learning technologies and instructional techniques that fit EFL learners’ various needs. In this digital age, it becomes pivotal to investigate the features and challenges associated with developing technologies like ChatGPT. By filling the research gap in the literature, this study contributes with informed perspectives on the integration of ChatGPT in the process of vocabulary building, thereby enriching the discourse on effective language pedagogy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

What is ChatGPT? Its benefits and challenges

ChatGPT is an advanced chatbot, which was available in November 2022, employing OpenAI’s powerful Generative Pre-trained Transformer-3 (GPT-3) models (Ray, 2023). This tool is used for various purposes as a virtual assistant, catering to human-like dialogues (Kocoń et al., 2023). It is worth noting that ChatGPT is not a typical search engine such as Google or Bing. Instead, it is a language tool that generates and responds in a written form (Gordijn & Have, 2023). Conversely, search engines enable individuals to make the internet sources and websites accessible (El-Seoud et al., 2023). In other words, ChatGPT is a language tool generating several types of texts. It can provide an innovative, constructive, and inspiring experience and a creative, exciting, and dynamic environment to produce texts such as emails, exam questions, conversations, essays, etc. According to Taeccharungroj (2023), ChatGPT is highly customizable as it enables users to adjust their responses and behavior to their needs. In comparison to other natural language processing (NLP) that might be strict and less flexible and produce more predictable output, ChatGPT is a unique and reliable model that excels in generating realistic-sounding texts for conversational interactions. Its versatility and adaptability make it a valuable and well-suited tool for a vast variety of applications (Cooper, 2023).

ChatGPT gets benefits from a powerful natural network that effectively utilizes extensive databases to establish varied connections. It reshapes the nature of human-AI-interactions, representing a significant breakthrough in chatbot technology. Built upon vast databases, ChatGPT’s ability to integrate learners into creative, natural, and dynamic conversations encourages a sense of familiarity and comfort, causing more meaningful and satisfactory interactions. Another essential advantage is the flexibility and variety of the ways of text generation. More specifically, ChatGPT can produce texts in various formats, ranging from the simplest to the most complex texts, from the informal to more formal texts, and from the literary to the most scientific texts. Accordingly, this enables individuals to personalize their use of ChatGPT depending on their preferences. Furthermore, ChatGPT allows users to acknowledge and correct their mistakes providing corrected versions, leading to more self-confidence and self-improvement. In addition, it goes beyond simple answer-question, actively challenges any wrong assumptions made by users. The integration into constructive conversations fosters critical thinking and intellectual development as ChatGPT offers learners ongoing opportunities to deeply understand the subject matter and refine their perspectives. Besides, ChatGPT has been commended as it facilitates preparing teaching materials, supports the teaching process, provides opportunities to practice, and delivers feedback (Govindarajan & Chisturaj, 2023).

A notable feature of using ChatGPT, as a language AI tool, is that it is designed to prioritize and highly supports ethical standards safely and protects users from potential harm. In other words, ChatGPT uses mechanisms that can filter inappropriate content or harmful language, adherence to community guidelines and policies. Additionally, according to Hong (2023), ChatGPT is successful in imitating human dialogues and provides EFL learners with opportunities to practice authentic language with having all necessary elements of authentic conversations available, such as summarizing opinions, asking follow-up questions, clarifying unclear ideas, giving information, etc. Furthermore, ChatGPT contributes to learning vocabulary since it expresses using words in detail and provides examples if required. Best of all, ChatGPT’s feedback is immediate, unlike feedback provided by a teacher, which understandably takes time (Hong, 2021b) due to many reasons such as the teacher’s busy schedule. It can be concluded that ChatGPT is a free, sufficient tool working (Hong, 2023) to be an assistant/alternative to human tutors. According to Kanade (2023), there are some features that characterize ChatGPT as a unique tool. First, ChatGPT uses NLP to comprehend daily language, encompassing sarcasm and cultural references. Second, ChatGPT has an extensive vocabulary including both common and technical terms due to its vast training dataset of 570 GB. In particular, it demonstrates contextual understanding by considering previous messages and conversations to generate relevant responses. Third, ChatGPT supports multiple languages enabling users to communicate effortlessly in several languages. Fourth, ChatGPT encourages creative abilities by generating poems, jokes, and other forms of creative writing. Fifth, ChatGPT benefits from continuous self-improvement because it receives feedback on its responses from users over time.

On the other hand, chatbots are not capable of thinking and problem-solving as humans exactly are. More specifically, chatbots are able to provide pre-programmed answers to common inquiries and are unable to analyze complex
situations or make decisions depending on incomplete, vague, or unclear information, leading to a lack of the capability to deal with situations that occur outside of their programmed scope (El-Seoud et al., 2023). Moreover, chatbots are not able to recognize and comprehend human feelings and experiences. In other words, although ChatGPT can provide users with accurate and adequate answers, it is unable to empathize with people exactly as humans can (Borji, 2023). This is because ChatGPT works based on algorithms and data, unlike humans who have subjective emotions and experiences that shape their thoughts and actions. Furthermore, it is notable to acknowledge the possible drawbacks associated with excessive dependence on AI tools, including the negative influence on creativity and professional growth (Nazaretsky et al., 2022) hindering learning outcomes as well as some potential concerns related to plagiarism arising from the utilization of ChatGPT (Khalil & Erkan, 2023). Additionally, ChatGPT is incapable of empathy on the part of the person responding to users (El-Seoud et al., 2023). ChatGPT also offers non-personalized solutions that do not consider the individualized needs of each user (Deng & Lin, 2022).

**Previous studies**

Vocabulary building plays a crucial role in several aspects of language acquisition, including reading, listening, speaking, writing, and communication. Monika and Suganthan (2024) conducted a study to investigate the EFL learners’ perceptions of the effectiveness of using ChatGPT on their general language proficiency, specifically on their vocabulary improvement. The findings revealed that ChatGPT has revolutionized learning patterns and language acquisition because it is not time-consuming and is able to collect data in a short period of time. Moreover, it was demonstrated that ChatGPT greatly improved the participants’ vocabulary acquisition. Jeon (2021) implemented an empirical study to examine the impact of chatbots-Assisted Dynamic Assessment (CD-DA) on vocabulary development. Using chatbots created Google’s Dialogflow, the CD-DA group showed significantly higher vocabulary gains compared to other groups. The results emphasized the role of chatbots not only in boosting vocabulary acquisition and individualized assessment but also in offering valuable diagnostic information about learners’ vocabulary learning progress.

In addition, Shaikh et al. (2023) assessed the usability of ChatGPT for formal English language learning. They used a questionnaire-based approach with participants from various language proficiency levels and backgrounds. According to the results obtained, it was found that ChatGPT is considered a valuable, effective tool in facilitating several tasks related to language learning, involving vocabulary learning. Furthermore, Qasem et al. (2023) conducted an experimental study at Bisha University, in Saudi Arabia, focusing on online classroom of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) during the COVID-19 period, to investigate the usefulness of the Dialogflow chatbot on ESP vocabulary learning. This study included two groups, an experimental group and a control one, with pre-tests and post-tests to examine the participants’ vocabulary background. The results showed that this chatbot is considered effective and interactive to enhance EFL learners’ vocabulary acquisition. Petrović and Jovanovic (2021) critically investigated the current state of four chatbots used for language learning, expressing the complexity of their design and the benefits of utilizing chatbots in vocabulary building. The study showed promising results emphasizing the role of chatbots in vocabulary retention and usage.

Also, Prasetya and Syarif (2023) explored the influence of ChatGPT on language development, shedding light on the accuracy of students’ self-assessment before and after interaction with ChatGPT. The findings asserted that feedback provided by ChatGPT contributes to improving EFL students’ vocabulary development as this technology suggests new words and phrases when interacting with users. Moreover, it was concluded that ChatGPT is useful as it provides context-specific words, such as academic, professional, or social, and helps in comprehending and utilizing prefixes, suffixes, and root words. Accordingly, this supports expanding EFL learners’ vocabulary and assisting them in expressing themselves more sufficiently. Song and Song (2023) assessed the influence of AI-assisted language learning on Chinese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students’ writing skills and writing motivation. The participants demonstrated that using ChatGPT fosters their vocabulary choices and expands their vocabulary and enhances their writing flow due to its capacity to give suggestions and examples.

### III. RESEARCH METHODS

To achieve the objective of this research which investigated the Saudi female EFL learners’ perceptions of the impact of using ChatGPT on their vocabulary improvement, a mixed-methods approach was adopted to collect and analyze data and discuss the results.

**Participants**

The population of this study consisted of Saudi female EFL students of Majmaah University enrolled in different academic levels. The sample was chosen randomly. It contained 101 female participants; 13 of them agreed to be interviewed. Among them, 47.5% were aged between 21-23 years old, 46.5% of were within the age range of 18-20 years; and 5.9% were 24 years old and older.

**Instruments**

This study used a five-point Likert questionnaire developed by the researcher consisting of five options, which were strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. It contained 20 items discussing the effectiveness of utilizing ChatGPT in their vocabulary acquisition. To achieve the objective of the study, analyzing the collected data was implemented through various statistical methods using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS
was used to calculate frequencies and percentages to identify the personal and social characteristics of the participants. Moreover, the validity and reliability of the research instruments were assessed. In addition, mean and standard deviation were calculated to recognize the responses of the participants and the one-way ANOVA test was conducted to identify any differences in the participants’ responses. These statistical measures were utilized to gain valuable insights and draw meaningful conclusions from the collected data.

However, it is worth mentioning that the reliability of the questionnaire items was calculated by using Cronbach’s Alpha, yielding a value of 0.868, which means that the questionnaire was reliable. In addition, the stability coefficient for the individual components of the research instrument ranged from 0.753 to 0.827 (see Table 1). Moreover, to ensure the validity of the questionnaire items, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated as shown in Table 2. The Pearson correlation coefficient ranged from 0.518 to 0.871, indicating a high level of internal consistency and strong validity indicators. It is notable that all the questionnaire items were statistically significant at the level of 0.01.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE DIMENSIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
<td>Reliability coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building</td>
<td>.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Reliability</td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to using a quantitative approach, this study employed a qualitative approach. 13 Saudi EFL students willingly participated in online individual structured interviews sent to them via a Google Forms link, providing valuable perspectives on their experiences with ChatGPT as a tool for improving their vocabulary skills.

### IV. RESULTS

**Quantitative data**

**Effectiveness of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building**

To indicate the impact of utilizing ChatGPT on vocabulary building, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation of the individuals’ responses were computed as follows (Table 3):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3</th>
<th>QUANTITATIVE DATA OF THE SECTION “EFFECTIVENESS OF USING CHATGPT ON VOCABULARY BUILDING OF EFL LEARNERS (N=101)”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Approval degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ChatGPT has helped me to improve my vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ChatGPT is effective for learning vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I frequently use ChatGPT for vocabulary-related tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I would recommend using ChatGPT for vocabulary acquisition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall mean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above proved that the participants generally agreed on the effectiveness of utilizing ChatGPT for improving vocabulary. As shown, item 4 “I would recommend using ChatGPT for vocabulary acquisition” was ranked first, receiving the highest mean score of 4.13 ± 0.78. In the second position came item 3 “I frequently use ChatGPT for vocabulary-related tasks” with a mean score of 3.89 ± 0.98. Following that, item 2 “ChatGPT is effective for learning vocabulary” was ranked third with a mean score of 3.88 ± 0.77. Item 1 “ChatGPT has helped me to improve my vocabulary” was ranked last with a mean score of 3.78 ± 0.87.


Advantages of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building

To determine the advantages of using ChatGPT for building vocabulary, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation of the individuals’ responses were calculated as follows (Table 4):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ChatGPT provides accurate responses for vocabulary-related tasks.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ChatGPT has increased my motivation to learn new words.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ChatGPT has improved my ability to use new words in contexts.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ChatGPT has provided me with contextually appropriate vocabulary</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>suggestions/alternatives.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ChatGPT has helped me expand my vocabulary across different subject</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>areas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ChatGPT makes me more confident to use newly learned words when</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>communicating.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>ChatGPT has increased my awareness of different word synonyms and</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>antonyms.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>ChatGPT makes it easier to remember new words learned through it.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>ChatGPT has exposed me to vocabulary words that I wouldn’t have come</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>across otherwise.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>ChatGPT has improved my ability to comprehend and interpret complex</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>texts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>ChatGPT provides real-time feedback or correction, which can make it</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>easier to identify and fix vocabulary errors.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Using ChatGPT for learning vocabulary has been an enjoyable and</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>engaging experience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 demonstrates the consensus among the participants emphasizing that ChatGPT is advantageous for improving vocabulary. The overall mean score for this aspect was \(3.86 \pm 0.53\). Particularly, item 6 “ChatGPT increases my motivation to learn new words” came first as it received the highest mean score \((4.01 \pm 0.90)\). Following that, item 5 “ChatGPT provides accurate responses for vocabulary-related tasks” received a mean score of \(3.98 \pm 0.88\). In the third place, item 13 “ChatGPT has exposed me to vocabulary words that I wouldn’t have come across otherwise” came with a mean score of \(3.97 \pm 0.83\). However, item 15 “ChatGPT provides real-time feedback or correction, which can make it easier to identify and fix vocabulary errors” came in the eleventh place with a mean score of \(3.62 \pm 1.01\), followed by item 16 “Using ChatGPT for learning vocabulary has been an enjoyable and engaging experience” that was ranked last in this section with a mean score of \(3.59 \pm 1.0\).

Disadvantages of using ChatGPT on vocabulary building

To determine the disadvantages of using ChatGPT for building vocabulary, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation of the individuals’ responses were calculated as follows (Table 5):
emphasized the ability of ChatGPT to explain unfamiliar words and correct mistakes, enabling them to improve their personalized learning, enhancing critical and creative thinking, and assisting teachers. Moreover, the participants stated, “ChatGPT has the potential to positively impact education by providing access to information, supporting that fosters personalized learning and encourages critical and creative thinking skills. For instance, a participant mentioned explanations, and corrections, assuring that it is a more accessible tool for vocabulary building. They indicated that it is easier to use and clearer to understand than other methods in my point of view, I think it is easier to use and clearer to understand than other methods.

According to Table 5, the participants agreed regarding the disadvantages that can hinder the usefulness of utilizing ChatGPT to enhance vocabulary. The average mean score for this aspect was 3.60 ± 0.60. The item that was ranked first was item 20, which stated that “ChatGPT’s vocabulary suggestions may be limited or repetitive” with a mean score of 4.05 ± 0.88. Following that, item 18, which mentioned “ChatGPT may struggle to understand certain words, resulting in less helpful responses”, received a mean score of 3.47 ± 0.97. Thirdly, item 19, which highlighted that “ChatGPT may not always give detailed explanations for specific words”, came, indicating a mean score of 3.47 ± 1.07. Finally, the item that was ranked last was item 17, which stated that “ChatGPT may sometimes provide incorrect definitions or examples for vocabulary words”, with a mean score of 3.43 ± 0.96.

**Qualitative data**

In addition to analyzing quantitative data, this study made use of a qualitative approach to gain a deeper understanding of the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of the utility of ChatGPT for vocabulary enhancement. Using Google Forms, a total of 13 Saudi female EFL students voluntarily participated in individual structured interviews, presenting valuable insights into their experiences of using ChatGPT as a tool for vocabulary building. The participants have been anonymized to keep their identities confidential. The interviews were conducted to delve into the nuances of the participants’ interactions with ChatGPT, presenting a more detailed exploration of the features and limitations identified in the qualitative data analysis. The qualitative data obtained from the interviews underwent an accurate thematic analysis process. The participants were asked the following questions:

1. Do you believe that ChatGPT has positively impacted your vocabulary learning compared to traditional methods?
2. What are the key benefits of using ChatGPT for vocabulary learning compared to other methods or resources?
3. Have you encountered any limitations or challenges when using ChatGPT for vocabulary acquisition? If so, what are they?
4. Are there any additional features or improvements you would like to see in ChatGPT to enhance its effectiveness for vocabulary acquisition?

**The analysis of the interview’s first question responses**

All the participants emphasized their beliefs towards the positive influence of using ChatGPT on their vocabulary skills compared to the traditional methods. They mentioned various ways of how ChatGPT contributes to expanding their vocabulary. Firstly, ChatGPT provides opportunities to practice real-time conversations, enabling them to be engaged in conversations discussing various topics, unknowingly acquiring new words and their meanings. The conversational nature of ChatGPT enables them to practice their language skills and enrich their vocabulary. For example, one participant stated that “ChatGPT has a lot of new vocabularies, many meanings, and puts them in sentences that help us learn new words.” Two participants said, “it helps me develop my English through real-time conversations, making my vocabulary broader” and “ChatGPT allows users to make a conversation, and the conversation can be about multiple topics, so we can use the language, improve it, and try to learn more vocabulary while we talk, without even being aware that we are learning”.

Secondly, the participants demonstrated that they believe ChatGPT is convenient and efficient. They asserted that using ChatGPT saves their time and effort as it can find linguistic alternatives. In addition, they affirmed ChatGPT’s clarity, ease of use, and convenience that allow them to learn and develop their vocabularies. For instance, a participant stated, “it also saves a lot of time and effort and finds linguistic alternatives for me.” Another one proposed that “from my point of view, I think it is easier to use and clearer to understand than other methods”.

Furthermore, they confirmed ChatGPT’s nature of user-friendly interface and clarity in providing feedback, explanations, and corrections, assuring that it is a more accessible tool for vocabulary building. They indicated that it fosters personalized learning and encourages critical and creative thinking skills. For instance, a participant mentioned that “ChatGPT has the potential to positively impact education by providing access to information, supporting personalized learning, enhancing critical and creative thinking, and assisting teachers. Moreover, the participants emphasized the ability of ChatGPT to explain unfamiliar words and correct mistakes, enabling them to improve their

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**Table 5**

Quantitative Data of the Section “Disadvantages of Using ChatGPT on Vocabulary Building of EFL Learners (N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Approval degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>ChatGPT may sometimes provide incorrect definitions or examples for</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vocabulary words.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>ChatGPT may struggle to understand certain words, resulting in less</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>helpful responses.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>ChatGPT may not always give detailed explanations for specific words.</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>ChatGPT’s vocabulary suggestions may be limited or repetitive.</td>
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language skills. A participant stated that “It has a positive impact because it provides feedback on vocabulary and correcting mistakes”.

The analysis of the interview’s second question responses

Based on the responses provided, the participants explained several key benefits of utilizing ChatGPT for vocabulary building compared to other methods or resources. One significant advantage mentioned is the access to an extensive and various vocabulary. Particularly, ChatGPT offers an unlimited number of words and chooses the easiest instances to provide users with quick understanding. For EFL learners, this feature is very helpful as it leads to gradually enhancing their vocabulary without overwhelming them. One participant said, “It provides an infinite number of vocabularies, through which you can use the easiest one for you”.

Another prominent feature of ChatGPT emphasized by the participants is its efficiency and speed. They noted that it allows for a quick search, gives prompt answers, and effectively summarizes vocabulary. This speed and efficiency are advantageous for performing tasks or assignments in a timely manner. One participant noted that “ChatGPT helped me increase speed and efficiency. It is also quick to search and summarizes vocabulary clearly.” Moreover, the interactive mode of ChatGPT was emphasized as a valuable advantage for language learning. It was mentioned by some participants that this tool can enhance their language skills as it allows them to practice their writing skills and be engaged in several conversations. In addition, they assumed that they could tailor their learning sessions according to their needs, styles, and preferences. For example, a participant proposed that “ChatGPT allows for conversational mode, personal learning, variety of topics, and provides different synonyms for words”.

The participants also highly valued the precision and clarity of academic words and their meanings provided by ChatGPT. This feature can be helpful specifically for those who are engaged in academic studies or professional language learning. Another key feature of ChatGPT is its accessibility. Particularly, it is available at any time or place, enabling EFL learners to learn at their convenience. The ease of finding information quickly and the available various options for learning were also highlighted as beneficial advantages. One participant expressed, “It is easier and faster because it is available at any time, provides different options for learning, and helps in finding the information that we need faster”.

The analysis of the interview’s third question responses

The participants’ responses varied when they were asked about the limitations or challenges encountered while utilizing ChatGPT for vocabulary enhancement. One major limitation mentioned was the affordability issue. For example, a participant pointed out that “one of the obstacles is that it may not be free, and this is not suitable for everyone.” They also assumed that although ChatGPT can enrich their vocabulary, it might not develop their writing skills. Another participant said, “it will improve my vocabulary, but my writing will not”.

Another challenge that emerged was that ChatGPT may potentially generate incorrect or made-up responses. For example, it was mentioned that “ChatGPT is very easy and clear to provide the vocabulary, but it sometimes has the potential to generate plausible but incorrect or made-up responses.” In addition, limitations related to pronunciation and comprehension were also highlighted. One participant identified the difficulty in catching the correct way to pronounce words (“Yes sometimes I can’t catch the correct pronunciation”), while another declared that ChatGPT sometimes gives excessive details and repetitive words in which this can be challenging to navigate (“Somewhat, yes, because it gives a lot of details and repetition of vocabulary sometimes”).

Furthermore, an obstacle associated with language comprehension was highlighted. A participant noted that ChatGPT may lack the ability to interpret the meaning of literature-specific words or phrases, producing vague or nonspecific answers (“The limitation of language because they don’t have the ability to understand the meaning of words and phrases like literature words or phrases; they don’t give me specific answers”). Additionally, examples were ChatGPT failed to recognize idiomatic phrases, resulting in potential confusion for users (“Sometimes it doesn’t recognize idioms phrase”).

However, not all participants illustrated encountering limitations or challenges. Some of them pointed out that ChatGPT is easy and straightforward for vocabulary improvement without highlighting any significant problems. They noted that the clarity of ChatGPT contributes to gaining the wanted words (“No, I haven’t because using the ChatGPT is very easy”; “No, ChatGPT is very easy and clear to provide the vocabulary”).

The analysis of the interview’s fourth question responses

Analyzing the participants’ responses revealed diverse perspectives regarding additional features or suggested improvements for ChatGPT to be more helpful in vocabulary learning. One significant feature mentioned is increasing its accessibility and affordability. The participants highlighted the need for ChatGPT to be free, enabling them as EFL learners to access its vocabulary acquisition capabilities (“For sure, to become free”).

Additional features emphasized were realism and authenticity. The participants expressed that ChatGPT should become able to speak in colloquial dialects since language has various usages in different regions or communities. This contributes to providing EFL students with opportunities to be exposed to authentic language and helping them to better understand informal words (“It must be a speaker of colloquial dialects”). The idea of improving formal and informal word coverage was also stated as another suggestion. They illustrated that it is significant for ChatGPT to improve its vocabulary repertoire to include a broader range of formal and informal words. This can ensure a comprehensive learning experience for EFL learners (“Improve many formal and informal vocabulary”).
Another factor mentioned was the need to cater to special needs. The participants asserted the importance of context in generating relevant answers. They pointed out that ChatGPT should consider the wider context of a conversation or topic to provide more adequate and suitable answers. This incorporates additional information or references (“I think that ChatGPT needs to adding context for more relevant answers”). Moreover, the participants stated that ChatGPT could benefit from using the latest advancements in language modeling to foster its vocabulary learning capabilities (“creating even more advanced language models”).

One important feature was highlighted regarding including audio chats alongside textual ones in order to facilitate practicing pronunciation and effectively expand vocabulary (“In order for us to practice pronouncing words correctly and expanding our vocabulary, I would like to have audio chats in addition to textual ones.”). Additionally, many participants demonstrated the significance of using multimedia features such as animations and audio clips. They identified that this feature can be helpful in understanding words more clearly and in providing a more engaging learning experience (“Sure, adding animations and audio clips also helps to understand vocabulary more clearly!”). However, while most participants provided some suggestions, others expressed satisfaction with ChatGPT’s current capabilities and asserted it is user-friendly without any particular improvements in mind (“No I don’t have any ideas to add for ChatGPT because I see the ChatGPT are a good program”; “don’t really have any, I think it's really good and pretty easy to use for anyone who would like to use it”).

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to explore the Saudi female EFL learners’ perceptions of using ChatGPT for vocabulary skills improvement. Regarding the first research question, which is “How do Saudi female EFL learners perceive the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?”, the overall result indicated that ChatGPT is advantageous in enhancing vocabulary acquisition compared to the traditional methods. It was positively agreed that ChatGPT is effective in building vocabulary and would be recommended to use for this purpose. This highlights a strong belief in the sufficiency of ChatGPT as a tool for enhancing vocabulary skills.

For the second research question which is “What advantages do Saudi female EFL learners identify that contribute to the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?”, the participants reported many advantages of using ChatGPT to improve their vocabulary. The frequent use of ChatGPT for vocabulary-related tasks was asserted. This acknowledgement of ChatGPT’s effectiveness aligns with previous studies (e.g., Jeon, 2021; Shaikh et al., 2023; Suganthal, 2024) highlighting the potential of ChatGPT in facilitating language learning, particularly vocabulary enhancement. In addition, ChatGPT provides opportunities for users to be engaged in meaningful conversations and offer relative responses, facilitating vocabulary growth and retention. This is in line with the results of Petrović and Jovanovic (2021) and Govindarajan and Christuraj (2023).

Moreover, the participants reported that ChatGPT has helped them improve their vocabulary and offered adequate responses for vocabulary-related tasks. This asserts the usefulness of ChatGPT as a resource for gaining correct definitions, explanations, and examples, accurate information, and linguistics support. This goes with what was asserted by Hong (2012b) and Govindarajan and Christuraj (2023). The capability of ChatGPT to offer contextually suitable vocabulary suggestions or alternatives was also deemed valuable, confirming what Prasetya and Syarif (2023) stated. This feature promotes, for EFL learners, selecting the most appropriate words depending on specific contexts, contributing to developing their overall language proficiency. Furthermore, ChatGPT enables EFL learners to be exposed to unfamiliar vocabulary in which it is considered a significant advantage. In other words, it expands EFL students’ lexical repertoire and fosters the exploration of various word choices when presenting users with words they would not have encountered before, aligning with what Govindarajan and Christuraj (2023) mentioned. This exposure to different words contributes to expanding vocabulary and boosting EFL learners’ overall language competence. Moreover, the participants unanimously illustrated that ChatGPT can expand their vocabulary due to its conversational nature that offers opportunities for real-time practice, allowing them to discuss diverse topics and learn new words and their meanings effortlessly. This is in line with the results of Hong (2023), ChatGPT’s convenience and efficiency were also determined, highlighting its time-saving features and clarity of use. In other words, ChatGPT was acknowledged to be user-friendly, support personalized learning experiences, and encourage creative and critical thinking skills. Its capability to provide feedback, explanations, and corrections was specifically valued.

In addition, the influence of ChatGPT on motivation and engagement in vocabulary building was another feature emphasized by the participants. The participants reported increased motivation to learn new words by interacting with ChatGPT because they become more motivated when they perceive their learning experiences as enjoyable and rewarding. This is consistent with the results of Song and Song (2023). In addition, the personalized nature of responses provided by ChatGPT helps in EFL learners’ engagement by addressing their specific needs and interests. Supporting what Govindarajan and Christuraj (2023) reported. Additionally, the participants demonstrated that ChatGPT leads to the development of their capability of comprehending and interpreting complicated texts. This result signifies the value of ChatGPT in providing EFL learners with advanced vocabulary and language structure. In particular, encountering sophisticated language patterns and academic vocabulary items enables EFL students to improve the skills necessary to perceive and analyze complex written content, which is beneficial for academic or professional contexts. ChatGPT’s speed was also highlighted as it enables EFL learners to quickly search, and accordingly perform tasks promptly. In
addition, the accessibility of ChatGPT at any time or place was mentioned. Particularly, this feature encourages EFL learners to use this AI tool as it is available whenever/wherever they want if they have internet connection. The feature of the ease of finding information quickly and the diverse vocabulary options was stated. This advantage can attract EFL learners to use ChatGPT since they can find what they want so quickly.

However, despite the advantages of utilizing ChatGPT to build vocabulary, the participants also identified certain limitations associated with using it for vocabulary improvement, and this answers the third research question which is “What disadvantages do Saudi female EFL learners identify that hinder the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement?” One of these challenges expressed by the participants is the repetitive words suggestions provided by ChatGPT. This can hinder ChatGPT’s effectiveness, since users look for a wider range of vocabulary options to improve their language proficiency. The repetition of vocabulary suggestions may also cause a lack of novelty, potentially decreasing EFL learners’ engagement and preventing vocabulary expansion. Furthermore, the affordability issue was highly identified as a serious challenging since this tool cannot be available to all users or users cannot enjoy all ChatGPT’s features unless they subscribe in which this can be difficult for students to do. Also, some instances were illustrated where ChatGPT met with difficulties in understanding some definite words, leading to less helpful responses. This disadvantage shows that, in some cases, the ChatGPT’s limited understanding of vocabulary might be context-dependent or impacted by the comprehensiveness of its underlying data, corroborating what El-Seoud et al. (2023) mentioned. This can frustrate EFL learners who depend on ChatGPT to get accurate and comprehensive information, possibly undermining hamper confidence in ChatGPT’s reliability.

Additionally, it is known that access to detailed explanations is pivotal for EFL learners who seek holistic insights into words meaning, usage, and connotations. The participants emphasized an obstacle which is the lack of detailed explanation provided by ChatGPT for particular words. They claimed that ChatGPT’s responses sometimes lack depth or clarity, which may disturb their comprehension of complicated vocabulary concepts. This result supports the result of El-Seoud et al. (2023). Another disadvantage highlighted by the participants is that ChatGPT may occasionally give incorrect definitions or examples for specific words. This challenge raises a question about the accuracy and reliability of ChatGPT’s answers. Incorrect information may mislead EFL learners and hinder their progress, potentially leading to acquiring incorrect word meanings or usage patterns. This emphasized the need for caution and critical evaluation while using ChatGPT for vocabulary learning.

Suggestions to improve ChatGPT to be more beneficial were mentioned. For example, increasing its accessibility and affordability was illustrated since EFL learners tend to use it but they cannot utilize all its features without payment. Moreover, the need for ChatGPT to be more realistic and authentic was highlighted in order to be able to identify several colloquial or standard variations of languages. This may raise ChatGPT’s reliability and accuracy because it will respond very accurately depending on dialects used by EFL learners to interact with. In other words, this contributes to providing EFL students with opportunities to be exposed to authentic language and helping them to better understand informal words. Additionally, the features of providing formal and informal language and the ability of ChatGPT to consider wider contexts were mentioned. Another significant suggestion related to adding audio chats alongside textual chats was indicated. This contributes to enhancing the learning process since EFL students can hear and imitate correct pronunciation if this feature is available.

In sum, the data shows the advantages and disadvantages related to using ChatGPT for building vocabulary from the participants’ viewpoints. The advantages involve effective vocabulary acquisition, accurate responses and alternative word suggestions, exposure to unfamiliar words, motivation and engagement, and enhanced understanding of complex texts. However, it is important to be aware of ChatGPT’s potential disadvantages such as repetitive word suggestions or alternatives, difficulties with understanding certain words, lack of detailed explanation for some particular words, and the potentiality of providing incorrect definitions or examples. Understanding these advantages and disadvantages can help EFL learners make certain decisions regarding integrating ChatGPT into their vocabulary learning strategies.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate the perceptions of Saudi female EFL learners of the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of using ChatGPT for improving vocabulary skills. The advantages of utilizing ChatGPT reported asserted that it is efficient in building vocabulary, providing adequate responses and vocabulary suggestions, offering opportunities for users to be exposed to unfamiliar words, keeping them motivated and engaged, and improving comprehension of complex texts. However, some disadvantages were identified, such as the inability of ChatGPT of comprehension of certain words, providing limited or repetitive vocabulary suggestions, lack of detailed explanations, and occasionally offering incorrect definitions or examples.

The purpose of this research is to gain insights into the potential of ChatGPT as a tool for vocabulary enhancement and to understand its limitations from the perspective of EFL learners. This study provides a comprehensive understanding of the use of ChatGPT for vocabulary improvement. Based on the findings, several recommendations can be made to optimize the utilizing ChatGPT to enrich vocabulary. Firstly, developers should focus on enhancing the system’s understanding of specific words by incorporating more comprehensive and contextually diverse datasets. This can help improve the accuracy and reliability of the system’s responses. Additionally, vocabulary suggestions provided by ChatGPT should expand, ensuring a broader range of options to facilitate learners’ vocabulary expansion. Moreover,
efforts should be made to address the affordability issue of ChatGPT. This may assist all EFL students, particularly those with financial constraints, to access all its features such as offering more affordable subscription options. Additionally, steps should be taken to improve the issue of repetitive word suggestions to allow EFL learners to increase their lexical repertoire and maintain engagement. Pedagogically, EFL educators and learners can approach ChatGPT as a valuable supplementary tool rather than a standalone solution for vocabulary learning. While ChatGPT can provide meaningful interactions and exposure to unfamiliar words, its limitations in understanding certain words and providing comprehensive explanations warrant the integration of other resources and human guidance. Learners should be encouraged to critically evaluate and verify the information provided by ChatGPT, fostering a balanced approach to vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, this study highlights the importance of learner autonomy and metacognitive strategies when utilizing ChatGPT. Learners should be encouraged to actively reflect on their vocabulary learning experiences, monitor their progress, and employ strategies to address any limitations or challenges they encounter. By taking an active role in their learning process, learners can maximize the benefits of ChatGPT and mitigate its limitations.

To further advance research in this area, research could examine the long-term effectiveness of ChatGPT in vocabulary building. This could include investigating the ability of EFL learners to retain newly acquired words over an extended period empirically. Additionally, future studies could provide a comparative analysis to identify the most effective approaches by comparing the influence of ChatGPT with other vocabulary learning tools. Moreover, other studies could investigate the effect of using ChatGPT on other language skills such as writing or speaking skills. Exploring the influence of ChatGPT on vocabulary improvement among EFL learners belonging to different proficiency levels (i.e., beginner, intermediate, or advanced) is another suggestion. This can identify how effective ChatGPT is to cater to EFL students’ various needs and abilities across proficiency levels. Furthermore, as a limitation of the current study, focusing exclusively on the female participants may limit generalizing the results. Therefore, future studies can include male participants or both male and female participants to examine the potential differences in the effectiveness of ChatGPT for vocabulary building.

In conclusion, based on the perceptions of EFL learners, ChatGPT offers promising advantages for vocabulary improvement, including its effectiveness, accurate responses, exposure to unfamiliar vocabulary, motivation, and improved comprehension. However, the limitations identified in this study should be acknowledged, and recommendations should be considered to optimize its use. By embracing a balanced and informed approach, EFL educators and learners can harness the potential of ChatGPT as a valuable tool in vocabulary learning, complementing other instructional resources and fostering autonomous and reflective language learning practices.

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The Paradoxical Characteristics of Javanese Women in Campursari Lyrics With Mutual and Rejected Romance Themes: A Critical Reading From a Stylistics Perspective

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Abstract—Cross-sex relationships between a man and a woman have their own appeal as a theme explored by researchers in creative texts such as song lyrics. The various types of cross-sex relationships in these lyrics reflect the varying characteristics of the participants involved and the language choices employed by the songwriter. Didi Kempot's Javanese Campursari song lyrics, for example, contain a dualism of contradictory female characters penned within his love-laden songs about two sorts of cross-sex relationships: mutual and rejected romance. To uncover the ideological effects of the language choices used by Didi Kempot, a set of analytical tools is needed. Thus, the goal of using Jeffries' critical stylistic model to critically read Didi Kempot's Campursari lyrics is to reveal the linguistic strengths in portraying female characters in the lyrics, thereby gaining an understanding of the songwriter's style in selecting and utilizing the potential of the Javanese language in positioning female participants in his song lyrics. Ultimately, this study can provide linguists with theoretical benefits in terms of new perspectives on contemporary stylistic studies and critical text analysis in Indonesia. The study also offers practical benefits in terms of applying critical stylistic perspectives to non-factual texts, such as Javanese song lyrics, to express ideological effects based on the songwriter's language choices and concrete linguistic evidences.

Index Terms—critical stylistics, women's dualism, song lyrics, cross-sex relationship theme

I. INTRODUCTION

Widely developed throughout Indonesia, Campursari is a Javanese music genre that uses a combination of traditional instruments such as the Javanese gamelan—the traditional music ensemble made up predominantly of percussive instruments—and modern instruments like the keyboard and bass (Laksono, 2010; Richter, 2012; Wadiyo et al., 2011; Wiyoso, 2007). The essence of this mixture is also reflected in its lyrics. The lyrics use the Rinengga language, a Javanese language used for poetic purposes. It supports archaic and literary nuances often supporting aesthetic and positive impressions. In addition, it is mixed with everyday language, which can support a sense of familiarity, relaxation, and even carry negative connotations, making it easily understood by the general public (Setiawan et al., 2020). Moreover, these lyrics can also represent specific experiences such as actions, cognition, and verbalization. Therefore, Campursari lyrics can potentially be used by songwriters as a means of expressing their perspectives or ideologies related to life issues or social problems within the Javanese community.

Didi Kempot was both a songwriter and a singer who made Campursari globally popular (Marjani et al., 2023; Rahmawati, 2017; Zandra, 2019). From 1989 until his death in 2020, he composed numerous romantic songs with lyrics about various types of cross-sex relationships, including mutual and rejected relationships as classified by Guerrero and Chavez (2005).

Women in Didi Kempot’s Javanese Campursari song lyrics are depicted according to stereotypes or in a positive light, as is prevalent in Javanese society. This is demonstrated by women's attitudes and behaviors toward maintaining relationships, their ability to improve men's lives, and their existence in the eyes of men. Alternatively, the contradictory portrayal of women, like their fickleness in maintaining relationships, aggressiveness in pursuing the love of men, and...
courages in resisting it, is also presented. Thus, Campursari notably has the role of not only expressing ideas and criticisms, but also representing the songwriters’ perspectives on various phenomena. Consequently, in the creative process of writing Campursari songs, all language potentials are exploited to compose lyrics that are aesthetically pleasing and influencing the listeners’ appraisal along through the choice of language.

Referring to their significance, Campursari lyrics can be critically analyzed to reveal the ideological effects of the songwriter’s language choices in portraying women in mutual and rejected romance-themed lyrics. By analyzing both through the critical stylistics tools of Jeffries’ (2010) model, it is possible to portray women in the two types of cross-sex relationships.

Several studies have used critical text analysis for song lyrics using tools and perspectives from various fields of knowledge such as art and literature, communication, social sciences, education, and psychology. For example, Church (2022) analyzed the postmodernism found in The Beatles’ songs from an artistic and musicological perspective. Bozzolo (2022) studied critique development practices of song lyrics from postcolonial and decolonial perspectives. Meanwhile Bonsu (2023) examined critical discourse on social injustice in lyrics from a socio-cognitive perspective. A similar study was also conducted by Dzarna et al. (2023), revealing the ideologies incorporated in Madurese song lyrics from a psychological perspective. Kusumaningsih et al. (2019), Ojoawo (2019), and El Sanyoura and Xu (2020) investigated the ideology of expressing love in song lyrics based on gender differences from a psychological and pedagogical perspective.

Many other Indonesian researchers have also conducted related studies such as analyzing men and women in Javanese song lyrics through the lens of communication via Barthes’ semiotic theory (Gani & Chandra, 2007), the relationship between Javanese men and women in Dangdut songs through the perspective of social psychology roles (Ulya et al., 2021), and the portrayal of women in Javanese song lyrics through a literary hermeneutic perspective (Murniati et al., 2021). These relevant studies utilized diverse tools based on their scientific backgrounds.

Studies of Javanese and Indonesian song lyrics, with the stylistic perspective evolving over time have been more focused on language performance, as seen in research by Yulistiana et al. (2019), Pertwi et al. (2019), Iswara et al. (2022), Lestari and Sulistyow (2019), Suwarso (2023), Winata and Surana (2022). However, these studies have not yet been linked to the implementation of the songwriter’s ideology.

A critical stylistics study was conducted by Khalil and Sahan (2022) to investigate how the ideology of war poems was depicted by juxtaposing the virtual realm within the text with the tangible world, thus shaping the recipient’s anticipations. Maledo and Emamma (2022) researched poetry, focusing on metaphor as a space for social, political, and religious discourse. Sallomi and Obied (2024) studied the victimization of women in the novel, while Rawian et al. (2024) uncovered a discursive examination of ideologically themed topics among sports commentators. Despite this, critical stylistics analyses focusing on song lyrics appear to have garnered limited interest among researchers. Furthermore, studies employing critical stylistics that encompass both factual and non-factual texts have yet to be conducted in Indonesia.

Javanese song lyrics essentially contain the linguistic power of all the language potentials chosen by the songwriters. Therefore, the application of tools developed by Jeffries (2010) has led to studies that use data sources from different languages. Moreover, even though their roles or functions remain the same, the differences in language systems also have the potential to generate different classifications of forms and meanings. Therefore, performing critical studies of Javanese song lyrics using tools developed by Jeffries (2010) is important to demonstrate their application models and classification patterns within the text. Consequently, the examination of song lyrics, from a critical stylistics perspective, presents a new avenue for research, filling a significant gap in the existing literature. This approach is expected to contribute to the advancement of stylistics studies and critical text analysis in Indonesia, employing more comprehensive analytical tools and presenting linguistic evidence more concretely.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Love-Themed Javanese Campursari Song Lyrics

Romantic relationships are a common theme in Campursari songs, including those composed by Didi Kempot (Sari & Puguh, 2020). According to Collins, Welsh, and Furman (2009), these relationships involve mutual, long-lasting interactions between partners where they express their feelings and are engaged in anticipated sexual behaviors. These relationships can bring about various emotions, such as care, responsibility, and harmony, as well as negative ones like anger and jealousy (Weiten & Lloyd, 2006). Therefore, both paradoxical emotions can arise alongside romantic relationship issues in the discourse of the participants.

According to Guerrero and Chavez (2005), song lyrics may encompass four relationship types: (1) strictly platonic where the participant believes that both he or she and the friend want the relationship to stay strictly on the friendship level; (2) mutual romance (MR) where the participant believes that both they and their partner mutually desire the relationship to become romantic; (3) rejected romance (RR) where one participant does not desire or intend for the relationship to become romantic but feels that the other participant does; and finally, (4) desire romance (DR) where the participant desires the relationship to become romantic but feels that the other participant does not. Based on these cross-sex relationship types, participant characteristics and emotions vary across each relationship type.
Didi Kempot’s Javanese Campursari songs often explore themes of relationships between men and women, with a strong emphasis on desire and romance (Atmanegara, 2020). This is because Didi Kempot, as both a songwriter and a singer, portrays himself (representing the male perspective) as desiring a romantic relationship while feeling that the woman does not share the same desire. Listeners greatly appreciate such narratives, earning Didi Kempot the nickname “The Godfather of Broken Hearts.” The portrayal in the lyrics sometimes reinforces stereotypes that women hurt men and men are easily swayed by them, even though some lyrics show women’s loyalty and sacrifices, alongside men’s strength. Thus, this does not fully represent his views on women.

B. Women’s Portrayal in Javanese Society

Didi Kempot was born and raised in Javanese society. Hence, how he portrayed women was influenced by the perspectives and ideologies within the context of the Javanese culture. Therefore, it is vital for the researchers to provide information about how Javanese community members perceive women.

Perception deals with the process involving the five senses in receiving, organizing, interpreting, or reacting to social stimuli or information (Pareek, 1996). Within Javanese society, people’s ideas about women in romantic relationships change over time. These ideas are often influenced by respected figures like Kanjeng Ratu Hemas. She believes women play important roles and should be ready to make sacrifices for their husbands and serve them well (Susanto, 2000a). Stories in the Serat Candrarini clearly portray qualities of a good Javanese woman, such as: 1) loyalty to men; 2) acceptance of polygamy; 3) love for others; 4) proficiency in women’s work; 5) skill in self-care; 6) simplicity; 7) ability to fulfill men’s desires; 8) attention to in-laws; and 9) enjoyment of reading advice books (Susanto, 2000b).

Meanwhile, the characteristics of women synonymous with Javanese culture include speaking politely, being calm and composed, avoiding conflict, prioritizing harmony, understanding others, being polite, demonstrating strong self-control, having a high tolerance for suffering and showing loyalty (Handayani & Novianto, 2004). Such perceptions nurture the concept of an ideal woman as a wife or potential wife, shaping positive stereotypical perceptions of women in various societal roles, including household life and cross-sex relationships. Conversely, women who deviate from or lack these characteristics may face negative stereotypes in society.

C. Critical Stylistics Analysis Framework

Jeffries (2010) formulates the perspective of Critical Stylistics, which is one of the critical reading models used in the present study. The use of critical stylistics tools to test this model aims to uncover the ideological effects on the songwriter’s language choices regarding the portrayal of women in lyrics with MR and RR subthemes. In stylistic critical analysis, Jeffries (2010) views linguistics as having a set of devices that can be employed as analytical tools. This analysis begins with micro-level structures based on linguistic units which are then interpreted textually in relation to the ideological tendencies of the songwriter. Thus, this interpretation is based on concrete linguistic evidences.

Critical stylistics is an eclectic method merging critical linguistic work, systemic functional linguistics, and stylistics. Jeffries (2010) argues that while critical discourse analysis (CDA) provides a general theory to explain the impact of texts on social and political contexts, stylistics provides detailed tools for text analysis. Furthermore, this analysis also employs contextual and co-textual interpretation concerning the representation of ideational meaning (Jeffries, 2015). Consequently, this can aid in observing how the ideational metafunction relates to the other two metafunctions, specifically in presenting mind style within the text. Therefore, the ideological effects of the songwriter’s language choices in the text can be revealed.

Jeffries (2010) clarifies from the outset that ideology is seen by most discourse analysts and linguists as an unavoidable fact of all discourse. She agreed to use the term ideology to refer only to ideas that are motivated by political aims or selfish intentions. This statement implies that ideology is not only related to doctrines such as political views or social issues. She states that “language can convey ideology either explicitly (‘I hate foreigners.’) or implicitly (‘Those horrible foreigners are back again.’) This is typical but often implied in analytical contexts.” This opinion implies that in the choice of language used, certain effects can emerge, including ideological effects that reflect the ideas, thoughts, and views of the writer. Therefore, Jeffries (2010) offers a way to recognize and evaluate linguistic patterns with analytical tools in critical stylistics based on 10 devices suggested by Fowler (1991), Fairclough (1989), and Simpson (2004). The analytical tools are functional and representational. These tools are:

- Naming and Describing: the representation of groups of nouns or nominalization to represent a linguistic process entity where people, places, and things can be identified in language;
- Representing: actions, events, or states are represented to explore the author’s experiences related to the embodiment of attitudes, events, and circumstances using the transitivity theory modified from Halliday’s (1994) theory;
- Equating and Contrasting: the view that text is also capable of displaying semantic equality (synonyms) or contrast (antonyms) in various ways;
- Exemplifying and Enumerating: using examples and lists. Jeffries (2010) posited that using examples and lists also has its own ideological effects on the reader or listener, as a form of emphasis or as the completeness of a proposition;
Prioritizing: constructing information so the structure of information generally places highlighted or important things as themes;

Implying and Assuming: the ability to implicate or assume something, making ideologies appear clearer. Assumptions can be formed through presuppositions, while implications can be understood through the implicatures contained in the text;

Negating: the negated form of a clause or statement that makes the reader or listener aware of scenarios that does not occur but might have occurred in other situations. Moreover, this has the potential to influence or create a perception;

Hypothesizing: the role or contribution of modality in building the ideology of the text;

Presenting the Speech and Thoughts of Others: the use of quotations from other people's speeches or thoughts that are included in the text; and

Representing Time, Space, and Society: the use of deixis, or using broad terms and phrases to allude to a specific period, location, or person in context.

III. METHODOLOGY

The Javanese Campursari song lyrics by Didi Kempot were critically examined using the analytical tools of critical stylistics developed by Jeffries (2010). The aim was to uncover ideological effects reveal the paradoxical aspects of the portrayal of women in Didi Kempot's song lyrics with cross-sex relationship types of mutual and rejected romance. Therefore, the method used was a qualitative one with a purposive sampling technique to select the song lyrics and data consisting of linguistic units appropriate for this study. The selection of lyric subthemes was based on the categorization of romantic relationships proposed by Guerrero and Chavez (2005), in this case, those categorized as mutual and rejected romance. The selected song lyrics with mutual romance show both women and men have desires for unification or for maintaining relationships. Meanwhile, the song lyrics with rejected romance chosen for the study represent a prominent contrast in the portrayal of women. These subthemes also reveal another perspective on Didi Kempot's portrayal of women, who are frequently blamed for hurting men. The mutual romance subtheme's data sources include the following titles:

- "Layang Kangên" (LK) /"Longing Letter";
- "Jodho Swarga Donya" (JSD)/"Soulmate";
- "Sanggu Ngimpi" (SN)/"For the Dream";
- "Magêlang Nyimpên Janji" (MNJ)/"Magelang has her Promises"; and
- "Nêmu Bulan" (NB)/"Finding the Moon".

Meanwhile, in lyrics with the rejected romance subtheme, there are "Mudiha" (M)/"Go back!" and "Nekat" (N)/"Determined".

The underlying reasons for choosing the respective songs are as follows. First, the lyrics were written and sung by the male songwriter Didi Kempot, who represents himself as the “I” in the lyrics and the songs portray his experiences with women. Second, the lyrics must include numerous signs that illustrate the contrasted depiction of the woman in the song lyrics.

The technique of data collection was adjusted according to the data sources. Data sources consist of song lyrics. The data for the study were collected through content analysis by which linguistic units in each lyric were classified according to the type of each clause. Then, the type of transitivity process was observed in each clause. Clauses in which the actor, sensor, behaver, or carrier referred to the woman were selected for analysis using critical stylistics. Interviews with competent informants: creative teams, the songwriter's families, and text analysis experts were also conducted. The collected data were then analyzed using Spradley’s (2006) ethnographic analysis method modified by Santos (2021). The technique of data analysis consisted of domain analysis, taxonomy analysis, componential analysis, and analysis of cultural themes. The domain in this case was the women in lyrics categorized as mutual and rejected romance from five mutual-type lyrics and two reject-type lyrics. Taxonomy was based on the ten analytical tools developed by Jeffries (2010). Furthermore, the relationship between domain and taxonomy could be identified through componential analysis. In the componential analysis, the components within the domain were linked with components in taxonomy to identify emerging language behavior patterns, which were then associated with social context and previous researches, thus obtaining cultural themes related to ideological tendencies interpreted from the emerging language patterns. Additionally, the potential for new findings can also be identified.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of the Campursari song lyrics by Didi Kempot through critical reading and the use of critical stylistics tools demonstrate how the songwriter portrays women in lyrics with different types of cross-sex relationships. Each will be elaborated based on the analytical tools. In some cases in this study, an analytical tool is complemented by another tool to obtain a more comprehensive depiction of the characteristics of women which in turn reveals the ideology of the songwriter.
A. Portrayal of Women in Campursari Lyrics With MR and RR Subthemes Through Naming and Describing

The characteristics of women in lyrics with MR and RR subthemes are observable through the naming and describing of the labels attached to them, thus indicating how they are positioned by the songwriter, as shown in the following data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtheme</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Song/Line</th>
<th>Javanese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutual Relationship</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>JSD/10</td>
<td>Apa iki arané jodho swarga donya?</td>
<td>Is this what they call a soul mate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtheme</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>JSD/08</td>
<td>Ilang kêpulas kowé wong sing sêya.</td>
<td>Gone by you, one who is always by my side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(MR)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>JSD/01</td>
<td>Mung kowé sing bisa nambani aku.</td>
<td>Only you that can heal my pain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>JSD/14</td>
<td>Mung kowé sing ngérti marang awakku.</td>
<td>Only you that understand me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejected Relationship</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M/04</td>
<td>Sumpah! aku wêgah nampa kowé sing wis salah.</td>
<td>I swear! I no longer can accept you for what have you done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtheme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The deixis *iki* (“this”) in Table 1 refers to the woman. Therefore, the phrase that follows (*jodho swarga donya*) is an attribute of the woman. This noun phrase contains the antonym *swarga donya* (“both in heaven and in the real world today”) with the core phrase *jodho* (spouse). This contrasting form assumes that the woman is positioned as a partner not only in life here on earth, but also in the afterlife. In the second example, a relative clause with the core *kowe* (“you”) is used along with both a pre-modifier *mung* (“only”) and a post-modifier restricted by the qualifier *sing* (“who”). In these relative forms, the pre-modifier *mung* (“only”) carries the assumption of being “the only one”. Meanwhile, the post-modifier provides a description of a woman who has positive qualities, such as *sing setya* (“who is faithful”) (MR2), *sing bisa nambani* (“who can heal”) (MR3), and *sing ngérti marang awakku* (“who understands me”) (MR4). This attribute can therefore provide an illustration that the woman is positioned as the only one *sing bisa nambani* (“who can heal”) (MR3), meaning that the woman has the ability to improve the condition of the man. Moreover, she is also the only one *sing ngérti* (“who can understand”), assuming that the woman is the only one who can understand and empathize with all of the man’s conditions. Thus, the decision to identify and describe provides an identification of the woman’s qualities based on her behaviors, resulting in a strong identification rather than just an opinion.

The attributes of the woman in the form of relative clauses also indicate what the woman has done. The post-modifier *sing wis salah* (“who has already erred”) in RR1 assumes that the woman has done something considered wrong by the man. For the man, these words can be used to construct logical ideas for why he rejects the woman’s love.

B. Portrayal of Women in Campursari Lyrics With MR and RR Subthemes Through Representing Act, Event, and State

The representation of actions, conditions, and statements is shown through the use of verbs (transitivity). The choice of these verbs can provide a portrayal of activities and conditions carried out by the woman, both in lyrics with the MR and RR subthemes, which also have ideological effects.
The material processes in lyrics with the MR subtheme, like the data in MR/MP1, show that the woman is expected by the man to undergo the material process ēntēnana (“to wait”). This means that the man expects to meet her. Conversely, in RR/MP1, the woman is told to leave, so her presence is not desired by the man. The positive portrayal of the woman in lyrics with the MR subtheme is also supported by the emergence of relational processes, as shown in MR/RP1. The attributes of the carrier "tēkamu" (your arrival) carry the assumption that her presence has improved the man’s condition. Furthermore, the relational process in data MR/RP2 with the attribute “bojo swarga donya” (“heavenly wife of the world”) also depicts the woman as a wife whose love is considered to last forever, even after they have passed away. The portrayal of the woman is also shown through mental behavioral processes called ngajēni (“caring for”) and mēlu susah (“enduring hardship together”). Ngajēni is a combination that shows physical actions such as "serving" and “giving” as well as emotional processes such as “loving” and “caring”. Meanwhile, mēlu susah (“enduring hardship together”) in the Javanese cultural context can encompass mental conditions of sadness as well as physical conditions that require strenuous efforts to fulfill the needs of life, which are often limited.

This is different from the portrayal of women in lyrics with the RR subtheme. The representation of actions, conditions, and statements appears in processes of various types: material, relational, verbal, and mental behavioral. In the material processes of data MR/RR2 and MR/RP3, it shows the actions of the woman attempting to approach a man or gain his love. Interrogative clauses in these processes can also assume the man’s astonishment towards the material actions of the woman, where the circumstance with the deixis saiki (“now”) in MR/RP3, suggests that the woman’s actions are considered inconsistent with the previous situation while simultaneously indicating a woman’s aggressiveness. This is also supported by the use of the verbal processes RR/VP1 showing the efforts of the woman to gain the love of the man by saying sayang (“dear”). The proximal deixis saiki (“now”) as a circumstance and the interrogative sentence type carry the assumption that the verbal process surprises the man because it is inconsistent with the previous situation.

Therefore, what the woman has done can provide logical reasons when the man attributes traits to the woman, as seen in the relational processes of data RR/RP1 through RR/RP3. In these relational processes, the woman is attributed with being cidra (“unfaithful”) (RR/RR2) and nēkat (“reckless”) (RR/RP3). This can support the explicit nature/character of the woman. The negative character as a Javanese woman and inconsistency is also evident in the verbal behavioral process found in RR/MPB1 njaluk pēgat (“asking for divorce”). This process combines actions and words accompanied by behaviors to put an end to the relationship. The circumstance biyen (“formerly”) (RR/MPB1) indicates that the verbal behavioral process was done in the past, assuming that the man has now granted the request for divorce. Such processes actually provide reasons that can logically justify the man’s rejection of the woman’s love as a result of the attitudes and actions she has taken previously.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>DATA OF REPRESENTING ACTS, EVENTS, AND STATES TOWARDS FEMALE PARTICIPANTS IN LYRICS WITH MR AND RR SUBTHEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subtheme</td>
<td>Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual Relationship Subtheme (MR)</td>
<td>Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mental Behavior Process (MPB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Rejected Relationship Subtheme (RR) | Material | 1 | M/01 | (Kowè: φ; actor) Mulîha! (material) | (You: φ) go away (material)! |
| | | 2 | N/01-02 | Ning (conjunction) ngapa (question mark) kowè (actor) kok nēkat ngubér-abèr (material) | But (conjunction) why (question mark) are you (actor) so determined to pursue (material)? |
| | | 3 | N/07-08 | Ning (conjunction) ngapa (question mark) saiki (circumstance) kowè (actor) nyèdhak-nyèdhak? (material) | But why are you (actor) coming (material) now (circumstance)? |
| | Relational | 1 | M/03 | Tēkamu (carrier) mung (relational) gawè aku gêla (attribute) | Your coming (carrier) only (relational) disappoints me (attribute). |
| | | 2 | M/15 | burèng nggërti kowè (carrier) (φ: relational) cidra (attribute) | After knowing you (carrier) (φ: relational) betrayal (attribute). |
| | | 3 | N/05 | kowè (carrier) (kuwi: φ: relational) nēkat (attribute) | You (carrier) (are: φ: relational) so reckless (attribute). |
| | Verbal Process (VP) | 1 | RR/Pr/M/10 | Ning (conjunction) ngapa (question mark) kowè (sayer) saiki (circumstance) bilang (verbal) sayang (verbiage)? | But why do you (sayer) now (circumstance) say (verbal) you love me (verbiage)? |
| | Mental Behavior Process (MPB) | 1 | N/12 | Kîna apu (question mark) dhèk biyen (circumstance) kok (kowè: φ; behave) njaluk (verbal behavioral) | Why did you: φ; behave; ask (verbal behavioral) for a divorce before? |
C. Portrayal of Women in Campursari Lyrics With MR and RR Subthemes Through Enumerating

Enumeration can be conceptualized similarly to the list of examples and features. According to Jeffries (2010), the examples mentioned in the list do not only provide examples, but actually also have ideological effects, as exemplified by the following data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtheme</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Song/Line</th>
<th>Javanese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutual Relationship Subtheme (MR)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>JSD/12-13</td>
<td>Apa iki arané jodho swarga donya? Apa iki arané bojo swarga donya?</td>
<td>Is this what they call a soul mate? Is this what they call as soulmate (spouse in heaven and real life now)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejected Relationship Subtheme (RR)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M/07-10</td>
<td>Trèsnaka wis koktolak, ning ngapa saiki kowé nyêdhak-nyêdhak? Trèsnaka wis kokbuwang, ning ngapa kowé saiki bilang sayang?</td>
<td>My love, you've rejected my love, but why are you coming now (approaching)? My love, you've already thrown away, but why do you now say you love me?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In data MR1, there is an enumeration form with two elegant variations placed within a clause styled with repetition. They are bojo (“wife”) and jodho (“fated spouse”). These two variations not only serve to enhance the aesthetic pronunciation and emphasize meaning but also indicate that the woman is positioned not only as a life companion bojo (“wife”) but also as a jodho (“fated spouse”). Therefore, women are identified not only as wives or companions but also as fated spouses.

Enumeration also appears in lyrics with the RR subtheme with two sets of elegant variations: koktolak (“you reject”) and kokbuwang (”you discard”), as well as nyêdhak-nyêdhak (”approaching”) and bilang sayang (”say you love me”) (RR1). The presence of enumeration in the repetition structure with antithesis can also provide completeness of information about the current situation, as indicated by the deixis saiki (“now”). This assumes that the clauses mentioned before the contrasting conjunction and the deixis ‘now’ actions previously performed by the woman, namely rejecting and discarding the love of the man. These actions also imply that the continuation of the love relationship is hindered. This enumeration form can also support the affirmation of the different actions of the woman between what was done previously and now. This can also establish logical justification for the man being unwilling to accept the woman’s love.

D. Portrayal of Women in Campursari Lyrics With MR and RR Subthemes Through Assuming, Negating and Hypothesizing

The songwriter's choice of words often contains assumptions that arise from presuppositions or from the use of negation and modality. Modality can hypothesize the songwriter's perspective on the abilities, beliefs, and hopes of the songwriter regarding the lyrical information about the current situation, as indicated by the deixis sayang (”faithful”). These two variations not only serve to enhance the aesthetic pronunciation and emphasize meaning but also indicate that the woman is positioned not only as a life companion bojo (”wife”) but also as a jodho (”fated spouse”). Therefore, women are identified not only as wives or companions but also as fated spouses.

Data from MR1 and MR2 clauses containing the epistemic modality bisa (“can”) provide a view of men who consider women capable of making their lives better. Similarly, in MR2, the word nyatané (“in fact”) followed by the deixis nganti têkan saiki (“until now”) (MR2) depicts a duration from the past until the present. This illustrates what has been proven and something that is consistent. Therefore, these expressions indicate the belief of the man in women, seeing them as capable of bringing about change as well as maintaining a consistent attitude towards their commitment to love a man. In addition, the portrayal of a woman's love for a man is also shown through negation forms, as shown by describing the woman’s love as ra nyêdhak bandha (“not desiring wealth”) in MR3, and ra malih (“unchanged” [love]) in RR1. The negation forms are ideologically intriguing because they contain a common assumption in Javanese society that women generally only love wealthy men. Therefore, the negated statements (MR3) assume the viewpoint that the woman’s love is genuine and not materialistic.
The portrayal of women in lyrics with an RR subtheme is quite different. The deontic modality with the [-a] marker affixed to the word mulihat (“Go back!”) indicates a command by the man for the woman to distance herself from him. This is also supported by the modal form aju (“do not”) in data (RR2) and data (RR3) which contain a hypothesis regarding what the woman should do. These forms clearly indicate a rejection of the arrival or presence of women in the love lives of men.

V. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A critical reading of Didi Kempot's Javanese Campursari lyrics on mutual and rejected romance themes through the use of critical stylistics tools can reveal how the songwriter builds contrasting characteristics related to the nature and attitudes of the women in the lyrics. Based on the analysis of the lyrics, it can demonstrate quite a contrasting or paradoxical difference in women's characters, where linguistic units appearing in lyrics with MR subthemes often depict aspects of women that support efforts to maintain romantic relationships. Naming and describing provide labels and explanations of women’s actions while in relationships with men. Therefore, these attributes are not viewed merely as subjective judgments but are based on attitudes stated in their descriptions. Women are also portrayed as capable of transforming men's lives for the better (as shown in relational processes, mental behavioral processes, and the use of modality), making their presence highly anticipated by men (in hypothesizing). Conversely, the analysis tools show linguistic units appearing in RR that refer to women's characters as the cause of men's hardships such as being hurtful towards men (as shown in naming and describing, relational processes, and verbal processes), fruitlessly seeking unrequited love because of their own mistakes (as shown through material and verbal behavioral processes), and being fickle (as shown in enumerating), so their presence is no longer desired by men (as shown in assuming and hypothesizing). This seemingly indicates the clarity or emphasis on the portrayal of both positive and contrasting characteristics of Javanese women through songwriter Didi Kempot’s eyes.

The portrayal of women in lyrics with the mutual romance subtheme reflects the songwriter's view of the ideal Javanese woman as a companion or life partner, much like a true Javanese woman’s character according to Handayani and Novianto (2004). Their perspective of the true Javanese woman is not only to act as kanca wingking (“a friend in the house”) for men but also as sigaraning nyawa (“a soulmate”), regardless of a woman’s status, due to their ability to improve men's lives. Therefore, as found in the research by Gani and Chandra (2007), the perception of women in Didi Kempot's Campursari song lyrics is that women often cause men to suffer, which alone is not enough to conclude the songwriter's ideology about women in the realm of romantic relationships as a whole. This is because, in reality, Didi Kempot also presents works that portray Javanese women as having ideal characteristics as partners, similar to the concept of Javanese women based on the theory of Handayani and Novianto (2004).

Critical reading using Jeffries' critical stylistic analysis tools can show that these tools can work on Javanese language texts. Although there are different structures, their roles and functions remain the same. In the context of naming, for example, when mentioning things about female participants, pre-modifiers frequently come with post-modifiers of the main phrase. These pre-modifiers also include presuppositions that back up certain assumptions and have ideological ramifications. Therefore, when analyzing Javanese language texts for naming, researchers must also consider the use of pre-modifier aspects of their core phrases. In the Javanese language, naming usage, particularly when referencing someone, frequently conveys connotations or certain emotional values; therefore, understanding the meaning of connotations and their context is also required to promote a more comprehensive ideological interpretation.

Didi Kempot often introduces real names of places or regions in the Javanese region in his lyrics as story settings, which, in imaginative creative texts like song lyrics, actually have ideological implications. They not only depict the social conditions of events experienced by the participants but also support an emotional and social closeness to the local community while also popularizing these places or regions. The implication is that such works will be easily accepted and appreciated by society. Therefore, this statement can complement the naming tool from the concept proposed in Jeffries' Critical Stylistics.

The enumerating aspect also frequently appears in Javanese language song lyrics. These can be in the form of clauses that are repeated and then followed by elegant variations. The repeated phrases can support aesthetic effects, while the exquisite modifications that follow the repeating structure can support ideological connotations of completeness or conditional affirmation. This also demonstrates that enumerating in creative works, such as song lyrics, can have both aesthetic and ideological impacts. Finally, Jeffries’ (2010) critical stylistics analysis as a tool for critical reading can work and be relevant in non-factual texts with genres such as song lyrics, where the analytical tool can reveal the songwriter's perspective or ideology regarding the portrayal of women functionally, stylistically, and interpersonally.

VI. CONCLUSION

The characteristics of Javanese women depicted in Didi Kempot's Campursari lyrics with MR and RR types exhibit clear paradoxical aspects. A critical reading of the song lyrics using Critical Stylistics analysis tools can demonstrate how the author's language choices support ideological tendencies or perspectives on specific issues, such as the dualism of Javanese women's characters—those who meet ideal criteria and those who oppose them—through choices of words in naming and describing, verb forms in representing acts, events, and states, as well as other tools in critical stylistics.
that can be used collectively. Consequently, this study can demonstrate that analytical tools in critical stylistics can be used on creative texts in the Javanese language while also demonstrating that analytical tools in critical stylistics can be used in creative texts to reveal the author's ideology or perspective on the issues addressed in their work using more concrete linguistic evidence. This obviously opens up the possibility of further developing stylistic studies in Indonesia, as well as improving the analysis techniques used, particularly for imaginative creative writings such as Javanese Campursari ballads.

REFERENCES


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Excellent EFL Teachers’ Strategies for Using Seewo Interactive Whiteboard Games in Chinese Middle Schools

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Abstract—Games play a pivotal role in language education, offering a multitude of benefits for both educators and learners. With the development of digital technology, Seewo Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) games as an emerging teaching tool have been proven effective by many studies that enable direct interaction between teachers and students with the displayed content by leveraging the touch and gesture capabilities of the interactive whiteboard. This study explored the process of using Seewo IWB games by six excellent EFL teachers in Taiyuan middle schools. The study focuses on the teachers’ instructional strategies before, during, and after playing the games. By analyzing the data collected from teacher participants, the researchers aimed to gain insights into how they effectively incorporate Seewo IWB games into EFL classrooms. The findings provided valuable guidance for EFL teachers’ professional development in using digital games.

Index Terms—Seewo IWB games, excellent EFL teachers, middle school classrooms, strategies, students

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of English in the current era of the fourth Industrial Revolution (Industry 4.0) cannot be understated, as it serves as a means of communication in global interactions and various industries (Rafiq et al., 2019). In countries where English is not the native language, such as China, Korea, and Japan, the English teaching mode has evolved from traditional chalk-talk ways to a technology-driven approach, especially with the introduction of Seewo interactive whiteboards (IWBs) that provide a new platform for digital game-based language instruction. This interactive technology offers a personalized learning experience tailored to students’ needs and ensures an enjoyable learning process (Haleem et al., 2022).

In contrast to traditional games that do not require electronic devices, Seewo IWB Games leverage the touch and gesture capabilities of the interactive whiteboard, enabling direct interaction between teachers and students with the displayed content. These games integrate multimedia elements into lessons to enrich formal classrooms’ teaching and learning experience (Samsonova, 2021). Teachers often showcase videos, images, and audio files via games, providing visual and auditory support for English teaching (Wujec-Kaczmarek, 2021). Meanwhile, teachers can save and share their lessons online while monitoring student progress and offering immediate feedback (Luo et al., 2023). Thus, this dynamic and adaptable teaching tool caters to diverse learning styles, addressing individual student needs (Haidir, 2023). Many studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of digital games in teaching traditional language skills, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing, across different educational stages worldwide (Ghafar & Sawalme, 2023; Hidayatullah & Haerazi, 2021; Rasti-Behbahani, 2021).

Narrowing down the scope to the policy context of this study, it is noteworthy that the Chinese Ministry of Education (CMOE) issued the Informatization 2.0 Action Plan in 2018, which marked the first instance of proposing the establishment of an intelligent campus with intelligent teaching platforms and e-resources (CMOE, 2018, pp. 3-5). As a result of this initiative, by 2022, the penetration rate of information facilities nationwide had reached 80%, with the Seewo 5.0 interactive electronic whiteboards being installed in two million middle school classrooms (Jiang, 2023). In response to the changes, the revised Chinese Middle School English Curriculum Standards (2022) emphasized the necessity for EFL teachers to become digital educators first. This transformation involves integrating technology, subject knowledge, and effective teaching methods (CMOE, 2022, pp. 50-56). It also underscored the importance of teachers’ roles in the entire digital game-based teaching process. Thus, English teachers are responsible for equipping their students with the necessary skills to communicate confidently and authentically in the target language via digital platforms (Domogen, 2023).

The importance of incorporating digital games in English classrooms can be summarised as affective, cognitive, class dynamic, and adaptability aspects (Supandhi et al., 2022). However, many EFL teachers have difficulties effectively integrating Seewo IWB games, pedagogy, and subject content, which causes time-consuming problems and inefficiency.
Worse, some scholars only focus on learners’ behaviours and outcomes rather than teachers’ instructional practices. They oversimplified the effectiveness of digital games by attributing successful teaching solely to the games instead of the teachers’ effort. They also did not realise that highly efficient game-based learning heavily relies on teachers’ lesson preparations, practical strategies, and emotional engagement (Hartt et al., 2020). Therefore, the role of English language teachers should be given more prominence in this research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Interactive whiteboards, or intelligent boards, are technological devices widely adopted in classrooms to improve teaching and learning experiences (Adrini & Wahyuna, 2023). These boards are equipped with a large touch-sensitive display that can be connected to various teaching aids such as computers, laptops, televisions, overhead projectors, and CD players (Pringle, 2021). Users can actively engage with the displayed content on the whiteboard using a laser pointer with a remote control or their fingers. Essentially, the interactive whiteboard serves as a digital canvas that facilitates lesson delivery, content annotation, and student engagement through interactive activities, enabling users to directly write, draw, and manipulate objects on the screen (Wang et al., 2020). Hence, teachers can use the interactive whiteboard as a game control platform to display videos, images, and audio files within games, providing visual and auditory support to their instruction. This dynamic and flexible teaching tool caters to diverse language learning styles and preferences, accommodating students’ individual needs (Al-Kahlan & Khasawneh, 2023). Meanwhile, teachers can save and share their game-based lessons to facilitate easy revision and reuse while monitoring student progress and providing immediate feedback via game hints.

Besides using pre-made business digital games on interactive whiteboards, teachers can quickly create personalised digital games with specific purposes (Luo et al., 2023). The assortment of game design templates tailored for IWB games empowers educators to seamlessly fashion games that fit their instructional objectives and curriculum (Tp & Minh, 2021), as outlined in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>TYPES OF SEEWO IWB GAMES (2024)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seewo IWB Game Types</td>
<td>Definitions &amp; Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quizzes Games</td>
<td>Quizzes games allow teachers to create interactive quizzes and assessments. Students can answer multiple-choice or true/false questions by selecting the correct answer on the whiteboard. The whiteboard can provide immediate feedback on the answers, allowing students to track their progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matching Games</td>
<td>Matching games involve matching pairs of related items, such as words and definitions, images and descriptions. Students can drag and drop the matching items on the whiteboard to complete the game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorting Games</td>
<td>Sorting games require students to categorize items based on specific criteria. For example, students may need to sort animals into different habitats or sort words into different parts of speech. They can drag and drop the items into the correct categories on the whiteboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puzzle Games</td>
<td>Puzzle games involve solving puzzles or completing patterns. Students can manipulate puzzle pieces or objects on the whiteboard to solve the puzzle or complete the pattern. These games can help develop problem-solving and critical-thinking skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Story Games</td>
<td>Interactive story games allow students to participate in a story by making choices or solving problems. The whiteboard displays the story and presents interactive elements where students can make decisions or interact with the story’s characters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team-based Games</td>
<td>Team-based games encourage collaboration and teamwork among students. These games can involve challenges, quizzes, or problem-solving activities where students work together in teams to achieve a common goal. The IWB can display the game interface and track team scores or progress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There has been a surge in academic research examining the positive impact of IWB games on teaching vocabulary in recent years. Notably, a large number of scholars have explored how IWB games can motivate students to learn new words in both primary and tertiary educational settings (Hartt, 2020; Hiep, 2020; Humairoh et al., 2023; Kühl & Wohninsland, 2022). These investigations have elucidated the efficacy of IWB games in facilitating rapid vocabulary acquisition. Through the integration of visual and auditory aids, IWB games offer learners a tangible platform for processing, reflecting on, and assimilating new linguistic content (Vu, 2023). Incorporating visual tools such as graphic organisers, concept and story maps, and word banks within IWB games provides students with a solid foundation for language learning.

Moreover, some studies have proven that students had favourable attitudes toward IWB games, particularly in learning writing and grammar (Şengül & Türel, 2019). There is also a positive impact of IWB games on collaborative writing, meta-cognitive activities, and co-regulation patterns among EFL learners (Bahari et al., 2023). Nevertheless, prior research has primarily concentrated on students’ fragmented language skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, and writing, neglecting the overall teaching strategies, which calls for further exploration from teachers’ perspectives.

III. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
The current study employed a systematic literature review of digital game-based pedagogy (DGBP) from the research conducted by Bado (2022) to develop a conceptual framework that guided the collection and analysis of research data in this study. According to Bado (2022), prevalent educational themes on DGBP were categorized into a taxonomy of activities that occur before, during, and after the game. Pre-game teaching activities encompass educational tasks or endeavours organised or executed by teachers to prepare students for gameplay. Game teaching activities, on the other hand, refer to the instruction tasks or endeavours facilitated by teachers during actual gameplay. Post-game instructional activities involve follow-up tasks or exercises a teacher leads after a game to reinforce the knowledge gained through gameplay. Thus, clarifying the specific activities involved is crucial to comprehend the range of instructional strategies when using digital games.

However, student learning situations are also essential impact factors for digital game-based language teaching (DGBLL), which were not included within the previous framework. Thus, teachers should understand their students before adopting digital games (Hämäläinen et al., 2021). This view was echoed by Saubern et al. (2020), Byrd (2020), Ng (2023), and Carless and Winstone (2023). In their research, there was a consensus that teachers must go beyond simply grasping the rules and mechanics of the game and instead have a profound understanding of students’ characteristics and requirements to select suitable games that aroused their attention and establish varying levels of game tasks. For instance, some scholars have successfully enhanced the performance of underachieving students by adjusting the difficulty levels of digital games based on students’ learning situations to boost their motivation and engagement in classroom learning (Susiani & Utami, 2020; Tan et al., 2023). Therefore, the researcher refined the themes within the framework by exploring the practical strategies that excellent EFL teachers employ to utilize digital games to teach middle school English curriculum.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Question

Seewo IWB games represent a cutting-edge instructional resource for EFL educators in Chinese middle schools. Given the pivotal role of teachers’ strategies in classroom instruction, the main research question guiding this study is:

What strategies do excellent EFL teachers employ when incorporating digital games into middle school classrooms?

B. Research Design

This study adopted a qualitative study design, as its primary goal is to uncover, comprehend, and interpret the strategies that excellent EFL teachers utilise when incorporating digital games into their classroom teaching practice in natural middle school settings. It explored a contemporary “teaching with Seewo IWB games” phenomenon within its authentic context. Given the circumstances, a case study is the most appropriate method for this study, particularly when “the boundaries between the phenomenon and its context are not defined” (Yin, 2018, p. 51). Furthermore, this study relied on diverse sources of evidence, requiring the convergence of data through triangulation. Hence, the researcher visited the target public middle schools to gather data through observations, interviews, and documentation. Subsequently, a substantial portion of this data will pertain to experiences, motivations, and emotions, necessitating the researchers’ meticulous analysis, interpretation, and thick descriptions.

C. Participants and Data Collection

The researchers adopted a purposive sampling approach based on identifying and understanding effective strategies, thus selecting a sample that provided the most valuable information (Merriam, 1990, p. 10). This approach can help the researcher of this study to quickly obtain a specific sample rather than for proportionality (Patton, 2014). Hence, the researcher chose six excellent EFL teachers from six public middle schools (only 30 teachers in the local education bureau’s database). This research aims to gain a deep understanding of individual cases rather than generalizing findings through a large sample size.

In the present study, the selection and justification of all participants are guided by the following considerations: (a) their inclusion in the list of national excellent teachers; (b) their eagerness to engage in this research; (c) diversity in teaching experience, age, gender, and other relevant factors; (d) the geographical accessibility of these EFL teachers. A comprehensive overview of their fundamental details is provided in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers (N=6)</th>
<th>Gender (Female/Male)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Teaching experience (year)</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>7, 8, 9</td>
<td>No.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Before collecting qualitative data, all participants were invited to attend a five-hour seminar hosted by Taiyuan Normal University, focusing on how to use Seewo IWB games. During the seminar, the researchers provided an overview of Seewo IWB’s latest functionalities and demonstrated how to design a game within ten minutes. Subsequently, the researchers outlined the entire research plan and data collection procedures. This study had three distinct phases. Firstly, the researchers conducted non-participant observations, allowing participants to record their teaching processes using a video app. Secondly, the researchers conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews with each participant. During these interviews, the researchers and participants reviewed the video recordings, pausing at three key stages—pre-game, in-game, and post-game—to discuss teaching strategies and reasons. In addition, the researchers posed questions based on the semi-structured interview protocols and requested participants to record their answers in the protocol within a week. Finally, the researchers reviewed relevant documents, including teachers’ lesson plans, middle school English textbooks, and the Chinese Middle School Curriculum Standards (2022), to comprehensively understand their teaching strategies.

D. Data Analysis

Since Seewo IWB games are novel to EFL teachers in Chinese middle schools, the participants were expected to offer fresh ideas. A hybrid inductive thematic analysis is utilised to extract and categorise these insights from the collected data. This analysis condenses the critical features across multiple datasets by highlighting similarities in strategies. It pinpoints themes that resonate with the conceptual framework, thereby assisting researchers in formulating innovative themes. Additionally, this study’s sample size of six excellent EFL teachers was sufficient to produce codes vital for thematic analysis. This study used a four-step approach to analyse the qualitative data on the strategies for using the Seewo IWB game in EFL classrooms.

Step 1: Data Examination: Initially, one researcher acquainted herself with the data and utilised a predefined framework to generate initial codes. Subsequently, the other researcher annotated the data using these codes.

Step 2: Theme Generation: Two researchers collaboratively reviewed all annotated data, scrutinising the codes and addressing any discrepancies in interpretation. The seminar leader facilitated the resolution of any interpretative differences. Eventually, they arrived at the initial themes and sub-themes.

Step 3: Theme Review: The researchers engaged in a cyclic process to assess whether the themes and sub-themes could be grouped or divided further.

Step 4: Theme Naming: The research team defined and labelled the themes, enhancing their significance and clarity.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results indicated three main categories aligned with the pre-determined conceptual framework and added new categories encompassing nine sub-themes to expand the previous framework. Participants highlighted the significance of prerequisite knowledge and tailored teaching strategies for the pre-game, in-game, and post-game phases. The thematic map in Table 3 provides a comprehensive overview of the study findings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub-theme</th>
<th>Strategies from the cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pre-game</td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1 Training in Gameplay</td>
<td>Introductions of IWB game rules: Ensure students clearly understand how to play the game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>IWB game demonstration: Help students understand the gameplay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Explanation of the IWB game mechanics: Break down the game mechanics into smaller components and explain each step in detail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Student questioning: Allow students to ask questions and clarify any confusion before starting the game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Lectures</td>
<td>Setting clear learning objectives: Before starting the lecture, clearly define the learning objectives and expected outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creating a positive learning atmosphere: Introduce exciting topics, engaging stories, or videos to stimulate students’ interest and curiosity, making them more willing to participate in the lecture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction: Encourage student participation in the lecture by asking questions and sharing opinions or experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Using IWB games’ multimedia resources: Combine images, videos, audio, and other multimedia resources to help students understand the lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Guiding students to think: Guide students to think critically and analytically, cultivating their critical thinking skills by posing questions, discussing topics, or presenting case studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Providing practical content: Enable students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned to real-life situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Timely feedback: Evaluate students and help them understand their learning progress and areas for improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Handouts</td>
<td>Instructions: Provide clear instructions on how students should use the handouts, whether for individual work, group activities, or as a reference during a discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Content organization: Structure the handouts in a clear and organized manner, with headings, subheadings, bullet points, and visuals to help students easily navigate and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.4 Understanding Students | - Student profiling: Get to know students by understanding their interests, learning styles, strengths, and areas for improvement through surveys, informal conversations, or observation.  
- Differentiation: Provide varied game activities, resources, and assessments to cater to different learning styles and abilities.  
- Personalized learning: Offer opportunities for students to pursue topics of interest or work on projects that align with their goals. |
| 2. In-game Activities | - Providing appropriate support based on students’ language proficiency.  
- Progressive challenges: Gradually increase the game difficulty level in students’ learning tasks, allowing them to continuously enhance their language abilities through challenges while ensuring they can complete the tasks.  
- Guiding student autonomy: Encourage students to think and solve problems independently.  
- Creating authentic contexts: Simulate real-life language usage scenarios to allow students to learn language through practice and enhance their language application abilities.  
- Diversified teaching methods: Stimulate students’ interest in learning and increase their engagement through group competitions, role-playing, and product-oriented activities.  
- Timely feedback and evaluation after students complete tasks.  
- Mother language supports when students can not understand some difficulties. |
| 2.2 Classroom Management | - Establishing clear expectations for behaviour during in-game activities, such as listening attentively, following instructions, and respecting others.  
- Grouping strategies: Organize students into groups based on their abilities, interests, or learning styles to promote collaboration and engagement during gameplay. Monitor group dynamics and provide support as needed.  
- Time management: Set time limits for in-game activities to ensure students stay focused and on task. Use timers or visual cues to help students manage their time effectively.  
- Monitoring and feedback: Circulate the classroom during gameplay to monitor students’ progress, provide feedback, and address any issues that may arise.  
- Behaviour reinforcement: Use positive reinforcement strategies, such as rewards, praise, or incentives, to encourage positive behaviour and participation during in-game activities. Address any disruptive behaviour promptly and consistently. |
| 2.3 Technical Support | - Preparing in advance: Ensure all technical equipment is set up and functioning correctly before the in-game activities begin. Test any software or online platforms that will be used during the lesson.  
- Providing instructions: Clearly explain to students how to use the technical equipment and any software.  
- Troubleshooting guidance: Anticipate potential technical issues that may arise and encourage students to seek help from peers or the teacher if they encounter difficulties. |
| 3. Post-game Activities | - Group discussions: Divide students into small groups to discuss their experiences during the game.  
- Whole class discussion: Facilitate a forum where students can share their reflections, insights, and key takeaways from the gameplay.  
- Application to real life: Help students make connections between the gameplay experience and their everyday lives in English. |
| 3.2 Reflection | - Guided prompts: Provide students with guided reflection prompts to help them think critically about their gameplay experience. These prompts can include questions about the challenges faced, successes achieved, and areas for improvement.  
- Journal: Encourage students to keep a reflection journal where they can write about their thoughts, feelings, and insights gained from the gameplay.  
- Visual aids: Use visual aids such as charts, graphs, or diagrams to help students visualize their progress and achievements during the gameplay.  
- Goal setting: Guide students in setting specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound goals based on their reflections.  
- Group communications: Encourage students to listen actively, ask questions, and engage in meaningful dialogue with their peers. |

A. Theme 1: Pre-Game Activities

Theme 1 discusses what strategies were used by excellent EFL teachers in pre-game instructional activities, with three main themes suggested in the findings: training in gameplay, lectures, and handouts.

(a). Subtheme 1.1 Training in Gameplay

Before the formal gameplay sessions, teachers trained students to introduce the game content and gameplay. The results uncover that the successful teaching methods encompassed introducing Seevo IWB game rules to students
before gameplay initiation. The teachers adopted live demonstrations or video tutorials to illustrate the gameplay, meticulously explained the intricate game mechanics by deconstructing them into smaller, digestible components, and encouraged student engagement through interactive questioning sessions to address any uncertainties before embarking on the game. These meticulously crafted strategies ensured that students acquired a comprehensive grasp of the game rules and objectives, fostering heightened engagement levels and enriching the overall learning experience within the classroom setting.

\textit{(b). Subtheme 1.2 Lecture}

As part of the pre-game preparation, lectures were conducted to provide students with background information on the curriculum, learning content, and problem-solving techniques. Excellent EFL teachers employed various strategies to enhance the learning experience. Firstly, they established clear learning objectives to help students understand their learning goals and to improve learning efficiency. Secondly, they created a positive learning environment by introducing engaging topics, captivating stories, or stimulating videos to capture students’ interest and foster active participation in the lecture. Additionally, all teachers emphasized the importance of interaction as a critical way to promote student learning. They also used multimedia resources from the Seewo IWB games, such as game images, videos, and audio, to engage students with the lecture content. Through posing questions, facilitating discussions, and presenting case studies, teachers guided students to think critically and analytically during the learning process. Furthermore, teachers believed that delivering practical lecture content enabled students to apply their acquired knowledge and skills to real-life scenarios. Lastly, the teachers provided timely feedback and evaluations to assess students’ progress and identify areas for improvement, enhancing the overall learning experience.

\textit{(c). Subtheme 1.3 Handouts}

Excellent EFL teachers in this study frequently distributed handouts to their students containing reading materials, game content summaries, strategy guides, and worksheets. Upon analysis of the data gathered during the handout session, it can be found that explicit guidelines are furnished on utilising handouts, whether for individual tasks, collaborative endeavours, or as reference materials during group discussions. Notably, handout content is organised and coherent, featuring structured headings, subheadings, bullet points, and visual aids to facilitate students’ navigation and comprehension of the material. Furthermore, some interactive components embedded within the handouts, such as fill-in-the-blank exercises, matching activities, or reflective inquiries, are integrated to actively involve students and strengthen their learning. Visual elements, including images, diagrams, charts, and info-graphics, are also utilised to enhance comprehension and augment the visual appeal of the handouts. The linguistic complexity is tailored to align with the student’s proficiency levels, with elucidations or definitions provided for intricate terms. Implementing these strategies not only elevates the pedagogical quality of the handout session but also enriches the overall learning experience for students.

\textit{(d). Subtheme 1.4 Understanding Students}

In this study, understanding students involved in gaining insights into students’ interests, learning styles, strengths, and areas for improvement through surveys, informal conversations, or observation. This information enables educators to tailor their teaching approaches to better meet each student’s needs. Meanwhile, differentiation can be achieved by providing various game activities, resources, and assessments to accommodate diverse learning styles and abilities. This ensures that all students can engage and excel in their learning. Additionally, excellent EFL teachers advocated using personalised learning, which allowed students to explore topics of interest or work on projects aligned with their personal goals, fostering motivation and active participation in the learning process.

\section*{B. Theme 2: In-Game Activities}

In the second phase of in-game teaching activities, three main areas were identified: scaffolding, classroom management, and technical support.

\textit{(a). Subtheme 2.1 Scaffolding}

Teachers actively supported students through Seewo IWB games, addressing challenges in-game content, curriculum alignment, and problem-solving skills to ensure a positive and productive gaming experience. Scaffolding, a targeted approach, assisted students in mastering new language knowledge and skills. Initially, teachers tailored their support to student’s individual learning needs, facilitating the gradual acquisition and application of new language points. Over time, they introduced increasingly complex learning tasks to challenge students and enhance their language abilities while ensuring task completion.

Some teachers specifically focused on guiding student autonomy by providing crucial support to build confidence in the learning process and creating authentic contexts for improved language application. They employed diverse teaching strategies, including group discussions, role-playing, and engaging games, to stimulate interest and boost student engagement. Furthermore, these teachers provided timely feedback and assessment to help students assess their progress and identify areas for improvement. Occasionally, teachers spoke the mother tongue when students encountered comprehension difficulties.
(b). Subtheme 2.2 Classroom Management

Classroom management is crucial for fostering a conducive learning environment during in-game activities. Teachers took several vital steps in this study to ensure effective classroom management. Firstly, they established clear behavioural expectations for students, such as attentive listening, following instructions, and respecting others. These expectations were communicated at the start of the activity, setting the tone for student conduct throughout. Secondly, teachers employed grouping strategies to organize students based on their abilities, interests, or learning styles. This fostered student collaboration and engagement, allowing them to work together effectively. Thirdly, setting time limits for in-game activities helped students maintain focus and stay productive. Visual cues or timers were used to aid students in managing their time efficiently, ensuring that tasks were completed within the allocated time frame. More importantly, monitoring and providing feedback during gameplay can track student progress, offer guidance, and promptly address any issues. Teachers always used praise and constructive criticism to motivate students and support their learning journey. Positive behaviour reinforcement through rewards, praise, or incentives encouraged desired behaviour and active participation. Disruptive behaviour, on the other hand, was promptly and consistently addressed to maintain a positive learning atmosphere.

(c). Subtheme 2.3 Technical Support

Several specific measures can be taken to ensure the smooth operation of technical equipment during in-game activities. Firstly, before starting the learning activities, it is essential to check and set up all technical devices, including computers, tablets, and interactive whiteboards. This ensures that they are in good working order and ready for use. Moreover, anticipating potential technical issues and offering troubleshooting guidance is essential. Teachers should be prepared to address common problems during the activities, such as connection issues, software glitches, or hardware failures. Having a plan to resolve these issues quickly can minimize disruptions and maintain the flow of the lesson. At last, students were encouraged to seek assistance from peers or the technical support team when necessary. Collaborating with other teachers or professionals with expertise in technical matters can provide valuable support and solutions to any challenges.

C. Theme 3: Post-Game Activities

Based on the findings, debriefing emerges as a critical activity in the post-game activities, comprising two primary elements: discussion and reflection.

(a). Subtheme 3.1 Discussion

The discussion phase involves interactions between teachers and students, enabling teachers to underscore the link between game content and the curriculum. This dialogue is crucial as it helps students recognize these connections that may take time to be apparent. In this study, discussions were guided by questions and topics prepared by teachers either before or after gameplay, derived from notes taken during gameplay. Teachers also observed and documented content-related issues and student challenges during gameplay, which later informed the post-game discussion. Moreover, this study noted that team debriefing fostered talks between teachers and students and among peers. Here, there were two major types of discussions: group and whole class. Group discussions can be organised to allow students to share and discuss their experiences during the game in small groups. In contrast, the class discussions can provide more chances for students to share their reflections, insights, and key takeaways from the gameplay. Encouraging peer feedback can enhance learning by allowing students to provide constructive feedback on each other’s gameplay performance.

In addition, this study found that helping students draw connections between the gameplay experience and real-life situations in English can deepen their understanding. Notably, most excellent EFL teachers carried out follow-up activities, such as writing reflections, creating presentations, or conducting further research related to the gameplay experience. These can reinforce key concepts learned during the game and provide opportunities for extended learning and application of knowledge.

(b). Subtheme 3.2 Reflection

In the post-game activities, several strategies on reflection can be employed to enhance students’ critical thinking and self-assessment. Firstly, providing guided reflection prompts can help students analyze their gameplay experience by prompting them to consider challenges faced, successes achieved, and areas for improvement. Excellent teachers always encouraged students to maintain a reflection journal that allowed them to document their thoughts, feelings, and insights gained from the gameplay. Moreover, guiding students in setting goals based on their reflections can help them establish specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound objectives for future improvement. Promoting group communications where students actively listen, ask questions, and engage in meaningful dialogue with their peers can further deepen their understanding and reflection on the gameplay experience.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE TRENDS FOR SEEWO GAMES-BASED TEACHING STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSROOMS

A primary goal of this study was to investigate how excellent EFL teachers used digital games in middle schools. The findings suggested that diverse pedagogical strategies were adopted when using Seewo IWB games in three main
In the pre-game stage, all the teachers created a constructive learning environment for students to learn actively, mainly providing them with training in gameplay by demonstrating how to operate the games, technical support, and making students familiar with the learning materials, which pave the road for doing the autonomic learning. During the Seewo IWB game activities, most teachers used communicative strategies to give students more chances to practice English, such as group discussions, reflective questions, timely feedback, and presentations. The mother language and other scaffolding helped students overcome difficulties when meeting difficulties. In the post-game activities, teachers facilitated the discussion through group work and classroom discussions. They proposed reflective questions to deepen students’ understanding and reinforce essential information learned during the IWB game. Correspondingly, they provided students with guided reflection prompts to help them think critically about their gameplay experience. These prompts can include questions about the challenges faced, successes achieved, and areas for improvement. They also adopted a reflection journal and used visual aids such as charts, graphs, or diagrams to help students visualize their progress and achievements during the gameplay.

In addition, the researchers identified four future research directions to prepare teachers to address the challenges of future digital game-based learning and teaching.

First, excellent EFL teachers paid close attention to combining game content and teaching objectives when using the Seewo IWB games. By carefully selecting the game content, they ensured that the game covered the language knowledge and skills required by the teaching objectives so that students could naturally master new knowledge in the game. This strategy not only improved students’ interest in learning but also helped to improve their learning results. Future research can further explore how to design more targeted and effective electronic whiteboard games according to teaching objectives and student characteristics.

Secondly, excellent EFL teachers were good at using the interactive characteristics of Seewo IWB games to stimulate students’ enthusiasm for participation. Through the design of various interactive links, such as group cooperation, class communication, and competitions, students cooperated and competed in the game to cultivate their teamwork spirit and competitive consciousness. This strategy helped to develop students’ comprehensive quality and laid a solid foundation for their future development. Future research may focus on further exploiting the interactive advantages of electronic whiteboard games to improve students’ participation and learning effects.

In addition, excellent EFL teachers highlighted the importance of developing students’ autonomous learning abilities via the Seewo IWB games. By actively guiding the exploration of the game’s content, the teachers encouraged their students to ask questions and find answers to cultivate their awareness and ability to learn independently. This strategy benefited students’ lifelong learning. Future research may explore how to design more effective autonomous learning activities in combination with the characteristics of electronic whiteboard games to improve students’ autonomous learning abilities.

Finally, all the teachers in this study were also concerned about the impact of games on students’ mental health. Through reasonable arrangement of game time and control of game difficulty, they ensured that students maintained a positive and pleasant emotional state in the game and avoided the adverse effects of excessive addiction to the game. Future research can further focus on the mechanism of influence of electronic whiteboard games on students’ mental health and provide more scientific guidance for teachers when using games.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Instruction is “an effort to assist or shape growth” (Iraqi, 2020). When implementing Seewo IWB games in the context of English language teaching, this concept focuses on the specific strategies used by educators to assist players in achieving educational objectives (Laine & Lindberg, 2020). This study represents one of the pioneering empirical investigations into the strategies used by teachers when incorporating Seewo IWB games into their teaching. The research offers a comprehensive analysis of the utilization of IWB games throughout the teaching process, including pre-game activities, in-game activities, and post-game activities, while also considering various instructional strategies. The findings suggested that game-based teaching involves two essential elements: (a) the instructional aspects integrated within the digital game and (b) the instructional content surrounding the game. Excellent EFL teachers have more control over the latter aspect than the former and must ensure that the educational components of the game align with their learning goals rather than detract from them. Notably, there is considerable overlap among diverse strategies, with participants seldom relying solely on a single approach.

However, the study is subject to two primary limitations. Firstly, the research was conducted exclusively in the classrooms of highly proficient EFL teachers in Chinese middle schools. Thus, its generalizations may be limited to experienced EFL teachers. Future studies should engage in comparative research to evaluate the impact of other IWB games on more EFL teachers with different teaching levels. Secondly, since Seewo IWB games include the latest game functionalities, additional research is warranted to focus on specific features of these games through quantitative studies to assess their effectiveness.

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REFERENCES


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The Effects of the Collaborative Video-Based Flipped Learning Strategy on the Achievements in Arabic Grammar of 10th-Grade Female Students

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Abstract—the study aimed to gauge the effect of the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy on the achievement of tenth-grade female students of Arabic grammar in the Ramtha Education Directorate during the first semester of the 2022/2023 academic year. A 60-question test in Arabic grammar was developed and distributed over three cognitive levels: knowledge, comprehension, and application. The study sample consisted of 60 tenth-grade female students chosen through the available sampling method and divided equally into a control and experimental group (n=30). The former group was taught traditionally and the latter group was taught using the video-based flipped learning strategy. The results showed a statistically significant difference at (α =0.05) between the means of the study sample's performance in both groups at each cognitive level whether separately or collectively attributed to the flipped learning strategy. The study recommended adopting this strategy in teaching Arabic grammar in particular and language skills in general.

Index Terms—strategy, flipped learning, Arabic grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is one of the most important tools that have been used by human beings in the attempt to pass information from one individual to another. Not only that many cognitive benefits of language acquisition be denied, but the language helps to acquire information about other cultures, contributes to the establishment of trust, and unites people at the level of international comprehension. Socrates believed that words are the keys to thinking, while Watson described thinking as self-talking. That is, when humans think, they speak but without using their voices.

Grammar is the structural foundation of abilities to express themselves. It is the core structure of learning a language and comprises rules that govern how words can be put together to form sentences. Furthermore, it is a science that specializes in studying words and the changes that occur within their structure or what is known as a meaningful sentence (Al-Hmouz, 2002). Grammar rules define the conditions of Arabic structures such as syntax and construction that determine speech correctness or corruption (Asr, 2005).

It is rare to find a language without rules to govern the sounds, words, and sentences as well as their combination and interpretation. Practicing and applying grammar rules helps to give an accurate linguistic expression and achieve actual integrity (Shahata, 2008). Chomsky once said that it is impossible to judge an individual's proficiency in their mother tongue unless they are proficient in the grammatical system on which it is based.

Sbeitan (2010) defines grammar as rules such as phonological rules, word combination rules, and syntax rules that govern language. Abu Al-Dab'at (2007) states that grammar rules define the conditions of Arabic word endings that result from their combination with each other in terms of declension, syntax, and related matters. By following these rules, the tongue is protected from pronunciation errors, and the pen is safeguarded from making mistakes in writing and editing.

From the above, it can be concluded that the rules of language are a set of laws, principles, and systems that deal with the structure of speech, sentences, and phrases. They regulate speech and protect it from errors, mispronunciation, and deviation from the norms of Arabic speech to convey the intended meaning properly in both spoken and written forms.

As a result, researchers point out that language rules work to develop the individual's abilities in reasoning, balancing between the language structures, and selecting elegant, refined, and expressive vocabulary, which polishes their taste and develops their expression. The Arabic language rules originally included the rules of grammar, morphology, rhetoric, criticism, and writing, but what is currently taught in schools includes only grammar and morphology without
other branches of language (Fayyad, 1995).

Arab scholars have made an effort to explain the concept of grammar. Ibn Geni (2003) referred to grammar as the awareness of Arabic speech including pluralization, dualization, singularization, addition, composition, attribution, and more to ensure that every learner of Arabic can speak it fluently. Al-Sakkaki (1983) defines grammar as knowing how to combine words to convey absolute meaning based on derived measures from Arab speech to avoid mistakes in compositions.

Recently, the concept of grammar has expanded to become more comprehensive. Al-Dlaimi and Al-Wa'el (2003) define grammar as the process of standardizing rules and generalizations related to word endings and their use in linguistic contexts. It is the science that studies linguistic structures and the relationships between words in a sentence and between sentences in phrases (Hawamdeh & Ashour, 2007).

The researchers believe that the science of grammar is concerned with studying linguistic structures, their characteristics, and the knowledge of words state in terms of declension, construction and identifying the relationship between words in a sentence and between sentences in phrases as well as determining case endings.

As for morphology, Abdul Latif (1999) described it as the science of studying language vocabulary. It was once an integral part of grammar and remained so until it was separated by Abu Uthman Al-Mazini. Morphology is an indispensable science in language studies and deals with how Arabic structures are formulated. It cannot be understood in isolation from the rules of phonetics which underscores the integration and interdependence of language sciences (Al-Rajhi, 2000).

Atiyyah (2015) maintained that morphology is the study of word structure and its variations to facilitate pronunciation, its change in meaning, or both. This is known as word inflection, which affects the structure of verbs regardless of their tense and modifies the form of nouns through dual and plural inflections, diminutives, and attribution. However, inflection does not apply to solid verbs, constructed nouns, and words with less than three letters since they have only one form. Alsamirai (2013) emphasized that morphology specializes in studying derived nouns and non-solid verbs while solid verbs, constructed nouns, and letters are not related to morphology.

The researchers conclude that the science of morphology deals with studying the patterns of words, the letters, and their diacritics, except for the last letter's diacritic, and the changes that occur in them such as declension, substitution, and assimilation. It specializes in studying derived nouns and non-solid verbs.

The researchers believe that language skills are interrelated and integrated by reciprocal relationships. Language is governed by many rules to produce eloquent and proficient speech and relies on these rules to preserve its identity and authenticity from distortion and deviation. Mastering the rules of grammatical syntax enables language users to develop all four language skills.

Experts have given much attention to identifying the causes of weakness in language grammar among students. It is believed that this weakness is one of the toughest challenges facing educators as students’ aversion to learning grammar rules has become apparent in all stages of education from elementary school to university graduates (Hawamdeh & Ashour, 2009).

One of the main reasons for learners’ weakness is that the content of curricula does not take into consideration students’ needs and tendencies. Moreover, they are not built according to principles of integration and continuity which results in a weak connection between topics and sequence in addressing language components (Abu Al-Daba’at, 2007).

In the same context, Zaqout (2013) pointed out that the teaching methods used by teachers make grammar a silent topic. Their reliance on traditional strategies hinders students from reaching the stage of active learning and acquiring higher-order thinking skills. Moreover, the academic weakness of language teachers was negatively reflected by student performance as well as the weakness of teachers practicing other subjects of the language and its rules (Sbeian, 2010).

The demand for finding solutions to these challenges has become an urgent necessity in preserving the language and its rules, which might be achieved by focusing on studying its systems, skills, and rules, especially grammar and morphology. There has been a noticeable trend towards developing new methods and strategies that keep pace with the tremendous advancement in technology and meet the requirements of the new generation. Strategies are being developed to make learning the Arabic language more engaging and enjoyable to overcome the obstacles that learners face.

A plethora of research (see, for example, Hawamdeh & Ashour, 2007; Abu al-Daba’at, 2007; Atiyyah, 2015) pointed out certain effective methods in teaching Arabic grammar including:

- Linking the lessons to students’ real-life situations, needs, and interests to raise motivation and use them in teaching grammar.
- Avoiding complex teaching methods when presenting the material.
- Utilizing the available modern educational tools in teaching Arabic grammar they create excitement and interest.
- Organizing the Arabic grammar topics in a logical and progressive order, starting with the easiest and progressing to the more difficult and complex ones.
- Using other branches of the Arabic language to apply the grammar rules through them, and emphasizing the importance of listening to correct Arabic language usage.
Accordingly, achieving educational goals requires a change in the roles of teachers and the strategies they use in teaching to keep up with the significant progress in the fields of science and technology. This has led to an increased need for the use of modern strategies that serve students in the process of research, thinking, and skill acquisition.

Teaching strategies play an important role in classroom instruction. Without it, teachers would be aimlessly presenting information that does not connect or engage with learners. Strategies help learners participate and connect and add excitement to the content being taught. Their importance lies in being the tool for delivering information through designing educational activities, providing diverse learning resources, and presenting knowledge in ways that address students' aptitudes and abilities, taking into account their differences (Bergman & Sams, 2012). Consequently, educators have found it necessary to create teaching strategies that are compatible with the modern era.

One of these approaches is the flipped learning strategy, which is considered a modern form of learning. Its roots can be traced back to the natural evolution of blended learning, inquiry-based learning, and other teaching strategies, methods, and tools that aim to make learning more flexible and enjoyable (Alshurman, 2015). As opposed to the traditional approach to learning, the flipped classroom model has been hailed as the solution for all learning challenges being experienced by students. The flipped classroom model, as the name suggests, is a model of teaching and learning in which the traditional roles of the teacher are reversed and the students come prepared to the class having completed their readings and other assignments. Learners receive the first part of the learning material at home and, during the class, learners participate in cooperative learning, which means that they are focused, learn cooperatively, and think critically. In their classroom, students have to watch instructional videos, which are prepared at home by the teacher. The way students take notes and write questions while they watch the video helps them during class time. These questions and discussions are then redirected to elaborated discussions of the content, asking more questions, implementing some projects, or solving some assignments, which give more possibilities for successful communication between students and their teachers (Bergman & Sams, 2008).

The researchers conclude that flipped learning relies on leveraging modern technology to benefit the teaching and learning process. It is based on active learning, student effectiveness, student participation, and disseminating educational content more engagingly. The value of flipped learning lies in utilizing and converting classroom and home, are reversed. This is achieved by using technology tools and collaborative platforms worldwide. YouTube provides video clips for learners and allows them to post, upload, like, and comment on them.

A collaborative video is a tool that can be employed and utilized for flipped learning, as it is an easy way to deliver information to learners. Furthermore, these videos do not require constant internet connectivity if they are downloaded to electronic devices, reducing concerns about the availability of a stable internet connection. Videos come in a variety of formats. These include videos that individuals can create themselves using modern applications and pre-recorded content available on platforms such as YouTube and Dailymotion (Subramaniam & Munniandy, 2016).

Bergman (2017) suggests that a good video does not necessarily have to be long; rather, short videos make the content more engaging and enjoyable while focusing on the information. It is suggested that the video range between 10 and 15 minutes long and on one educational topic. In addition, collaborative videos allow students to comment, leave notes, provide summaries, or even answer some questions.

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Flipped learning strategy is carried out according to organized and sequential steps, as follows:

**Analysis:** This is the fundamental stage as it lays the foundation for the subsequent steps. It involves creating a plan to use the collaborative video according to the flipped learning strategy, determining the type of learners, their levels, and attitudes, and analyzing the content of the educational material. Students are directed to watch a video on the topic they are studying, determine learning outcomes, prepare lesson objectives, select or design a video that suits the lesson objectives, choose suitable group activities for the lesson topic, and prepare individual work to enrich the topic.

**Design:** This is the stage of designing the appropriate educational programming or providing it from available resources.

**Deployment and Guidance:** This stage involves uploading the educational programming using a social media platform or an internet website, then directing students to watch it, providing immediate feedback, and opening the door for discussion and dialogue, if possible.

**Application:** This stage aims to apply what the student has learned after watching the educational video or any other educational programming they received, and then apply what they learned through discussion and dialogue within the classroom, answering the textbook's exercises, activities, and worksheets prepared by the teacher.

**Evaluation:** This stage focuses on evaluating the effectiveness of the flipped learning strategy in achieving learning objectives, represented by formative evaluation during the learning process, and summative evaluation that evaluates the effectiveness of the strategy after its implementation (Al-Talhi, 2019).

In flipped learning, the roles of the teacher and the student, as well as the roles of the teaching process between the classroom and home, are reversed. This is achieved by using technology tools and collaborative video platforms such as YouTube, as well as social media sites like WhatsApp and Facebook to prepare and present lessons and send them to students before attending class. Once in class, students discuss the ideas and information they have learned.
By embracing the radical reconstruction of time and space with the use of technology the teacher did not have to conform to the traditional approach of the system. Nevertheless, students get many of the benefits of the instructional videos in a manner that aligns them with their learning capabilities in the subject matter in a more controlled and directed manner. These videos are also popular among most teachers since they are given the freedom to be mentors and coaches meant for projects, which they can demonstrate the practical application of the subject matter. This can enable them to have better and more meaningful interaction with students, and a more innovative role in the development of curricula and programs (Bergman & Sams, 2008).

Each strategy has its advantages; the flipped learning approach is characterized by effectively utilizing class time and improving student achievement (Al-zain, 2015). It also provides students with the opportunity to review the lesson according to their differences and needs allowing each student to learn at their own pace and abilities, thus emphasizing individualized learning. The flipped classroom approach aligns with the new era by using modern technology that encourages students to learn more (Shareer, 2017).

Al-Khahily (2015) noted that flipped classroom contributes to remedying the weaknesses of traditional learning methods by utilizing class time for guidance, motivation, and assisting students. It has shown an increase in student participation and the full practice of active learning exercises as well as an increase in interaction between students and faculty members as they perform the required activities.

In light of the above, the researchers believe that employing the flipped learning strategy in the educational process is possible as it is compatible with the features of the fast-paced and digital world. This strategy can activate the role of the student and make him or her focus on the educational process. It also emphasizes the role of the teacher in presenting the educational material in an interesting way that helps students learn effectively and meets their needs. Therefore, it is expected that this strategy will improve the study sample's performance in Arabic language rules and treat their weaknesses.

As a result, the current study aimed to investigate the impact of the flipped learning strategy on the performance of 10th-grade female students in Arabic grammar and its effect on overcoming the difficulties they face.

A. Problem and Questions of the Study

The educational system in Jordan places significant emphasis on teaching the Arabic language. This emphasis is evident through the initiatives of the Ministry of Education implemented within the past decade following a noticeable decline in student proficiency in the language, which is reflected in their ability to acquire grammar rules and apply them correctly. A strong body of research (e.g., Hawamdeh, 2007; Sbeitan, 2010; Al-Dulaimi & Al-Waeli, 2005; Al-Halak, 2010) has confirmed that the problem of teaching Arabic grammar lies in the fact that grammar rules still face the same challenges in teaching strategies and presenting educational content, as well as in using traditional methods of teaching Arabic grammar.

Through their experience in the field of education, the researchers have observed this reality and attributed student weakness to the practices followed by teachers in teaching grammar which rely on rote memorization, answering questions, and doing homework, leaving the student as a passive recipient without contributing to reaching the answers on his own. Moreover, there is a lack of interaction between the teacher and the student inside and outside the classroom. Another reason behind this weakness may be also attributed to the overcrowded curriculum, poor presentation, and the weak reliance on technology in delivering content and giving it a sense of stagnation.

Based on the foregoing, the study examined the effect of the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy on the achievements of 10th-grade female students of Arabic grammar. The following questions drove the collection of the subsequent data:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference at (α=0.05) between the mean scores of study sample performance in each level of the Arabic grammar test separately (knowledge, comprehension, and application), attributed to the teaching strategy (conventional and collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy)?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference at (α=0.05) between the mean scores of study sample performance on the Arabic grammar test items as a whole, attributed to the teaching strategy (conventional and collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy)?

B. Objectives of the Study

The study aimed to investigate the achievements of 10th-grade female students in Arabic grammar skills and the impact of the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy compared to the conventional method.

C. Significance of the study

The importance of this study lies in the following:

- Drawing the attention of educators to the necessity of adopting modern philosophies that stem from the technological era when preparing learning environments. It also involves utilizing the potential provided by intelligent learning environments to achieve positive and distinguished learning outcomes.
- Developing Arabic language teaching strategies that rely on integrating technology in education and providing tangible scientific evidence of the importance of this strategy in teaching Arabic language rules.
- Providing experiment-based results of whether using the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy improved students' Arabic language rules.
- From a practical perspective, understanding the practical steps to implement the flipped learning strategy through collaborative video.

D. Limitations of the Study

The generalizability of the findings may be limited to the effect of collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy on the achievements of 10th-grade female students in Arabic grammar at the Ramtha Education Directorate during the first semester of the 2022/2023 academic year and the topics of grammar covered in the Arabic grammar textbook. In addition to being limited to the validity and reliability of the study instruments, the accuracy and objectivity of the study sample responses and the use of flipped learning strategy exclusively.

E. Terms of Definitions

**Flipped learning** is a set of teaching procedures in which students can first prepare for the class through the coverage of course content in the form of readings or lecture videos, and then use class time for the application, analysis, or synthesis of the material. Getting the students ready with the course material before a class session helps to use the class time to navigate through tough content, respond to questions, foster learning activities, and relate with real-life scenarios.

**Achievement** is the measurement of students' overall academic learning over a particular period. In this study, it is the score that the student obtains on the achievement test prepared according to the Arabic grammar textbook of the 10th-grade students.

**10th-grade female students** are 15- to 16-year-old students in the final stage of basic education in Jordan.

**Grammar** rules are a set of laws and systems derived from Arabic speech that govern the correct use of language, in terms of syntax, structure, and word formation to convey the intended meaning through linguistic communication. This includes the topics covered in the 10-grade Arabic grammar textbook, as stipulated by the Ministry of Education in Jordan.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Upon reviewing theoretical literature, little research has been conducted on the impact of the flipped learning strategy on student performance in Arabic grammar. The researcher could not locate much research that focuses on this topic; thus, the study is expected to add to the existing body of related research.

Al-Ahwal (2016) conducted a study aimed at verifying the effect of using the flipped learning strategy on developing grammatical skills and attitudes concerning the curriculum of high school students in Saudi Arabia. The sample consisted of 57 high school students divided into both a control group (n = 28) and an experimental group (n = 29). The quasi-experimental method was used in addition to a list of grammatical skills necessary for the study and a grammatical skills test was used for gathering data. The results indicated statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group, which were attributed to the use of the flipped learning strategy.

Lofnertz (2016) examined 40 high school perceptions toward the flipped classroom approach for teaching grammar specifically in Sweden. A quasi-experimental method was used in addition to a questionnaire and an interview to collect data after applying the strategy. The findings showed that students had a positive attitude towards the use of the flipped classroom and that this could result in enhanced learning of grammatical concepts.

Share (2017) investigated the effectiveness of a flipped classroom environment in developing grammar skills and attitudes toward grammar among ninth-grade students in Palestine. The study used an experimental approach with a descriptive-analytical method. The study was conducted on a sample of 67 female students. The results showed significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups study instruments. However, there were no significant differences between the mean scores scale of their attitudes towards grammar.

Koiv (2017) investigated the effectiveness of the flipped classroom in teaching grammar rules and its impact on student performance in Estonia. A quasi-experimental design was used with a study sample of 22 students. In addition to pre and post-tests, a self-assessment scale and interviews were used as research instruments. The results showed that using the flipped classroom had a positive effect and led to improved test scores. In addition, the students also found the educational videos useful in learning grammar rules.

Nuon and Champakaew (2017) examined the impact of flipped classrooms on grammar achievement. The study sample involved 81 second-year students at Mae Fah Luang University in Thailand who were divided into both a control group (n=41) and an experimental group (n=40). The instruments used in the study included an achievement test and student records to collect data. The results showed a convergence in the performance of both groups with a slight advantage for the experimental group attributed to the flipped classroom.

Saif and Al-Najdi (2018) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of using the flipped classroom strategy in developing grammatical concepts included in the language skills course among preparatory year students at Tabuk University in Saudi Arabia. For gathering data, the quasi-experimental and descriptive-analytical approaches were used.
A pre-and post-test was developed and applied to a sample of 126 students divided equally into both a control group and an experimental group (n = 63). The results showed statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups attributed to the flipped classroom strategy.

Asaka, Shinozak and Yoshida (2018) applied the flipped classroom approach to teaching English to examine its effectiveness on the performance, attitudes, and perceptions towards learning English of Japanese EFL junior high school students. The study sample consisted of 160 7th-grade students divided equally into both a control group and an experimental group (n=80). The study used pre-questionnaires and post-questionnaires to collect data as well as teacher interviews in the flipped classroom to analyze perceptions toward English and the flipped classroom. The adoption of the flipped classroom strategy in teaching illustrated that the flipped classroom played a role in enhancing the students’ grammar and speaking performances. The questionnaires and interviews showed that the attitudes of students and teachers toward using the flipped classroom strategy in the EFL class were positive.

Al-Asiri (2019) investigated the effect of interaction between the collaborative video-based flipped classroom strategy and learning styles the purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the proposed intervention in raising third-year secondary students’ achievement in English grammar. To this end, a quasi-experimental method was adopted with a 3x2 factorial design was employed. Twenty-six students have been assigned to the experimental group and 31 students to the control group. A sample achievement test was used for generating data. The findings of the study indicated that the group of students who adopted the flipped classroom approach had more positive learning outcomes than the group of students who were exposed to traditional classroom practices. On the other hand, no interactions between strategy and styles were statistically significant.

Based on previous literature, the importance of using electronic educational programs in the educational system is evident. Prior research examined the effect of the flipped learning strategy on various variables under different conditions including its effect on achievement, developing grammatical and morphological concepts as well as its potential benefits for teaching grammar rules and overcoming difficulties in learning grammar. The researcher benefited from previous studies in identifying the reasons behind student weakness in Arabic grammar which can be attributed to the scarcity of using modern strategies and teachers being weak when it comes to using and being familiar with these strategies.

Furthermore, the current study benefitted from previous studies in the following ways; in presenting and enhancing the theoretical literature, in the process of constructing the study instrument, in determining the method that was used in the study, while discussing the results of the study, and while identifying the problem and objectives of the current study. Thus, this research contributes to the current literature by providing a deeper understanding of the factors that influence the decision to purchase fast foods, which called for seeking the effectiveness of using the flipped classroom strategy in developing the grammatical performance of students.

On the contrary, the study differed from previous literature in terms of employing the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy and examining its impact on Arabic grammar. The study offered an educational strategy that motivates students and develops their motivation towards learning Arabic in a lively and active manner that aligns with their preferences in the era of speed and technology.

### III. METHODOLOGY

A quasi-experimental design was used which involved selecting two groups: an experimental group taught by the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy and a control group taught conventionally. A pre-test and post-test of Arabic grammar were administered to both study groups.

**A. Study Sample**

The study participants consisted of 60 female students from two sections of the 10th grade at Al-Ramtha Girls’ High School in Ramtha Education Directorate using the convenient sampling method. The simple random method was used to select the experimental and control groups (n =30 students for both).

**B. Study Instrument**

To achieve the goal of the study, the researchers prepared a 22-item multiple-choice/short-answer test to measure the extent of improvement in Arabic grammar among the study participants. The grammar lessons were identified and analyzed. Test instructions were prepared the purpose of the test and how to answer its items were explained.

(a). Validity of the Instrument

To establish the face validity of the instrument, the instrument was reviewed by a panel of educational experts. Instruments and their content in terms of their paragraphs, relevance to the objectives of the present research, the language used, and how effectively it was developed by the team represent the effect of collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy on the 10th-grade students’ achievements in Arabic grammar. The comments and recommendations of the panel were studied carefully and taken into account in amending the final version of the instrument.

(b). Reliability of the Instrument
The reliability coefficient value Validity of the instrument was established through reliability analysis using a pilot test involving 43 students who were not part of the study sample selected through a random sampling technique. The students were given the test and they were expected to complete it in two weeks’ time but with an interval of one week in between. The correlation coefficient that was used in the study was the Pearson correlation coefficient, this was calculated both. Cronbach Alpha was calculated to be 0. To estimate the internal consistency, the coefficient alpha was calculated and its value was 0.82-0.86 which was deemed appropriate to complete the study.

To further ensure the appropriateness of the test items, the values of difficulty and discrimination were calculated for each item. It was observed that the values of the difficulty ranged between 0.42 and 0.71, and the values of the discrimination ranged between (0.44-and 0.69). According to the criteria for accepting paragraphs referred to by Odeh (2010), these values were found educationally acceptable.

c. Equivalence of the Study Groups on the Pre-Test

To verify the equivalence of the two study groups in the pre-test, the means and standard deviations for the study performance in Arabic language rules were calculated according to the conventional and flipped teaching strategies and reached 14.72 and 13.22 respectively. To determine the statistical significance of this apparent difference, a T-test for the two independent samples was performed.

The T-test value for the teaching strategy reached 0.804 with a statistical significance of 0.424 which is higher than the level of statistical significance at (α = 0.05). This indicates that the two study groups are equivalent as there is no statistically significant difference in the performance of the control and the Arabic grammar test.

Grammar Teaching Procedures According to the Flipped Learning Strategy

Bergman and Sams (2012) outlined the steps of teaching grammar using the flipped learning strategy and divided it into two main stages:

Before the Class Session
1. Determine the lesson topic and the technological tools to be used.
2. Analyze the lesson; identify its content and objectives.
3. Convert the lesson topic into a video prepared by the teacher, or select a pre-prepared video from the internet that suits the lesson topic.
4. Upload the selected video to the internet or a social networking site such as WhatsApp. The application is determined in agreement with the students.
5. Assign students to watch the video on the lesson topic and take notes or summarize it.

During the Classroom Session
1. Dedicate the first part of the session to discuss with the students, answer their questions, and ensure that they have watched the video.
2. Prepare enrichment activities and worksheets, answer them individually or by dividing the students into groups, then present the answers to the students and receive feedback on these answers.
3. Answer lesson questions and exercises.
4. Use various assessment tools, such as asking questions or answering worksheets, to ensure that the desired objectives are achieved.

C. Study Variables

This study examined the following variables:
- Independent variable: represented by the teaching strategy (conventional and collaborative video-based flipped learning).
- Dependent variable: represented by each level of Arabic grammar separately and collectively.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results of the First Research Question

The study sought whether or not there is a statistically significant difference at (α=0.05) between the mean scores of study sample performance in each level of the Arabic grammar test separately (knowledge, comprehension, and application), attributed to the conventional and collaborative video-based flipped learning teaching strategy.

To answer this question, means and standard deviations of the study sample performance at each level of Arabic grammar were calculated for the pre-test and post-test (knowledge, comprehension, and application) according to the teaching strategy, as shown in Table 1.
The post-test performance between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group. In addition, there were significant differences in the mean scores of post-test performance between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group.

To determine the statistical significance of the post-test differences according to the teaching strategy, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was performed, as shown in Table 2.

Table 1 shows statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test performance of the experimental group, in favor of the post-test. In addition, there were significant differences in the mean scores of post-test performance between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group.

**Table 2**

**RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY MANCOVA ANALYSIS OF THE MEANS OF THE STUDY SAMPLE POST-PERFORMANCE AT EACH LEVEL OF ARABIC GRAMMAR TEST BASED ON THE TEACHING STRATEGY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Type sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig (P)</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>33,970</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33,970</td>
<td>3.362</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>177,026</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>177,026</td>
<td>4.470</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>173,596</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>173,596</td>
<td>4.172</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior comprehension</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>29,838</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29,838</td>
<td>2.953</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>101,386</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>101,386</td>
<td>2.560</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>119,176</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>119,176</td>
<td>2.864</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior application</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>480.40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>480.40</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>18,164</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18,164</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>24,830</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24,830</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.443</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategy</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>75,284</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75,284</td>
<td>*7.453</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace=0.322</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>532,471</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>532,471</td>
<td>*13.445</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistical Significance=0.002*</td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>721,100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>721,100</td>
<td>*17.332</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>555,726</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>10,104</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>217,140</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>39,603</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>2288,291</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>41,605</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modified total</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>706,933</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>3073,646</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>3433,900</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistically significant at (α ≤ 0.05)

Table 2 shows that the statistical significance value for the Hotelling test according to the teaching strategy was 0.002, which is less than (α = 0.05), indicating that there is at least one statistically significant difference in one of the levels of the Arabic language proficiency test (knowledge, comprehension, and application).

Based on the statistical significance of these levels (0.008, 0.001, 0.000) respectively, which are lower than the significance level (α = 0.05), the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. There is a statistically significance difference at (α = 0.05) between the two mean scores of the control and experimental groups’ performance in the Arabic grammar test in favor of the experimental group.

Using Eta Square, the values of the Effect Size for the Arabic grammar test levels (knowledge, comprehension, and application) were 0.119, 0.196, and 0.240 respectively. This means that 11.9%, 19.6%, and 24.0% of the improvement
in the performance of the students is attributed to the effect of employing the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy for each level of the Arabic grammar test.

The result might be attributed to the nature of the flipped learning strategy which attracted and encouraged students to the learning process by relying mainly on the advantages of modern technology. This technology facilitated the delivery of information and provided students with opportunities for classroom activities that reinforced their understanding (Bergman & Sams, 2012). The result is consistent with Hodeib (2012), Al-Ahwal (2016), Shareer (2017), Nuon and Champakaew (2017), which revealed that the video-based flipped learning strategy outperforms traditional instructional strategies.

Furthermore, the flipped classroom strategy creates rich learning opportunities and makes students the center of the teaching-learning process. It reverses the roles of those responsible for the educational process, increases students' curiosity to seek knowledge on their own, raises their confidence makes them more effective. In other words, this model provides teachers with more time to attend to their student’s learning needs and develop various skills by eliminating some of the time-consuming processes of teaching and learning (Al-Talhi, 2019).

The researchers believe that the nature of this strategy allows students to access different levels of knowledge. It enables weak students to replay the educational video multiple times until they reach the minimum levels of knowledge in Bloom's taxonomy. It leads average students to higher levels of knowledge, pushing them to apply their knowledge individually or collectively through the provided exercises and activities both inside and outside the classroom until they reach the final knowledge and the intended lesson. This approach allows for self-evaluation through pre-prepared exercises and discussions with the teacher and classmates in the classroom.

**B. Results of the Second Research Question**

The second research question sought whether or not there is a statistically significant difference at (α=0.05) between the mean scores of study sample performance on the Arabic grammar test items as a whole, attributed to the teaching strategy (conventional and collaborative video-based flipped learning)

To answer this question, the means and standard deviations for the pre and post-test performance on Arabic grammar test items as a whole according to the teaching strategies were calculated as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching strategy</th>
<th>Pre/performance (AC=60)</th>
<th>Post/performance (AC=60)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>6.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative video-based flipped learning</td>
<td>13.22</td>
<td>7.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**AC: Overall Score for the Test**

Table 3 shows statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post-test means of the experimental group's performance on the Arabic grammar test items as a whole, in favor of the post-test mean. There was also a significant difference in the post-test means between the experimental and control groups, in favor of the experimental group. To determine the statistical significance of these differences (after neutralizing the pre-test differences in performance between the study groups of the Arabic grammar test as a whole) a one-way ANOVA was performed as shown in Table 4:

**Table 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Siq (P)</th>
<th>Eta squared</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>2.686</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.686</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching strategy</td>
<td>4074.013</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4074.013</td>
<td>18.136</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>12804.356</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>224.638</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modified total</td>
<td>16948.746</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistically significant at (α ≤ 0.05)

Table 4 shows that the statistical significance value for the teaching strategy was less than (α = 0.05). Therefore, the second null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. There is a statistically significant difference between the performances of the two groups in favor of the experimental one.

Using Eta Square, the effect size was 0.241; this means that 24.1% of the improvement in the performance of the group on the Arabic grammar test items can be attributed to the collaborative video-based flipped learning strategy.

This result may be attributed to the fact that this strategy allows students the opportunity for self-assessment where they can evaluate their learning outside the classroom by applying what they learned at home after watching the video.
When they attend the classroom, it reinforces their knowledge and corrects any misconceptions through their dialogue with their teacher (Al-Kahily, 2015).


The researchers believe that these results may be generally attributed to the flipped learning strategy which motivates students toward active learning methods, considers their needs, and supports their skills in dealing with modern technology. This strategy also helps to break away from the monotony that dominates the educational material and free it from the rigid framework adopted by the Ministry of Education. It also caters to the individual differences of students and considers their life circumstances that may force them to be absent from school and lose knowledge on that day. This strategy instills a sense of reassurance that any information will be available at any time.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion, it can be concluded that there are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the pretest and post-test performance of the experimental group, in favor of the post-test. In addition, there are statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post-test means of the experimental group’s performance on the Arabic grammar test items as a whole and in favor of the post-test mean. Furthermore, the results showed a statistically significant difference at (α =0.05) between the means of the study sample’s performance in both groups at each cognitive level whether separately or collectively attributed to the flipped learning strategy.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the current study, the researchers recommend the following:
- Conducting training courses to qualify teachers in schools in general, and Arabic language teachers in particular, to introduce them to modern teaching methods, especially the flipped learning strategy.
- Developing plans to address the clear deficiencies in the teaching strategies used in schools in Jordan, which have a negative impact on student levels, achievements, and motivation towards learning.
- Developing curricula that align with the characteristics of the flipped learning strategy, in order to effectively employ the strategy and improve students' academic performance.
- Providing the necessary technological resources to serve students and increasing their awareness of the importance of technology in developing their cognitive and learning abilities.

REFERENCES


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Independent Writing Tasks vs. Integrated Writing Tasks: The Cognitive Demands and Their Impacts on Linguistic Complexity in EFL Writing

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Abstract—Despite many studies investigating the effects of task complexity on L2 writing performance, little attention has been given to the specific effects of independent vs. integrated writing tasks and their cognitive demands on EFL learners. This study aimed to address this gap by conducting a comprehensive examination of the cognitive demands exerted by these two types of writing tasks and their effects on linguistic complexity outcomes among 35 Chinese EFL learners. Employing mixed methods involving learner self-ratings, expert judgments, and dual-task measures, the study revealed that, compared to the independent writing task, the integrated writing task places higher cognitive demands on students. In terms of written performance, participants demonstrated enhancements in lexical and syntactic complexity when responding to the integrated writing task, supporting Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (CH). These findings highlight the importance of understanding the cognitive load imposed by different types of writing tasks and offer implications for educators in the design and sequencing of writing tasks within Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) contexts.

Index Terms—cognitive demands, integrated writing task, independent writing task, linguistic complexity, EFL writing

I. INTRODUCTION

As a basic component of TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching), tasks provide learners with a context where language is used meaningfully, thus playing a facilitative role in second and foreign language learning. The task syllabus requires organizing content to maximize learning development, and more specifically, the complexity of a task needs to be determined to match learners with their learning levels. In the field of TBLT, there has been extensive research on the effects of manipulating task characteristics on second language (L2) development and performance. Robinson (2005), for example, asserts that understanding the cognitive demands that tasks place on L2 learners ensures predictable gains in their language development.

Two major frameworks—Skehan and Foster’s (1996, 1998) Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LAC) and Robinson’s (2001a, 2003, 2005b, 2011a) Cognition Hypothesis (CH)—have offered conceptual and empirical guidelines regarding how task complexity influences learners’ language performance. While both Robinson and Skehan agree on the concept of task complexity and the notion that manipulating task complexity may influence speech production in terms of fluency, complexity (lexical/syntactic), and accuracy (CAF), they differ in their perspectives on how increasing task complexity may impact learners’ language production. It is noteworthy that most of the research in this domain has primarily centered on oral production with comparatively less empirical attention devoted to exploring the complexity of writing tasks (Frear & Bitchener, 2015; Golparvar & Azizzahra, 2023; Kuiken & Vedder, 2012; Lee, 2021; Ong & Zhang, 2019).

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The results of most research on task complexity in writing have been interpreted in line with Robinson’s Cognition Hypothesis and the Triadic Componential Framework (2005, 2007), which primarily investigate the effects of cognitive task complexity on writing performance along two dimensions: the resource-directing dimension and the resource-dispersing dimension. According to the findings of research synthesis and meta-analysis by Johnson (2017), the most common resource-directing variable manipulated in task complexity involves adding or subtracting elements within the task, while the factor of planning, whether offered or not, is most operationalized along the resource-dispersing dimension.

Previous research has also shown that the manipulation of cognitive task demands can result in varying levels of task complexity, thereby resulting in diverse effects on L2 writing performance (Zhang, 2018). Furthermore, in nearly every one of these studies, task complexity is examined in independent writing tasks, while the integrated writing task is rarely considered by researchers. Nevertheless, recent years have witnessed a shift towards the application of integrated writing tasks on English proficiency exams such as the TOEFL or IELTS. In China, integrated tasks are also part of the writing section of the Test of English Majors (TEM), a national exam for English majors in college. To better understand the relations between task types and task cognitive complexity, it is necessary to widen the investigative scope of task complexity research. For educators and syllabus designers, the findings on validating the disparity between independent and integrated writing tasks, as well as their effect on EFL writing production, are valuable. First, it offers guidance on how to design pedagogical tasks and sequence them from simpler to more complex tasks that require more cognitive effort. Moreover, they provide teachers with valuable insight that can be used to select and design academic writing tasks that will enhance their students’ proficiency.

There are two primary objectives of this research. First, by utilizing three methods—dual-task methodology, self-ratings, and expert judgments—the study aims to explore the disparities in cognitive demands exhibited between independent and integrated writing tasks. Second, it seeks to examine the effects of varying levels of cognitive complexity in these two writing tasks on Chinese EFL learners’ writing production, focusing on both lexical and syntactic complexity.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Cognitive Demands and Task Complexity in TBLT

In the field of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), understanding “the cognitive demands of task characteristics as contributing to their complexity and the cognitive abilities learners bring to task performance” (Robinson, 2015, p. 117) is pivotal for educators and test designers in guiding task design and sequencing. Moreover, this concerns how learners process information when engaged in a task.

Task complexity, conceptualized as cognitive task complexity, can be manipulated to impact L2 performance. “Task complexity mainly refers to the cognitive challenges faced by learners in language processing” (Robinson, 2007, pp. 196–197). When confronted with increased task complexity, and particularly with its cognitive demands, learners must reallocate their cognitive resources and adjust fluency, accuracy, and complexity (CAF) to ensure effective language output.

The most widely adopted theories from the research carried out on cognitive task complexity and its impact are Skehan and Foster’s (1996, 1998) Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LAC) and Robinson’s (2001a, 2003, 2005b, 2011a) Cognition Hypothesis (CH). Both theories delve into how different aspects of task design can either enhance or challenge the cognitive resources of L2/EFL learners, thereby directing learners’ attention towards specific linguistic dimensions. However, these theories differ in their cognitive approach to tasks.

According to the Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LAC), an increase in cognitive task complexity results in a reduction in the available attentional resources for language learning. This reciprocal relationship arises because learners’ attentional resources are inherently limited. In simpler terms, when the complexity of a task stretches learners’ attentional resources to their limits, they actively redistribute their attention; that is, there is more focus on the meaning of language and less focus on linguistic form. This redistribution leads to decreased fluency, accuracy, and complexity (CAF) in L2/EFL performance.

In contrast, the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2005) proposes that different “dimensions of cognitive task complexity belong to different attentional resource pools” (p. 50). In other words, learners' attentional resources are not limited, allowing them to access multiple and non-competing attentional resources. Inspired by research in cognitive linguistics and L2 development, Robinson proposed the Triadic Componential Framework (TCF) for L2 task design. The basic principle of task sequencing and design should be based on increases in learners’ cognitive complexity (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a), and TCF introduces two dimensions that deal with cognitive loading: the resource-directing dimension and the resource-dispersing dimension. Depending on the cognitive requirements of tasks, the resource-dispersing component sets procedural constraints on learners’ cognitive resources, while the resource-directing component, manipulated by +/- reasoning, +/- few elements, and so on, exerts varying degrees of cognitive demands on learners’ attentional resources. Regarding the impact of the cognitive complexity of tasks on language production, Robinson claimed that increasing cognitive task complexity in the resource-directing dimension may lead to higher accuracy and complexity of L2 performance but also affect fluency. Previous research findings indicate that the nature
of tasks, such as independent or integrated tasks, may impose different levels of conceptual demands on participants (Plakans, 2009; Plakans & Gebril, 2012). However, neither the Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LAC) nor the Cognitive Hypothesis (CH) offer predictions concerning the manipulation of task types (independent or integrated) and their potential impacts on learners’ linguistic production.

B. Cognitive Load Measures in TBLT

Cognitive load is the stress placed on cognitive processing capacity or the capacity of working memory to process information. The concept of cognitive demand or cognitive load is multifaceted, so cognitive load assessment does not solely measure task complexity; rather, it quantifies the cognitive effort induced by changes in task complexity. It is assumed that cognitive load will increase as learners handle tasks of increasing complexity.

Révész (2014) and Révész et al. (2017) state that several methodologies have been used to measure cognitive load in previous research including subjective methods like self-rating scales, self-time estimation, and expert judgments, as well as objective ones like dual-task methodologies and eye tracking. In SLA research, subjective self-rating scales or self-report questionnaires have emerged as the dominant method for investigating task cognitive complexity (Sasayama, 2016). Using perceived mental effort ratings to examine cognitive load has demonstrated validity and reliability in previous studies. One of the earliest studies in this area was conducted by Robinson (2001) who used a nine-point self-rating scale to assess learners' perceptions of task difficulty. A two-item questionnaire, found to be valid by Sasayama (2016), was used to assess task difficulty and mental effort in storytelling tasks. Lee (2020) integrated self-rating methods with expert judgments and time-on-task measures in his study on task complexity in L2 writing. Participants' self-reports were based on a nine-point Likert scale questionnaire regarding task difficulty, mental effort, and stress exerted by closed and open tasks.

Another subjective technique for assessing task-generated cognitive demands in language testing and SLA research is to seek the opinions of experts. To be more specific, linguistic and language education experts provide their opinions regarding task difficulties and anticipate cognitive burdens faced by task takers. For example, Brown et al. (2002) used expert opinions to evaluate cognitive loads after manipulating different task parameters in a large-scale performance assessment study. In the same vein, Révész et al. (2014) employed both expert opinions and self-ratings to assess the cognitive load between simple and complex tasks characterized by varying levels of reasoning demand. Previous validation research shows that the method of expert opinions is rarely used independently; that is, it is often applied with other objective measures of cognitive demand such as eye-tracking and dual-tasking. The previous findings have demonstrated that expert judgments can enhance understanding of cognitive demands in language learning contexts.

The dual-task methodology has been widely utilized in cognitive psychology research as a reliable means of measuring cognitive demands, and more recently, the dual-task methodology has been utilized in research on task complexity. For instance, along with other techniques, Révész et al. (2014, 2016) used dual-task methodology to assess task complexity validity where participants had to respond to changes in computer screen color while simultaneously completing the prime oral tasks. While the results showed that reaction time was not significantly different during simpler primary tasks, accuracy rates on the secondary tasks were higher. Sasayama (2016) utilized the dual-task methodology along with time estimation and self-rating measures to assess the intended complexity of tasks and found that participants' reaction time length was significantly associated with task complexity levels. To investigate the cognitive demands of L2 writing tasks, Xu et al. (2023) integrated the dual-task method (a primary writing task and a secondary auditory task) and self-ratings of task difficulty and mental effort. They discovered that there was a significant difference in the accuracy rate between secondary tasks; however, the research findings indicated that the choice of secondary tasks should be carefully considered as it impacted participants' attentional allocation. Indeed, many studies have demonstrated the value of dual-task methodologies in explaining cognitive demands in research on task complexity. Still, the application of this method has not received the attention that it deserves (Sasayama, 2016; Xu et al., 2021).

The previous studies have provided valuable insights into measuring cognitive demands in the context of TBLT. Moreover, further investigation in L2 writing, especially in integrated writing tasks, has not, on the other hand, undergone extensive evaluation. In this study, a triangulation approach was adopted, incorporating three methods—self-ratings, expert judgments, and dual-task methodology—to assess the cognitive demands of different independent and integrated writing tasks. This approach balanced subjective assessments (self-ratings) with objective measures (dual-task methodology). Additionally, expert judgments were also sought to provide supplementary insights into the efficacy of the task complexity manipulations.

C. Independent Writing and Integrated Writing

The widely recognized definition of integrated writing tasks involves the incorporation of single or multiple source texts into the writer's response. As widely acknowledged by scholars, it is essential for writers to synthesize concepts, ideas, viewpoints, and so on that are derived from the provided sources (Plakans & Gebril, 2013; Weigle & Parker, 2012). In integrated writing tasks, students are not only required to summarize or paraphrase sources but also to demonstrate their ability to draw meaningful conclusions from those sources. In contrast to integrated writing tasks, independent writing tasks in academic contexts are impromptu essay writing assignments, requiring writers to compose an essay within a predetermined time frame (Plakans, 2008). Additionally, independent writing tasks require learners to
respond to a general prompt based on their personal experiences, whereas integrated writing requires learners to possess not only their writing skills, but also their ability to comprehend, analyze, and synthesize information from the provided resources. According to Payant et al. (2019), to complete an integrated task effectively, participants must engage in higher-order thinking processes, a practice that places substantial cognitive demands on them.

To date, only a handful of studies have examined the cognitive task complexity associated with different task types and their effects on L2/EFL writing performances, particularly focusing on the linguistic complexity of independent and integrated writing tasks. Guo et al. (2013) found notable differences in lexical sophistication and highly-comprehensive syntactic complexity indices between the two types of writing tasks. Similarly, Biber et al. (2016), through the application of two types of writing tasks on the TOEFL exam, discovered that integrated tasks tend to evoke a higher occurrence of lexical and grammatical features associated with academic writing. Abrams (2019) observed improvements in all linguistic features with integrated writing tasks compared to independent writing tasks. Additionally, Golparvar and Rashidi (2021) discovered that integrated writing tasks influenced unit length measures, coordination, and noun phrase complexity. However, further research is needed to explore whether integrated writing tasks might reduce cognitive load or increase cognitive burden during the execution stage of writing and how the cognitive complexity exerted by different writing tasks affects L2/EFL learners’ writing performance.

To fill the research gap, the current study addresses the following research questions:

Q1: Compared with independent writing tasks, are integrated writing tasks designed to be more complex and place higher cognitive demands on EFL learners?

Q2: What are the effects of independent writing tasks and integrated writing tasks that add to or take away from cognitive demands on the linguistic complexity of EFL writing performance?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The study is designed to explore the cognitive demands of an integrated writing task in comparison to an independent writing task. This is achieved through triangulation methods, including a dual-task experiment, self-ratings by participants, and expert judgments. There were 35 Chinese college students majoring in English who participated in the study. Each participant completed two computer-based writing tasks, one integrated and one independent, both adapted from the TEM-4 standard test. Following the completion of each writing task, participants immediately engaged in a secondary simple visual task. Next, they were asked to fill out a self-perception questionnaire in which they rated their perceived mental effort and the difficulty of the task using a 100-point numerical scale. Afterwards, seven college English professors were invited to offer their expert opinions on the anticipated mental effort and task difficulty, providing explanations of their ratings via an online questionnaire. Meanwhile, an analysis was conducted using Xiaofei Lu's L2 Syntactic/Lexical Complexity Analyzer to examine the participants' writings in response to both types of tasks and to investigate the language complexity exhibited by writers when performing tasks with varying cognitive demands such as independent and integrated writing tasks.

B. Participants

A voluntary sample of 35 sophomore undergraduate English majors (n = 35) from a Chinese university was recruited to take part in the research. Moreover, the sample included eight males and 27 females with an average age of 20 (M=20). Although none of the participants had ever lived or studied overseas in an English-speaking nation, they all had eight to ten years of experience acquiring the language. Using the Oxford Placement Tests (OPT) as a method of assessing English proficiency, participants achieved an average score of 65 on the test, indicating they were, on average, at an intermediate level of English proficiency.

C. Instruments

(a). Language Proficiency Test

The language proficiency of the participants was evaluated with the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), a widely recognized measure employed in previous research (e.g., Ahmadian, 2012; Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010). The OPT is an online English language test created by Oxford University Press for non-native speakers. As a reliable and efficient means of placing students in the appropriate English class level, it is widely used by universities and research institutions worldwide to determine the English proficiency of students. There are two sections on the OPT, namely Language Use and Listening, each scored separately. The Language Use portion of the test focuses on grammar and vocabulary assessment and is more directly correlated with participants’ writing performance in the current study. Consequently, only the Language Use score was used as a main inclusion criterion. Test-takers were required to answer 60 questions on their mobile devices within a time limit of 30 minutes. According to the OPT numerical scale, scores in the range of 51-59 and 60-79 are considered intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, respectively.

(b). Prime Writing Tasks in Dual-Task Methodology
The integrated writing task instructed students to first summarize a 270-word news report excerpt on environmental pollution caused by plastics. Then they were required to present their suggestions on how to enhance public awareness of environmental protection using the ban on plastic bags as an illustrative example. In contrast, the independent writing task prompted students to provide their commentary on whether social networking has a predominantly positive or negative impact on people’s lives. The minimum word requirement for both tasks was set at 200 words. Both writing tasks were computer-based and time-restricted. Participants were required to complete and submit each writing task via the online platform WRITE. In each writing session, the writing time was set at a 40-minute time limit on the computer. To account for and minimize the influence of reading competency, participants were allotted an extra 10 minutes for reading prior to typing their response to the integrated writing task. To assist the researcher in designing writing tasks and to minimize the impact of differences in participants’ familiarity with topics on cognitive load during the writing process, a pilot study was conducted prior to the main writing session. The findings suggest that participants possessed an equal level of familiarity with both topics.

c. Secondary Task in Dual-Task Methodology

The secondary task of the current study was designed based on prior research and involved changing the color of the capital letter “A” (either red or green) displayed on a computer screen at brief and random intervals (Sasayama, 2013; Cierniak et al., 2009). After completing the primary writing task, participants were instructed to promptly and accurately identify the red or green letter “A” on the computer screen by pressing the Space key on the computer keyboard. Based on suggestions from some research scholars, secondary tasks should ideally be simple in form, such as assessing responses to visual and auditory stimuli. Moreover, they should be kept independent from the primary task (Brunken et al., 2003; Révéész, 2014; Révéész et al., 2014), as it is hypothesized that writers are likely to demonstrate prolonged response times and reduced accuracy following the completion of a writing task with higher cognitive demands. Assessing performance on secondary tasks offers a highly objective and direct method for measuring potential differences in the overall cognitive load placed on writers by various writing tasks. Both the response time and accuracy of secondary tasks can specifically serve as indicators of the cognitive demand imposed by the primary task.

(d). Self-Perceived Writing Task Difficulty Questionnaire

First designed by Robinson (2001), subjective self-rating scales have been widely used in recent task-complexity studies (Rahimi, 2019; Robinson, 2007b; Xu et al., 2023). In the current research, a multi-dimensional scale with a combination of mental effort and task difficulty was applied in the pilot study. Additionally, a Self-Perceived Writing Task Difficulty Questionnaire was adopted from Rahimi and Zhang (2018) which consisted of 10 items using a 100-point numerical scale to evaluate various aspects of a writing task such as the level of stress and overall difficulty. To ensure participants’ understanding, all items were translated into Chinese, and the online questionnaire was administered immediately after participants completed both integrated and independent writing tasks. Drawing on the precedent set by Rahimi and Zhang (2018) and Révéész et al. (2016), the study used only four items (Items 1, 2, 5, and 6) to assess cognitive demands and task difficulty. Items 1-2 assessed participants’ feelings of the task difficulty (TD1), and Items 5 and 6 asked about participants’ perceptions of their ability to complete the writing, which can also reflect how they feel about the task difficulty (TD2). In addition, the researchers reverse-coded the negatively worded items. Four multiple-choice questions were added to the original survey questionnaire to determine the reasons behind students’ perceptions of difficulty in the writing tasks. Based on existing literature, the researchers also compiled a summary of potential causes of cognitive load. A second open-ended question was included at the end, encouraging students to add their own reasons.

D. Linguistic Complexity Measures

In this present study, participants’ written responses to two writing tasks are evaluated for linguistic complexity, specifically syntactic and lexical complexity. Syntactic complexity is measured using the T-unit which comprises an independent clause and any dependent clauses attached to it. Norris and Ortega (2009) identified three measurable sub-constructs within syntactic complexity: subordination, as measured by subordinate or dependent clauses; general complexity, assessed by any length-based metric that potentially involves multiple-clausal units of production in the denominator; and phrasal complexity, determined by the mean length of clauses (Norris & Ortega, 2009). In line with the dimensions of syntactic complexity proposed by Norris and Ortega (2009), Xiaofei Lu developed the L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer (L2SCA) which contains 14 syntactic complexity indices covering comprehensive syntactic complexity dimensions. The current study applies L2SCA primarily to examine three dimensions: the length of production unit, measured by the mean length of T-unit (MLT); the amount of subordination, measured by the number of coordinate phrases per T-unit (CPT); and the degree of phrasal sophistication, measured by the number of complex nominals per T-unit (CNT).

Lexical complexity has been recognized as a reliable indicator of language assessment in the field of L2/EFL research. In the present study, lexical complexity is assessed using Lu Xiaofei’s Lexical Complexity Analyzer (LCA) which is specifically designed to analyze the lexical complexity of written English language samples. To measure lexical diversity, three indices have been employed: lexical sophistication, type-token ratios (TTR), and Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity (MTLD). This method quantifies lexical variety by calculating the ratio of word types to
tokens within a text. In the context of L2/EFL writing performance, lexical complexity pertains to the ratio of advanced word types to total word types (type/type ratio) and the type-token ratio (TTR) which considers word-type variation relative to the total number of words and takes into account the duration of the writing sample (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). TTR is a one of the important indicators measuring lexical density. In comparison to TTR, theoretical explanations and preliminary studies have provided support for the reliability of MTLD as a robust measure of lexical diversity, free from the influence of text length (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). In Lexical Complexity Analyzer (LCA), Lu (2010) adapted MTLD to NDW (Number of Different Words), which specifically targets lexical diversity within a text.

E. Procedures

The current study unfolds in six distinct stages: (1) the initial participant screening for language proficiency; (2) a pilot study to assess task topic familiarity; (3) the completion of primary writing tasks (independent and integrated); (4) the completion of secondary tasks after each primary task; (5) the validation of writing task difficulty and cognitive demands through students’ self-perceived questionnaires and expert opinions; and (6) the subsequent collection and analysis of data on writing complexity performance. The participants were asked to separately complete two computer-based writing tasks: an independent writing task and an integrated writing task. Both writing sessions took place in a computer lab where participants had to answer the writing tasks on a computer within a 40-minute time limit. To ensure the participants in the integrated writing task had a good understanding of the reading excerpt in the writing task, they were provided an extra 10 minutes to read the passage before they started writing. This time was allocated to cater to any discrepancies in the participants’ reading ability and to ensure comprehension of the task. During this time, students could use an electronic dictionary or ask questions to clarify their understanding of the excerpt. They were not allowed to take any notes during this period. Immediately following each writing task, the participants were required to complete the secondary task. Afterwards, they completed a Self-Perceived Writing Task Difficulty Questionnaire to assess their perception of the task. To mitigate any effects of practice or fatigue, the two writing tasks were counterbalanced and separated by a 6-week interval, which, incidentally, coincided with a winter break.

F. Data Collection and Data Analyses

All writing tasks were completed and submitted through an online platform called iWRITE. The syntactic and lexical complexity of the writing samples were measured and analyzed using the web-based tools L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer (L2SCA) and Lexical Complexity Analyzer (LCA). Both the questionnaires regarding students’ perceptions of task difficulty and the expert opinions on the cognitive load of both independent and integrated writing tasks were collected online. In terms of the secondary task, the participants’ response data, including reaction time for correct answers and overall accuracy rate, were displayed immediately after completion. Additionally, the data was analyzed with the SPSS 25.0 software. Additionally, several paired-samples t-tests were conducted to compare the linguistic complexity of writing performance between the independent and integrated writing tasks. Standard diagnostic procedures were also employed to ensure the appropriateness of all statistical models. Finally, the alpha level was set at $p < .05$.

IV. RESULTS

A. Cognitive Demands Evaluation

(a). Self-Rating on Task Difficulty and Mental Effort

Initially, a thorough check for outliers and missing values was conducted across all datasets, revealing the absence of any such values. Simultaneously, normality was assessed to ensure compatibility with the requirements of a paired sample T-test. The results of students’ responses to the Task Difficulty and Mental Effort Questionnaire are presented in Table 1, reflecting their perceptions of task difficulty and mental effort after completing both the independent writing task and the integrated writing task. The table illustrates a significant distinction between the two tasks in terms of both task difficulty ($t=4.25, p=.000 < .05$) and mental effort ($t=3.69, p=.001 < .05$) as perceived by participants. Regarding task difficulty, participants found the integrated task ($M=11.34, SD=2.66$) more challenging than the independent writing task ($M=8, SD=3.3$). Similarly, participants indicated that the integrated task ($M=10.69, SD=2.8$) required more mental effort compared to the independent task ($M=8.31, SD=2.43$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Types</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>95% CID (low, high)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task Difficulty</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Task</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.75 (low)</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Task</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.34</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>4.94 (high)</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Effort</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Task</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.31</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.06 (low)</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Task</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.69</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.68 (high)</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$; 95% CID= 95% Confidence Interval Differences
(b). Expert Opinions

The findings from Table 2 illustrate a consensus between experts and students regarding their perceptions of writing task difficulty and mental effort. Both cohorts perceive integrated writing tasks as more demanding in terms of difficulty and mental exertion compared to independent writing tasks. However, experts suggest that there is little difference in students’ perceptions of perceived difficulty or mental effort between an integrated writing task and an independent writing task. In the independent task, the mean score for task difficulty is M=5.14 (SD=1.34), while in the integrated task, the score is slightly higher at M=6.79 (SD=1.15). The mean score for mental effort for the independent task is M=5.57 (SD=1.51), while the mean score for the integrated task is M=7.21 (SD = 1.22). According to these results, both experts and participants report a consistent perception that the integrated writing task is more cognitively demanding than the independent writing task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Difficulty</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>95% CID (low, high)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>95% CID (low, high)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>-3.46 (low)</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>-3.46 (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>-3.47 (low)</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>-3.47 (low)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c). Results of Dual-Task Experiment

As part of the dual-task method, participants were assessed regarding their secondary-task performance measured by both reaction times (RT) and accuracy rates (ACC) across both an independent writing task and an integrated writing task (see Table 3). The first significant difference was observed in the reaction time (RT) (t=3.31, p=.002<.05). As compared to the integrated task condition (M = 939.83, SD = 83.63), participants exhibit significantly faster reaction times for the independent writing task (M = 884.57, SD = 77.87) indicating a greater cognitive load resulted in slower responses for the integrated task. However, participants demonstrate comparable accuracy rates in both the independent task (M=0.87, SD=0.84) and the integrated task (M=0.85, SD=0.8), as no significant difference was found between the two writing task conditions (t=-1.65, p=0.108>.05). It can be inferred that despite the increased cognitive load in the integrated task, participants maintained similar levels of accuracy in their secondary task performance. The findings indicate that different types of primary writing tasks resulted in a statistically significant increase in participants’ reaction time for the secondary task. However, the designed primary tasks, whether integrated or independent, do not yield a statistically significant effect on the accuracy rate. Overall, the findings partially support the hypothesis that the integrated writing task exerted a higher cognitive load on the learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RT (ms)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>95% CID (low, high)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>95% CID (low, high)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>884.57</td>
<td>77.87</td>
<td>939.83</td>
<td>83.63</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-1.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Effects on Writing Complexity

(a). Results of Lexical Complexity

The results of lexical complexity performance responses to two distinct writing tasks exhibited in Table 4 focused mainly on three key lexical complexity indices: Lexical Sophistication (LS), Number of Different Words (NDW), and Type-Token Ratio (TTR). Regarding Lexical Sophistication (LS), a significant difference was observed between the two tasks (t=4.60, p=.000<0.05). Participants demonstrated higher lexical sophistication in their responses to the integrated writing task (M=0.30, SD=0.059) compared to the independent writing task (M=0.23, SD=0.053), indicating a notable variation in lexical richness between the tasks. Similarly, in terms of Number of Different Words (NDW), a statistically significant difference was also found (t=2.54, p=.016<.05), suggesting a higher average NDW in responses to the integrated writing task (M=137.26, SD=17.58) compared to the independent writing task (M=125.97, SD=20.50). However, no significant difference emerged in the Type-Token Ratio (TTR) between the two tasks (t= -0.95, p=.327>.05), with participants exhibiting comparable TTR values for both the independent writing task (M=2.44, SD=10.53) and the integrated writing task (M=1.67, SD=0.80). These results suggest that the integrated writing task prompts higher lexical sophistication and a greater variety of words in participants' responses compared to the independent writing task.
In examining the cognitive demands between independent and integrated writing tasks, participants perceived the integrated task as significantly more difficult and requiring greater mental effort than the independent task. Both experts and students agreed on the heightened demands of the integrated task, though experts perceived a slightly lesser disparity between two types of tasks.

The findings are based on a summary of responses from both students and experts to the open-ended question posed after the questionnaire: Why are there differences in task difficulty and the mental effort required between the independent task and the integrated task?. In accordance with Robinson's perspective on task features, responses to this question are categorized into two dimensions: task characteristics and learner factors. Concerning task characteristics, the integrated writing task necessitates that participants address issues presented in the reading text rather than expressing opinions on banning plastics. This task requires summarizing problems from the reading text, referring to the given information, and engaging various cognitive abilities including summarizing, addressing posed questions, reorganizing language, and applying higher-order thinking skills. Thus, the cognitive demands for outlining, organizing viewpoints, and language production are higher. In contrast, the independent writing task has fewer restrictions, allowing writers to construct outlines, organize ideas, and produce language more conventionally. The unique features of the integrated task contribute to a perception of greater difficulty. Beyond challenges related to higher-order thinking and information synthesis, differences in students’ background knowledge can contribute to increased mental effort. Because specific solutions are required for issues, students’ preparedness in the relevant knowledge area influences their cognitive load. Additionally, in the independent writing task, students only need to retrieve words and expressions from

### Table 4

**RESULTS OF LEXICAL COMPLEXITY IN RESPONSE TO TWO WRITING TASKS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LC Indices</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LS</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDW</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>125.97</td>
<td>20.50</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.016*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>137.26</td>
<td>17.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTR</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>-95</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.327</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: LS= Lexical Sophistication; NDW=Number of Different Words; TTR=Type-Token Ratio; ID=independent writing task; IT=integrated writing task.

### Table 5

**RESULTS OF SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY IN RESPONSE TO TWO WRITING TASKS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC Indices</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MLT</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>10.48</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>12.24</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPT</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>-2.04</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.048*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNT</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: MLT= mean length of T-unit; CPT= the number of coordinate phrases per T-unit; CNT= the number of complex nominals per T-unit.

V. DISCUSSION

### A. Evaluation of Cognitive Demands

In examining the cognitive demands between independent and integrated writing tasks, participants perceived the integrated task as significantly more difficult and requiring greater mental effort than the independent task. Both experts and students agreed on the heightened demands of the integrated task, though experts perceived a slightly lesser disparity between two types of tasks.

The findings are based on a summary of responses from both students and experts to the open-ended question posed after the questionnaire: Why are there differences in task difficulty and the mental effort required between the independent task and the integrated task? In accordance with Robinson's perspective on task features, responses to this question are categorized into two dimensions: task characteristics and learner factors. Concerning task characteristics, the integrated writing task necessitates that participants address issues presented in the reading text rather than expressing opinions on banning plastics. This task requires summarizing problems from the reading text, referring to the given information, and engaging various cognitive abilities including summarizing, addressing posed questions, reorganizing language, and applying higher-order thinking skills. Thus, the cognitive demands for outlining, organizing viewpoints, and language production are higher. In contrast, the independent writing task has fewer restrictions, allowing writers to construct outlines, organize ideas, and produce language more conventionally. The unique features of the integrated task contribute to a perception of greater difficulty. Beyond challenges related to higher-order thinking and information synthesis, differences in students’ background knowledge can contribute to increased mental effort. Because specific solutions are required for issues, students’ preparedness in the relevant knowledge area influences their cognitive load. Additionally, in the independent writing task, students only need to retrieve words and expressions from
familiar linguistic resources. On the other hand, the integrated writing task requires organizing language responses to the content of the reading material, which adds cognitive demands when accessing unfamiliar linguistic resources.

The results from the dual-task method indicate significantly longer reaction times for integrated tasks, suggesting a higher cognitive load, while accuracy rates remained similar across task types. Findings suggest that the integrated task imposed higher cognitive demands, influencing participants' secondary task performance. Overall, the study partially supports the hypothesis regarding increased cognitive load in integrated writing tasks. This finding is consistent with previous research (Xu et al., 2021; Révéz et al., 2016; Sasayama, 2016) and partially supports the basic principles of the dual-task paradigm: the accuracy of the secondary task is expected to decrease and the response time is expected to increase when the cognitive demand imposed by the primary task increases. In the current study, the integrated writing task, serving as the primary task, led to longer reaction times for participants in the secondary task. This occurs because the increased cognitive demands of the primary task restrict mental resources available for the secondary task, thereby intensifying the competition for reaction time. However, no significant decrease in accuracy rate was observed for the secondary task when students completed the hypothesized, more cognitively complex, primary integrated writing task compared to the less complex independent writing task. This could be attributed to the differing nature of the primary tasks. Previous research has primarily focused on oral tasks (Sasayama, 2016; Révéz et al., 2016), which may impose different demands on learners compared to written tasks. Another explanation could be the competition between cognitive resources; moreover, allocating more attention to accuracy in the secondary task may reduce reaction time, and vice versa (Xu et al., 2021).

B. Linguistic Complexity of Writing Production

The objective of the current study was to examine how task cognitive complexity influences writing complexity across various types of writing tasks. In the study, both independent and integrated writing tasks significantly affected the writing products of participants, although mixed results were also found. To be specific, in terms of lexical complexity, the lexical sophistication (LS) and the number of different words (NDW) of the integrated tasks were significantly higher than those of the independent tasks. However, no significant difference was found in the type-token ratio (TTR). Furthermore, syntactic complexity showed a noticeable difference between integrated and independent tasks: integrated tasks produced longer mean lengths of T-units (MLT) and more complex nominals per T-unit (CNT), indicating an increase in the complexity of writing. Interestingly, the independent task yielded a greater number of coordinate phrases per T-unit (CPT).

In the present study, both lexical and syntactic linguistic complexity increased, which aligns with previous findings indicating that integrated tasks result in greater linguistic complexity (e.g., Abrams, 2019; Biber et al., 2016; Golparvar & Rashidi, 2021; Guo et al., 2013). Furthermore, these findings are in line with Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (CH) which states that learners can achieve improved language outcomes in terms of complexity when task complexity and cognitive demands are increased along the resource-directing dimension. Writing integrated tasks requires writers to retrieve, comprehend, synthesize, and reorganize information from a reading source. In the current study, participants were asked to summarize problems presented in the reading text provided and suggest solutions to the problems. A complex problem-solving and decision-making process is involved in this cognitive process which also places greater demands on working memory and executive function. Consequently, writers engaged in the integrated writing task may use more sophisticated words and a wider variety of vocabulary to express their ideas and arguments effectively. To convey their argument clearly and persuasively, they may also employ more complex sentence structures, such as longer sentences with subordinate clauses and embedded phrases. Additionally, alternative explanations may include the findings of Cumming et al. (2005), which suggest that integrated writing tasks may reduce content biases and promote the use of syntactically complex language. An investigation by Gebril and Plakans (2016) discovered that participants’ lexical diversity increased following the practice of borrowing texts through integrated writing tasks.

Regarding the minor deviant results observed in this study, one example is that there was an absence of significant findings in lexical complexity indicators such as the type-token ratio (TTR). Furthermore, students demonstrated better performance in the independent writing task when considering the number of coordinate phrases per T-unit (CPT) in terms of syntactic complexity. Several aspects could account for these disparate outcomes. Unlike previous research, which involved separate groups of participants engaged in independent and integrated writing tasks, respectively, the present study involved the same group participating in different writing activities. Having a homogeneous level of language proficiency may affect different types of writing tasks. In addition, to minimize the impact of topic familiarity, both writing tasks were assigned relatively familiar topics based on the results of a pilot study. Because of this, high topic familiarity might impede the effects of cognitive load induced by different writing tasks on participants’ writing performance, potentially resulting in inconsistent results.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the present research, a comprehensive investigation was conducted on the differences in cognitive demands associated with two types of writing tasks—the independent writing task and the integrated writing task—as well as their effects on the outcomes of linguistic complexity in EFL learners. The study first examined the cognitive demands imposed by both independent writing and integrated writing tasks. Using triangulated methods such as learner ratings,
and perceptions across diverse task types. Specifically, qualitative inquiry would provide valuable insights into the cognitive demands. Additional qualitative research is necessary to gain deeper insights into learners' cognitive processes primarily relied on quantitative methods, focusing solely on the writing products generated by tasks with varying psychological, and sociocultural differences, which were not fully explored in this study. Furthermore, the research findings to broader teaching scenarios due to homogeneity in language proficiency and working memory, among other limitations. Firstly, the use of the same group of participants may limit the applicability or generalizability of the methods to the specific needs of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. However, the study has several importance of integrating considerations of cognitive complexity into the design and sequencing of writing tasks in Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) settings. This understanding is crucial for educators to tailor their teaching methods to the specific needs of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. However, the study has several limitations. Secondly, the process of learning to write in a foreign language is influenced by a combination of cognitive, psychological, and sociocultural differences, which were not fully explored in this study. Furthermore, the research primarily relied on quantitative methods, focusing solely on the writing products generated by tasks with varying cognitive demands. Additional qualitative research is necessary to gain deeper insights into learners' cognitive processes and perceptions across diverse task types. Specifically, qualitative inquiry would provide valuable insights into the development of EFL learners' writing abilities.

REFERENCES


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The Perspectives of Teachers and Students of the Indonesian Eastern Coastal Region on Language Acquisition Through Online Learning

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Abstract—This research discusses the perspective of teachers and students in the eastern coastal region of Indonesia toward online learning as a means for language learning. Participants in the study included 50 teachers and 35 students from different high schools in North Sumatra, Indonesia. This study applied a semi-structured interview for data collection to explore the teachers and students’ perceptions of online learning and then analyzed the data qualitatively through description. Moreover, the interview data were also transcribed and analyzed using thematic content analysis. The four data themes that this study examined were: (1) participants’ reactions to online instruction; (2) participants’ limits in online instruction; (3) participants’ approach to overcoming obstacles; and (4) participants’ utilization of technology. The findings demonstrated that, by fostering independent learning and increasing student willingness to learn, teachers and students in Indonesia's rural eastern coastline region were able to adjust to online learning concerning second language acquisition. This study addressed a concern that many participants had when learning online: the use of digital technology, which is seen as challenging to acquire and apply. In light of the geographical difficulties and facility issues associated with online learning, this study highlights the significance of having mental and emotional support from peers, parents, and teachers.

Index Terms—teachers’ perspective, students’ perspective, online learning, language acquisition, geographical areas

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, thanks to educational technology playing a crucial role in replacing traditional face-to-face classroom teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, e-learning, or online learning, is now integrated with the majority of traditional classroom learning. Indeed, nowadays, you will find virtual classrooms, augmented reality classrooms, web 2.0 technologies, massive open online courses (MOOCs), and various other online learning environments utilized for education, making technology-enhanced schooling increasingly prominent. Moreover, technology-driven educational systems in numerous fields currently teach, evaluate, and address the specific requirements of learners by considering different factors. Literature has recognized the implementation of many personalization strategies in these systems to offer a tailored learning experience to specific users.

As technology became more prevalent in classrooms, research initially examined the timing of its implementation but later shifted to analyzing the methods employed to incorporate technology into the learning process. For instance, Ertmer (1999) identified two categories of obstacles when incorporating technology in classrooms: first-order obstacles, which refer to external obstacles like infrastructure, training, and support, and second-order obstacles, which pertain to
internal obstacles faced by instructors such as beliefs, knowledge, and abilities related to integrating educational technology. Despite these lingering obstacles in some schools, however, there has been a widespread initiative to eliminate them by investing in digital infrastructure in education systems and transforming teacher training methods.

Teachers can gain professional expertise and pedagogical understanding to effectively integrate technology into classrooms. However, there has been relatively little success in implementing modern technology tools with a sensible, meaningful, and student-led instructional approach (Ertmer, 2013; Heitink et al., 2017; Koh, 2019; Weiner et al., 2020). Distance learning has the ability to decrease the importance of the teacher in the classroom and shift some of the responsibility of learning to students (Baru et al., 2020). Yondler and Blau (2021) conducted a study that categorized teachers who integrate technology into their teaching based on their level of importance in the classroom into four prototypes and teaching models.

Time constraints and the level of administrative and technical support from external educational frameworks can significantly hinder the successful incorporation of technology (Francom, 2020). Indeed, effective technology integration necessitates a thorough examination of all components involved in educational design, including government education policy, the regional education system, teachers, and students in the classroom. Buchanan (2019) proposed the Five Spaces for Design in Education framework, which is based on Buchanan's four orders of design from the design field but tailored for education. This paradigm suggests analyzing all educational design processes using five places where educational discourse and design take place. Additionally, the educational institution and its teachers are considered integral components of a bigger framework that encompasses culture, systems, experiences, procedures, and artifacts.

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a key area of study that is closely linked to cultural values, as highlighted by Duff (2019), and this connection is evident in multiple aspects of classroom settings. SLA teachers, typically from the second language culture, naturally incorporate their native learning culture principles into their teaching methods (Kramsch, 2014). Applying Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in a pedagogical approach that aligns with the culture of the learners' country is deemed beneficial (Lantholf & Genung, 2001). Moreover, teachers must adhere to widely used and acknowledged local learning styles and practices, as stated by Kramsch (2014). This is based on a fundamental SLA theory known as the Comprehension Hypothesis, also referred to as the Input Hypothesis. Language learning is most successful when learners view the language as useful and significant, creating a sense of ease that aids in both input and output in the target language (Krashen, 2008). Studies on second language acquisition (SLA) learning technologies have demonstrated that digital environments can significantly enhance the process of learning and mastering a second language by providing various forms of interaction (Chang & Hung, 2019). For example, there are challenges associated with inadequate online teaching infrastructure along with insufficient instructor expertise, knowledge deficiencies (such as restricted information and resources available to all pupils), and intricate domestic circumstances (Zhang et al., 2020). Furthermore, there is a lack of mentoring and support (Judd et al., 2020).

Online learning, which has its origins in distance education, is defined as a learning experience facilitated by technological tools and internet access (Moore & Gaylen, 2011; Onyema et al., 2020). This requires all teachers to become acquainted with various Learning Management Systems and digital platforms (Smadar & Rony, 2020). Furthermore, teachers must move beyond the use of emergency online practice and instead focus on cultivating high-quality online teaching and learning through deliberate instructional design and planning (Hodges et al., 2020). Teachers who are transitioning to online teaching must be able to use a wide range of using digital tools and resources to solve challenges and adopt new approaches to teaching and learning (Eickelmann & Gerick, 2020). WhatsApp, Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram helped facilitate online education platforms such as ZOOM, Cisco WebEx, Google Meet, and others. Additionally, several practical educational applications are available for download for free, such as Office 365, Google Classroom, and many more user-friendly video conferencing applications (Future Learn, 2020). These are all tools that teachers must learn to use effectively (Smadar & Rony, 2020). According to Azorin (2020), the gap causes a temporary loss of the learning process in the classroom and has the potential to cost human resources if it lasts for a long time.

Moreover, it’s not just the teachers who face challenges; online learning presents its own set of obstacles for students, too. Raaper and Brown (2020) concluded that the pandemic crisis impacted students’ psychological conditions in the form of disciplinary issues, mental and physical health problems, motivation, and feelings of isolation during the implementation of online learning. Based on the above, together with the region or area in which it is used, online learning media can influence or contribute to students' capacity to acquire material on a specific subject.

The geographical area has also created unprecedented challenges for teachers by forcing them to adapt to online learning. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, the typical teaching scenario in schools was that teachers covered regular subject matter in classrooms where pupils gathered according to their scheduled time (Johannes & Nina, 2020).

Several distinct concepts are sometimes used interchangeably in the existing literature on online teaching and learning (for example, distance learning, online teaching, emergency online education, and distance teaching). Bozkurt and Sharma (2020) posit that online education is a pedagogical shift from traditional methods of teaching and learning to modern learning approaches such as using ZOOM, personal to virtual learning, and seminars to webinars. Moreover, though distance education and correspondence are widely regarded as non-formal education, it appears that as the current trend continues, they will gradually replace the formal education system (Lokanath et al., 2020).
Teaching is fundamentally a multifaceted process that relies on successful communication and connections between teachers and pupils. It is an emotional experience for both sides, involving social, personal, and cognitive aspects (Day, 2008; Hagenauer & Vollet, 2014; Jephcoat & Salisbury, 2009; Schutz et al., 2006). The teaching practice also provides an opportunity for meaningful reflection in collaboration with peers and tutors who can contribute to the teaching and learning process (Fuentes-Abeledo, 2020). Moreover, online teaching and learning necessitate a specific process that considers roles, competencies, professional development approaches, curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, and the nature of interactions among participants (Ni Shè et al., 2019). As a result, school curricula must become more integrated with Information and Communication Technology (ICT), and students should be provided with opportunity to utilise sophisticated technology tools and digital resources to engage in creative and inventive problem-solving (Kozma, 2011). Thus, this study focuses on online platforms that enable teachers to instruct and engage with their pupils, offering a wide array of educational possibilities in remote settings.

Several challenges related to the new perspective of online education and the complexity of its technology have been encountered in changing the education system that emerged following the COVID-19 pandemic (Misra, 2020). Likewise, Trigwell and Prosser (2004) discovered that intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence teachers’ approaches to teaching. Teachers’ motivation to approach teaching can be influenced by intrinsic factors such as their pedagogical ideas and perceptions of learning and teaching in a particular manner. Furthermore, individual participation in socio-cultural activities and institutions mediated by semiotic artifacts also heavily influences learning experiences from a socio-cultural standpoint (Lantolf & Beckett, 2009; Rogoff et al., 1995; Wertsch, 1985).

Teachers also have different perspectives on how to manage students in distance education, as students are frequently undisciplined. For example, they often listen to music, make noise, post comments with fictitious accounts, eat, and even play video games while learning online (Joshi et al., 2020). Additionally, many teachers experience connectivity issues, system failures, bandwidth issues, and other problems and are unable to resolve the issue while conducting online sessions due to a lack of technical assistance (Kaup et al., 2020). Still, online education cannot be successful without the participation and input of teachers, as they are the frontline workers in any educational institution (Joshi & Muddu, 2020).

II. METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate teacher perceptions of teaching related to second language acquisition, media and technological media-based use, and regional conditions, this study used an interview approach. Kvale (2008) argues that interviews allow researchers to explore participants' activities, experiences, and opinions in their own language. As a result, switching from in-person classroom instruction to online virtual instruction has the potential to give educators fresh experiences to discuss. Indeed, relative to the dynamics that occur, they have different experiences from one another. As a result, the semi-structured interview was used as a guide to obtain information regarding the background of the research participants and their teaching experience.

Creswell (1998) created a useful interview procedure, as follows:

1. Identify the participants are selected according to the chosen sampling strategy,
2. Determine the kind of the interview to be conducted and the pertinent information required to address the research question.
3. Ensure that a suitable recording device, such as a microphone, is prepared for both the interviewer and the participant. The microphone must possess sufficient sensitivity to capture talks accurately. This is particularly evident in cases where the room lacks a favourable acoustic configuration and there are numerous gatherings to be recorded.
4. Inspect the state of the recording device, such as examining the battery. Ensure that the record button has been pushed accurately before the recording commences.
5. Create an interview procedure that is around four to five pages in length. Include approximately five open-ended questions and give enough space between each question to record the participant's responses to their comments.
6. Determine a suitable location for the interview. Ideally, the space should possess a tranquil ambiance devoid of any disturbances and should provide a pleasant environment for the participants. Optimally, the researcher and participants are positioned facing each other, with the recorder placed in the middle to ensure accurate speech recording. This configuration also facilitates the researcher’s ability to document participants’ non-verbal cues, such as laughter, forehead patting, and similar actions.
7. Obtain explicit consent from prospective participants after providing them with the necessary information.
8. During the interview, adjust to the questions, complete the interview in the allotted time (if possible), respect the participants, and always be polite as these are the signs of a good interviewer.

A. Participants

The study included instructors from various senior high schools in the Indonesian province of North Sumatra, whose ages ranged from 30 to 40. Fifty high school teachers who employ online learning were contacted privately via WhatsApp messaging in order to recruit volunteers for the study. However, other teachers who had the time and were
interested in taking part in the study could voluntarily become participants without any coercion. Additionally, there were 35 students ages 16 and 17 who also took part in the study. The data for teachers and students is displayed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively, below.

### Table 1
**TEACHERS’ PARTICIPANTS DATA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Field of Study</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khn</td>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plps</td>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er</td>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rms</td>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2
**STUDENTS’ PARTICIPANTS DATA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Field of Study</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FY</td>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LKT</td>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMR</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNT</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHI</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants were informed of the study’s goals, procedures, and potential risks by the researcher prior to the start of the study (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012). The teachers have indicated their readiness to engage in a series of interviews in order to share their life experiences that are relevant to the research topic. The purpose of these interviews is to gather data on the participants’ lives. In order to safeguard the privacy of the individuals involved and adhere to ethical guidelines in research, the researcher refrained from disclosing the complete identities of the participants or the specific educational institution they were associated with (Widodo, 2014).

### B. Research Procedure

The method of choice for addressing the research questions was the interview. Both in-person and WhatsApp interviews were conducted with the participants. As was previously noted, the participants were first given an explanation of the study’s objectives, methods, and possible risks before being asked if they would be ready to participate in the study. After obtaining the participant’s consent, the researcher immediately began the interviews, questioning the participants about their perceptions of online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. All interviews were recorded for future reference. Finally, the interview data was gathered and transferred into a file to streamline the process of identifying and categorizing the data.

### C. Data Collection

Methods for gathering information included conducting in-person interviews and WhatsApp calls, covering perceptions of online learning and teachers’ reflections on online learning based on their geographical location in the eastern coastal region of North Sumatra, Indonesia. Interview questions included how teachers respond to online learning during the pandemic, what types of online learning are used, what obstacles are encountered in online learning, what solutions and responsibilities are played in overcoming these challenges, and how far the degree of objective attainment has progressed in each meeting.

Overall, the data were divided into four categories, namely: (1) teacher responses in online teaching; (2) teacher constraints in teaching online; (3) the teacher's solution to overcome difficulties; and (4) the use of technology. The same questions were also asked of students. Interviews were also carried out in accordance with the participants’ and researchers’ flexible schedules and situations. Moreover, the researchers developed a rapport with the participants before the research was conducted so that, during the interview, participants could more freely discuss their academic experiences in teaching during the pandemic since the interview becomes easier and the participant feels comfortable when emotional closeness has been established between the researcher and the participant. This encouraged participants to voluntarily disclose their experiences and academic struggles during the pandemic, which are relevant to the needs of research data, before the data were analyzed.

### D. Data Analysis Method

Thematic analysis is one approach to examine data with the purpose of uncovering patterns or finding themes using data that has been collected by academics (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This approach is highly efficient when a research study aims to thoroughly analyse qualitative data in order to identify connections between patterns in a phenomena and elucidate the degree to which the phenomenon occurs as perceived by researchers (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Likewise, Holoway and Todres (2003) stated that the thematic analysis serves as the framework or foundation for the analysis of qualitative research. Rather than the structure of the story, the thematic method seeks to grasp "what is being told" and to identify problems and experiences based on established themes. The analysis involves frequently reviewing the interview transcripts to comprehend the story’s meaning and discourse, then coding them by themes, subthemes, and
potential themes. Interview data analysis begins with transcribing the interview results and continues with: 1. Relistening to recorded interview material to uncover themes or key topics; 2. Format interview transcripts to simplify coding, sorting, and classifying relevant data; 3. Interpret interview data and every participant phrase and sentence, communicating their opinions and viewpoints (inner voices); 4. Produce reliable data by providing opportunities for participants to provide feedback on the results of data interpretation. Feedback was also made by expert researchers who were invited to focus group discussions (Widodo, 2014). All of this is important because the participants are the source of data, and their voices must be conveyed correctly.

### Table 3: Teachers’ Data Analysis Thematically

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Data</th>
<th>Word Coding</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KHN #1</td>
<td>Online learning is less effective because students at my school are less interested in doing assignments. Every time I give an online assignment, there are people who do it, but more who don't.</td>
<td>Teacher's response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IF #2</td>
<td>Sometimes there are network disturbances; for example, when using ZOOM, not all students can follow due to unstable networks.</td>
<td>Teacher obstacle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLPS #3</td>
<td>In the implementation of online learning using ZOOM, the activity is recorded in the form of a file that can be shared on the WhatsApp group so that students can repeat the material until they really understand it, or for students who happen to be unable to join ZOOM at that time due to a bad network, so that they don't miss the material.</td>
<td>Teacher's solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER #4</td>
<td>Not only are teachers required to be able to use technology, but students also have to learn more about using technology.</td>
<td>Use of technology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4: Students’ Data Analysis Thematically

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Data</th>
<th>Word Coding</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIY #1</td>
<td>Online learning is fun, even though it is not effective. The enthusiasm for learning should not decrease; in fact, you have to be more enthusiastic because there are also many advantages to be gained from online learning like the shorter learning time, so you can develop yourself in other things.</td>
<td>Student’s response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LKT #2</td>
<td>The material provided online is less understandable, and the way to send assignments is also rather complicated. Apart from that, signal factors and internet packages also affect online learning.</td>
<td>Students obstacle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNT #3</td>
<td>Scheduled offline meetings are held, the health protocol is still being implemented, and students can still discuss material that they have not understood with the teacher.</td>
<td>Student’s solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHI #4</td>
<td>Google Meet, ZOOM, and Google Classroom</td>
<td>Use of technology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III. Results and Discussions

Along with online learning, modern times have influenced the dynamics and socio-cultural products, such as the availability of digital technology like computers and the internet, for example, which are utilized to mediate social interactions in cyberspace. Kusumaningputri and Widodo (2018) revealed that digital technology like the internet and social media mediate numerous socio-cultural activities and international exchanges. As the use of information technology became increasingly widespread during the pandemic, the socio-cultural approach can be used as a parameter to interpret the learning experience in certain situations and contexts. This study produced four categories of findings: (1) teacher reactions to online teaching; (2) their constraints in online teaching; (3) their solutions to overcoming obstacles; and (4) their use of technology. For students, this includes (1) their responses to online teaching, (2) their obstacles to online teaching, (3) their solutions to overcome the issues, and (4) their use of technology.

#### A. Teacher’s Response to Online Teaching Towards Geographical Area

In the context of education, one thing that has really changed is the teaching and learning process. With this change has come a new teaching experience for the teachers who are encouraged to continue carrying out their duties as educators by adapting to the current situation. As a result, teaching strategies have also changed. In the past, the teaching and learning process was carried out face-to-face in the classroom; however, it has now become virtual while also taking into account the status of the regional and geographical area. Therefore, based on the experiences of teachers in the field, there are various responses regarding online learning, such as the following:

"Online learning is something new that teachers do in learning, for example using ZOOM meetings, WhatsApp groups, Google Classroom, and YouTube" (ER#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

"There is also a weakness in this online system because we cannot provide exposure and understanding of the material but only provide the material" (IF#2, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April 2023).

These responses make it very clear that the use of online learning by teachers is still very new. Many participants apparently still have weaknesses in this regard. Nonetheless, nowadays, teachers must be able to quickly use various kinds of applications that they have never used before, so naturally, there are still many weaknesses here and there, as the following interview results show:
“Online learning is less effective because students at my school are less interested in doing assignments. Every time I give an online assignment, there are people who do it, but more who don’t.” (KHN#1, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Online learning is not as effective as face-to-face learning” (PLPS#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Online learning is considered less effective because not all students have Android, there is a lack of implementation or use, and students are more saturated with online learning” (RMS#5, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April, 2023).

The emergence of teacher responses about the ineffectiveness of online learning can be attributed to a variety of factors; for example, while every teacher used to freely interact directly with students, during the COVID-19 pandemic, teachers only taught and interacted with their students from behind a smartphone or laptop. Teachers have a variety of applications available at their fingertips. ZOOM, YouTube, and WhatsApp are just a few. Though many of these applications allow teachers to virtually meet face-to-face and interact with their students, they still face a multitude of challenges, such as an unstable network, for example. As a result, many teachers feel that online learning is less effective than classroom learning.

B. Teachers’ Obstacles in Online Teaching Towards Geographical Area

As mentioned previously, online learning was the method by which teachers tried to deliver the material so that students do not miss out on the teaching and learning process during the COVID-19 pandemic. However, it was not as easy to carry out online learning as it sounds during the pandemic. In fact, many obstacles arose, as seen from the perspectives of participating teachers during their interviews:

“There was submission of material that is less than optimal, limited opportunities for students to ask questions, and not all students could access online learning from their respective homes” (ER#4, Live interview, 17 April 2023).

“Sometimes network disturbances, while using ZOOM, for example, made it so not all students could follow along because of the unstable network” (IF#2, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Although the government provided learning quota assistance to students, it was not supported by a good signal, so the quota cannot be used optimally” (RMS#5, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April 2023).

According to the interview excerpt above, the most significant challenge was a poor internet network, which prevented some pupils from getting the given information. Though the government provided quota assistance, which was a big help to the learning process, in reality, it was not carried out properly. In the areas where some students live, there are no internet service providers that are in accordance with government assistance, so the assistance seems futile and not channelled properly. Moreover, there are also other obstacles:

“Online learning is not optimal for teaching because I only use text, not face-to-face. Usually, I make learning videos myself, but I also use videos from YouTube, and even then, not all students open the learning videos” (KHN #1, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“When students are given an assignment, they should be able to submit it the very next day, but they don’t do it and submit it the following week” (PLPS#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

Based on the quote above, it can be seen that the lack of student interest in online learning is also an obstacle other than network problems. Students are not more active and productive when asked to study from home. There is no activity out of the house every day because they do not go to school.

C. Teachers’ Solution to Overcome Difficulties Towards Geographical Area

Regarding the distinct and various situations in some regions of Indonesia, teachers are busy racking their brains on finding the tactics to employ so that the attainment of learning objectives can be maximized by leveraging technology. By not allowing face-to-face meetings, teachers change the way they teach by using existing technology and digital platforms such as YouTube, ZOOM, WhatsApp, and others. Even though learning takes place online and encounters many obstacles, teachers still try to ensure that the material is well conveyed to students in various ways:

“Once a week, students come to school to collect assignments and are given the opportunity to share things that have not been understood personally” (ER#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Make offline meetings for each subject that has been scheduled and collect assignments and share them if there are problems in understanding the material” (IF#2, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Offline meetings once a week can be used to collect assignments and share new things while still following health protocols” (KHN #1, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

As seen above, although the teaching and learning process is carried out online from school and the teacher holds only one offline meeting a week, it is clear that students are given the opportunity to meet with the teacher in order to ensure a complete understanding of the previously presented material to help students learn better online.

“The government should have adjusted it (online learning) to the area where students live before distributing quota assistance. Many students are unable to use the quota due to an inadequate network” (RMS#5, WhatsApp Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Use the ZOOM meeting application to record the activity so that the recorded results of the delivery of the material can be shared with students and they can repeat the lesson and study the material over and over, as needed” (PLPS #4, Direct Interview, 17 April 2023).

The interview data above shows that, despite not meeting with teachers face-to-face, students can still use learning videos from YouTube. This activity is very helpful in understanding the learning material taught by the teacher. By
using ZOOM and recording and saving the lesson, the learning material can be viewed by students repeatedly, so they better understand the material presented. These learning activities indirectly lead students to manage their own learning (self-regulated learning). This is useful for building independent learning. Shin and Kasey (2020) report that there is a relationship between student self-managed learning and attitudes towards online learning in achieving learning goals.

D. Use of Technology Towards Geographical Area

One of the supporting factors for online learning is technology. Mastery of technology does not only include the internet network but also the use of applications such as ZOOM meetings, Google Classroom, YouTube, and WhatsApp.

“Applications used in online learning are Google Classroom, YouTube, and ZOOM” (ER#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2021).

“In online learning, I use ZOOM and Google Classroom” (PLPS#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

Based on the interview excerpt above, the applications most often used are ZOOM and Google Classroom. These applications really supported the teaching and learning process in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic. As a video-conferencing tool, ZOOM can also still be used for face-to-face learning, though indirectly.

E. Students’ Response to Online Teaching Towards Geographical Area

Regarding geographical region, it is not only teachers who are affected by changes in teaching in the world of education, but it is also students who feel the effects as well. They are the ones who must stay at home, who cannot meet with their school friends, and who also cannot meet face-to-face with their teachers to learn. This is how one of them responded:

“Online learning is less fun and less effective than face-to-face learning because, through face-to-face learning, we can see explanations from the teacher directly when explaining material at school. This certainly makes us more focused, and we often find it easier to understand than online explanations” (GHI#1, Live Interview, 17 April 2021).

Based on the interview above, students experience various difficulties with online learning. They feel it is less effective compared to face-to-face learning, which is easier to understand.

F. Students’ Obstacles in Online Teaching Towards Geographical Area

From the results of the student interviews, it was found that there are several obstacles faced by students. For example:

“Online learning will also be less effective if it is carried out in places that are less supportive for courageous learning, such as remote or unreachable places without internet networks and unsupported facilities such as the absence of mobile phones” (FIY#2, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“It is also more difficult to study at home because of the many obstacles such as signal difficulties and cellphone or laptop errors when learning online” (UKT#2, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

The lack of facilities such as smartphones, laptops, or internet access is one of the many obstacles faced in online learning.

G. Students’ Solution to Overcoming Difficulties Towards Geographical Area

Based on the results of the student interview, it was found that:

“Visiting the school two times a week to collect assignments and have discussions with subject teachers is very beneficial” (FIY#3, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“Providing offline learning by coming to school to collect assignments and asking questions about learning material that is not or has not been understood is very helpful” (LKT#3, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

Even though face-to-face classroom learning was eliminated, the school still opened opportunities for students to be able to discuss lessons that students could not understand in online learning. Moreover, health protocols were still maintained by dividing meetings so that there were not too many at the same time.

H. Use of Technology Towards Geographical Area

Some of the results of the interview on this subject follow below:

“We use WhatsApp, YouTube, and ZOOM” (LKT#4, Live Interview, 17 April 2023).

“We use just WhatsApp and Google Classroom” (UNT#4, 17 April 2023).

Some students use WhatsApp and other applications such as YouTube and Google Classroom. Maybe because these apps are basically free, they are a more affordable option for students and their families.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study aims to determine teacher perceptions or perspectives on online learning related to language mastery and the geographical conditions, especially regarding the eastern coastal region of Indonesia. There are four aspects of the theme for the study for both teachers and students: (1) teacher/student responses to online teaching; (2) teacher/student constraints in teaching online; (3) the solutions of teachers/students to overcome difficulties; and (4) the use of technology. The results of the study show that, during the COVID-19 pandemic, online learning was the only learning that was applied. Nevertheless, both teachers and students were able to adapt to online learning.
This study evaluated digital technology applications that are regarded as challenging, both in procurement and use, when learning online to establish autonomous learning and build motivation for empirical learning. This research theoretically contributes to the idea that learning independence can be built through collaborative learning with friends, so that students ask questions and discuss and share experiences when doing assignments given by the teacher.

Additionally, students must also be able to use renewable technology in accordance with the times, even though there are still obstacles preventing their use. Furthermore, self-reflection and support from the people around them, such as teachers, parents, and friends, are factors that support the development of learning motivation. Widodo and Ferdiansyah (2018) posited that reflection is important to evaluate the teaching experience emotionally and to reconstruct their teaching practice for the better. The provision of free quotas to students from the Ministry of Education and Culture is another supporting factor.

It is hoped that the improvement of online learning and its success will come from providing training for teachers and students and using digital technology tools. It is also hoped that this research will contribute to the development of policies in the context of learning by using technology to complete the learning goals and considering the regional situation, specifically in Indonesia’s eastern coastal region.

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Blended Teaching for Grammar Acquisition: Application and Satisfaction

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Abstract—Blended instruction integrating online and face-to-face teaching is increasingly adopted in Chinese higher education. However, research on implications for advancing student-centered pedagogy is limited. This study aims to develop a blended instruction framework tailored for grammar acquisition. The design aligns online explicit grammar modules with face-to-face integrated reading, writing, listening, and speaking sessions. Online components provide holistic instructions, explanations, and practice while in-person activities enable skill transfer through meaningful communicative tasks. The model provides educators with a structured approach to developing blended curricula that leverage online and offline affordances. Blended designs following this framework promise to increase learner engagement, motivation, and outcomes.

Index Terms—blended teaching and learning, language acquisition, English grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

Blended instruction, integrating online and in-person teaching, has gained significant uptake in Chinese higher education. Recent figures indicate over 75% of universities have implemented blended courses, with 40% of students enrolled in at least one blended class (Huang et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2021). Major universities such as Tsinghua and Peking have established dedicated centers and initiatives to support blended course development. The number of blended learning platforms and resources has also proliferated, with sites like Chaoxing receiving over 30 million daily users (https://erya.mooc.chaoxing.com). Moreover, China’s Ministry of Education has actively promoted blended learning, releasing official guidelines and highlighting blended formats in the new Five-Year Plan. This tremendous growth reflects widespread beliefs among institutions and policymakers that blended models may increase engagement, motivation, and outcomes through personalized instruction (Zhang et al., 2020). Blended learning has become a high-priority strategy for advancing teaching and learning practices across China’s higher education.

The pedagogical guidelines for blended learning and teaching are well documented. From a theoretical perspective, blended learning can be seen as a powerful approach to language learning that aligns with several pedagogical frameworks. Activity Theory, Cognitive Load Theory, and Community of Inquiry are three theoretical perspectives that can shed light on the design of blended classes for language acquisition. These theories offer guiding insights into designing effective blended learning for language acquisition.

Activity Theory emphasizes learning as an activity system mediated by tools, communities, and division of labor (Engeström, 1987). In blended learning contexts, students interact with technological tools like learning management systems, online resources, and multimedia content to construct meaning, while instructors and peers comprise the community facilitating learning through norms and rules. The object that guides the activities is the learning content and objectives. Applying Activity Theory principles involves systematically aligning tools, objectives, communities, and rules to create an active learning system that catalyzes learner agency and engagement (Yamagata-Lynch, 2014). For example, instructor-created video lectures can serve as online tools to introduce concepts and model process skills aligned with course goals, providing flexible access to content (Kannan & Munday, 2018). These videos reduce cognitive load as pre-training materials for in-person problem-solving where students collaborate and gain guidance from peers and teachers, their community (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Division of labor is exemplified in group projects where students take on specific roles suited to their skills and interests, promoting participation. Explicit norms shape the use of online discussion forums for knowledge sharing (Baleni, 2015). Thoughtful integration of pre-recorded
lectures, collaborative application tasks, and discussion reflect the mediated nature of blended learning highlighted in Activity Theory (Yamagata-Lynch, 2014). This framework underscores the importance of considering how online and face-to-face tools are leveraged, how participation is structured, and how objectives are pursued within a blended ecosystem. Applying the activity theory lens allows educators to design blended learning experiences that effectively engage learners intentionally.

Cognitive Load Theory highlights the role of working memory limitations in learning (Sweller, 1988). Working memory has a finite capacity, so instructional designs imposing excessive cognitive load can hinder learning (Sweller et al., 1998). Intrinsic cognitive load is inherent to the complexity of content and cannot be altered. However, extraneous cognitive load stems from suboptimal instructional designs that tax working memory with irrelevant information. Managing intrinsic and extraneous cognitive load through intentional design enhances learning (Choi et al., 2014).

For blended learning, multimedia formats and self-paced online activities with segmented information help minimize extraneous load (Chen & Huang, 2020). These online components present manageable units rather than lengthy continuous lessons, preventing working memory overload (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Social interaction during face-to-face instruction facilitates germane cognitive load, wherein working memory resources are devoted to deep continuous lessons, preventing working memory overload (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Social interaction during extraneous load (Chen & Huang, 2020). These online components present manageable units rather than lengthy continuous lessons, preventing working memory overload (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Social interaction during face-to-face instruction facilitates germane cognitive load, wherein working memory resources are devoted to deep processing and schema construction. For example, peer discussions allow learners to verbalize concepts in their own words, strengthening neural patterns and connections (Sweller et al., 2011). Blended designs must strategically balance cognitive load across online explicit instruction and collaborative offline knowledge application. Segmenting complex concepts and providing scaffolding support online establishes foundations that are expanded through interactive consolidation of schemas during in-person activities (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Applying Cognitive Load Theory principles enables educators to develop blended learning experiences that optimize working memory processes and demands. This facilitates meaningful learning by managing intrinsic load and minimizing extraneous load while promoting germane load through social interaction.

The Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework developed by Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000) emphasizes the development of social, cognitive, and teaching presence in online and blended courses. This model highlights the importance of interactions between teachers, students, and content to foster deep and meaningful learning experiences (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). In blended contexts, teaching presence can be established through intentional instructional design, facilitation, and direct instructional guidance (Shea & Bidjerano, 2010). For example, learning objectives, scaffolds, and modeling integrated across online and face-to-face components reflect teaching presence (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). Social presence emerges through affective expression, open communication, and group cohesion. Student profiles, icebreaker activities, and norms of conduct shape social presence online and offline (Richardson et al., 2017). Finally, cognitive presence involves a cycle of triggering exploration, integration, and resolution. Carefully sequenced discussions and reflective assignments promote cognitive presence (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). Blended designs should incorporate all three presences to create an engaging community of inquiry (Kilis & Yildirim, 2018). Teaching presence provides structure, social presence develops relatedness, and cognitive presence enables deep learning. Using the CoI model as a design lens highlights the need to foster interconnected presences through role design, content selection, and planned interaction (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). This framework offers guidance for developing cohesive blended learning experiences.

Together, these perspectives provide a theoretical grounding for blended learning implementations. Activity theory highlights tool mediation, Cognitive Load Theory focuses on managing working memory demands, and Community of Inquiry underscores interconnected presences. Applying these lenses in tandem allows educators to develop impactful blended designs aligned with language learning processes and goals. The synergistic blend maximizes affordances across online and face-to-face environments.

Current research has examined blended learning implementations in the teaching of a variety of subjects. Learning analytics from online components provide differentiation insight, while face-to-face interactions enable teacher guidance and peer collaboration. Blended contexts have also facilitated self-paced learning and adaptive content based on progress monitoring (Ma et al., 2021). While existing scholarship has investigated blended learning applications, insight into practical implications for improving student-centered instruction remains limited. This study addresses this gap by developing a blended learning design tailored for language educators for preschool grammar teaching. An exemplary blended language program guides framework construction and identifies best practices for implementation. The blended learning design framework provides practical guidance on course redesign and educational technology integration. Customizable templates, workshops, and coaching modules enable language faculty to transition to blended contexts effectively. The framework aims to increase blended adoption success and maximize student-centered pedagogies by improving instructor readiness and capacity.

This study makes key practical contributions to transitioning to blended language instruction for college language classes. Adoption of the blended design model can drive widespread transformation towards personalized, active learning.

II. BLENDED LEARNING APPLICATIONS

Blended learning, integrating online and face-to-face instruction, has gained popularity in EFL classrooms recently (Arifani et al., 2021; Al-Shehri, 2011; Kaur, 2013). While existing studies reveal meaningful learning gains, several
issues remain regarding blended learning implementation. For instance, Arifani et al. (2021) found that blended EFL teacher training fulfilled psychological needs, yet challenges like heavy online workloads were noted. Though Al-Shehri (2011) outlined benefits like increased interaction, concerns were raised regarding faculty training and resistance. More research is needed on optimal blend formats and support structures specifically for college language blended instruction.

Emerging technology-enhanced approaches demonstrate promise, but factors influencing adoption in college contexts need investigation. Blended e-learning (Pölzl-Stefanec et al., 2023) and text annotation tools (Crosthwaite et al., 2021) showed learning gains, but most participants were adults. Stracke et al. (2023) emphasized learner autonomy and interactivity for retention in blended courses; however, college students probably have different needs regarding technology-mediated learning. Studies tailored to college blended language acquisition are scarce.

While flipped and gamified EFL instruction promotes engagement and achievement (Khodabandelh, 2022; Zarrinfard et al., 2021), implementing such approaches with college populations presents challenges. Flipped classrooms require substantial restructuring of activities and roles (Peng & Fu, 2021), which may be difficult within established curricula. Optimal integration of online and offline components for specific skills remains underexplored, especially for younger students. Though gamification offers motivational benefits, long-term impacts are unclear (Ashraf et al., 2021). Significant gaps persist in understanding flipped and gamified instruction for college language learners. A blended instruction format, which combines the course scheme with individual needs, may come to the rescue. Developing blended practices catering to young language learners is crucial.

### III. BLENDED LEARNING DESIGN FRAMEWORK

This study proposes a blended learning design integrating online grammar instruction with face-to-face reading, writing, listening, and speaking in one program. The online component consists of 16 chapters covering aspects of English grammar, including morphology and syntax. Prior research indicates that explicit grammar instruction through online delivery can effectively develop grammatical competence (Al-Jarf, 2005; AbuSeileek, 2009). Online learning provides flexibility regarding time, place, and pace of instruction, allowing learners to access materials based on individual needs and availability (Moore et al., 2011; Srichanyachon, 2014). Furthermore, multimedia grammar explanations involving text, graphics, audio, and video cater to diverse learning preferences and increase student engagement (Mayer, 2003; Yousef et al., 2014).

The online course includes lecture slides, instructional videos, practice exercises, and discussion forums. Videos allow instructors to model grammatical concepts and provide dynamic explanations accessible asynchronously (Duffy, 2008). Various multimedia formats have been shown to increase student engagement and learning in online contexts compared to text alone (Kim et al., 2017). Exercises with computer-graded feedback offer opportunities for low-stakes retrieval practice, which strengthens knowledge acquisition and retention (Karpicke & Roediger, 2007). Online discussions enable learner collaboration and teacher guidance during the learning process (Aloni & Harrington, 2018). Taken together, these interactive components promote active learning and allow instructors to identify and address gaps in understanding.

The face-to-face portion comprises integrated reading and writing lessons and listening and speaking lessons aimed at developing core language skills and getting the learners ready for academic-purpose reading and writing with complexity. This blended structure aligns with established principles of blending online explicit instruction with offline interactive practice. The addition of online components expands learning time and locations, providing instruction on grammatical rules and supplemental explanation and practice. Learners can control the pace and order of instruction based on perceived needs. This learner agency and expanded access to input facilitates personalized learning paths tailored to individual profiles and goals. At the same time, the face-to-face classroom environment remains critical for interactive skill building through meaningful practice and collaboration, including peer review and group discussion. Blended designs aim to leverage the strengths of online and offline learning contexts to enhance multidimensional language development.

The blended format utilizes online grammar content to support reading and writing development. Prior studies indicate that integrating online grammar modules can enhance learners’ reading comprehension and writing accuracy (Chung, 2022). Reading comprehension relies on syntactic parsing, or the ability to identify sentence components and understand their relationships. Readers must construct meaning by processing words in the context of larger phrases and clauses (Rayner et al., 2001; Perfetti & Stafura, 2014). Knowledge of grammar provides a mental framework for analyzing sentence structure and logic during reading. Through online learning, students gain explicit knowledge of grammatical conventions and patterns which they can apply to decipher complex academic texts (Cain & Oakhill, 2011). Learners will analyze multi-clause sentences and advanced grammar patterns in reading passages by actively applying knowledge from online grammar modules. The ability to systematically break down syntactic forms facilitates deeper comprehension. The application of grammar understanding also allows readers to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words based on the surrounding context (Cain & Oakhill, 2011). This grammar-enhanced analysis promotes comprehension of sentence logic and overall passage meaning.

In writing tasks, learners will leverage online grammar learning to enhance syntactic accuracy, complexity, and variety. Applying explicit grammar knowledge to writing promotes linguistic accuracy and syntactic sophistication.
Grammatical competence is a key predictor of writing quality, as command of conventions and structures allows students to communicate ideas (Beers & Nagy, 2011; Myhill, 2018). Online learning provides increased exposure to diverse grammar patterns and forms. This expanded input facilitates the acquisition of low-frequency constructions and nuanced distinctions between similar structures. Knowledge gained from online grammar instruction equips learners to accurately produce a fuller range of forms in their writing. Additionally, online grammar activities help develop metalinguistic awareness, or the ability to consciously reflect on and manipulate language (Andrews, 2010; Myhill, 2011). This explicit understanding allows writers to intentionally vary syntax and apply complex constructions to enhance academic writing. In summary, the blended integration of online grammar learning aims to enrich linguistic knowledge and conscious control, empowering students to write with increased accuracy and sophistication.

For listening and speaking development, face-to-face instruction will emphasize pronunciation, fluency, and conversational skills which are critical competencies for effective listening and speaking (Bozorgian & Pilfay, 2013). While this face-to-face emphasis provides learners with interactive practice, research indicates that explicit grammar instruction can also facilitate listening and speaking growth. Studies have found that grammar knowledge supports listening comprehension by enabling learners to parse speech and identify grammatical structures (Akakura, 2012). Through the application of grammar rules learned online, learners may better comprehend complex utterances containing unfamiliar vocabulary or fast speech. For speaking skill enhancement, meta-analyses indicate that explicit grammar instruction results in improved grammatical accuracy in learner speech (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Online grammar resources will allow learners to internalize rules and patterns which can then be applied during speaking to produce more target-like and sophisticated output. For example, knowledge of passive voice constructions gained from online grammar modules can help learners accurately produce passive forms while speaking. Research also suggests that explicit knowledge facilitates the development of implicit knowledge and automaticity through meaningful practice (Ellis, 2006). Therefore, online grammar learning can gradually become proceduralized and integrated into spontaneous speaking. Blended discussions that connect online and face-to-face content may further support the transfer of explicit grammar knowledge to implicit skills. These blended exchanges create opportunities for learners to produce structures initially learned online within meaningful interpersonal contexts. Additionally, emerging computer-assisted language learning research proposes speech recognition technology as a means of providing automated corrective feedback on pronunciation and grammar while speaking. If paired with face-to-face speaking development, such technology may allow learners to obtain feedback between lessons and enhance the transfer of explicit grammar knowledge. In summary, this blended design recognizes the value of face-to-face interactive practice while also acknowledging the benefits explicit grammar instruction offers for listening and speaking competencies. The blend of online and offline activities aims to develop well-rounded communicative abilities.

In summary, this blended curriculum synergistically combines online explicit grammar instruction with face-to-face integrated skills development. Online resources facilitate reading and writing through grammar enhancement while face-to-face lessons target holistic communicative abilities. This blended design aligns online and offline components to maximize English proficiency. Online self-paced learning focuses on grammar knowledge acquisition, while offline face-to-face instruction emphasizes integrated language skills development. Research shows that theoretical knowledge attainment is more suited for online learning, while interactive practice needs in-person guidance more (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). Also, excessive online learning time can decrease student engagement and learning outcomes (Wanner & Palmer, 2015). Therefore, the online-offline ratio should cater to both needs.

It is advisable to keep online grammar self-learning to around 30% of total class hours. Chen et al. (2014) found that a moderate amount of online learning ensures students master theories while guaranteeing sufficient face-to-face interaction. Other studies also show this ratio results in optimal learning (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; O’Flaherty & Phillips, 2015). The remaining 70% of the time is for offline language skills training, mainly interactive reading-writing tasks, and speaking-listening practice. Student-student and teacher-student exchanges facilitate the application of grammar knowledge in contextualized practice. Designing offline activities catering to different language skills can enhance comprehensive competence.

During implementation, teachers should adjust online versus offline schedules accordingly to ensure the best outcomes. Overall, 30% online self-learning and 70% face-to-face interaction leverage the advantages of flipped classrooms, achieving an optimal balance between knowledge delivery and internalization.

To ensure effective implementation of blended teaching, schools need to focus on preparing implementation conditions and teacher training. For implementation conditions, Colleges should get hardware facilities ready, like purchasing IT teaching equipment, improving network coverage quality, building online teaching platforms, etc.. Colleges also need to modify course arrangements by modularizing original content and schedules to meet flipped teaching requirements (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). Additionally, Colleges need to have technical support teams to provide timely feedback and maintenance to teachers. For faculty, Colleges should evaluate current teachers and allocate proper numbers of full-time teachers and teaching assistants to ensure smooth classroom operations (O’Flaherty & Phillips, 2015). For teacher training, colleges could organize a series of training workshops covering: 1) blended classroom theories, 2) modular course design, 3) digital teaching resources development, 4) online platform use, and 5) potential problems and solutions during implementation (Long et al., 2017). Training should adopt theoretical
instruction combined with case analysis. Simulated teaching by teachers could also be organized to enhance skills. After basic training, colleges should also provide specialized coaching and personalized feedback to teachers during initial implementation to guide continuous improvements.

Through the preparation of implementation conditions and sustained teacher training, colleges can establish a solid foundation for the smooth delivery of blended teaching. This requires colleges to provide adequate resource support and active teacher participation (Herreid & Schiller, 2013).

Figure 1. Scheme for Blended Design

Figure 1 presents a scheme for a blended design for teaching English Grammar to students. The design integrates an online learning module with classroom learning activities taught by a Chinese instructor and a native speaker instructor. The online module is a comprehensive platform that includes multiple components to facilitate effective grammar learning. It comprises supplementary video clips, grammar charts or visuals, course presentations (PPTs), and instructional videos covering different grammar topics. Additionally, the module incorporates assessment elements such as unit tests and a course exam to evaluate the learners’ understanding and progress periodically. The online platform also features supporting and feedback sections, including a learning tracker that allows students to monitor their progress and a discussion forum where they can interact, ask questions, and receive feedback from instructors or peers. All these components within the online module are interconnected and designed to complement each other, providing learners with a well-rounded and interactive experience. The supplementary materials, visuals, and videos aid in explaining and illustrating the grammar concepts, while the assessments and learning tracker help reinforce knowledge and track progress. The discussion forum further enhances the learning experience by enabling collaborative discussions and addressing individual queries or challenges. This multifaceted online module seamlessly integrates with the classroom learning module through the overall thematic planning, ensuring that the knowledge acquired online directly supports and aligns with the practical applications and activities conducted in the classroom setting under the guidance of instructors.

The classroom learning module is structured into two main segments, each led by a distinct instructor: a Chinese...
instructor and a native English-speaking instructor. Under the guidance of the Chinese instructor, the focus is on several key components: Discourse & Logical Reasoning, Structural Organization, Discourse & Logical Coherence, Complex Units, and Syntactical Structure. These components are reinforced through tasks like reading and writing assignments, aimed at practical application. Conversely, the native English-speaking instructor emphasizes Theme-related Viewing & Listening and Cross-cultural Communication, which are integrated into activities such as presentations and group work. This dual approach offers a balanced perspective: the Chinese instructor focuses on reading and writing, often drawing parallels to the student’s native language, while the native-speaker instructor immerses students in speaking and listening and cultural nuances. The reading, writing, presentation, and group work tasks allow students to apply grammar knowledge gained from both instructors in interactive, communicative ways. This integrated classroom module, in conjunction with the theoretical foundation provided by the online component, delivers a comprehensive blended learning experience. It encompasses grammar instruction, language skills development, cultural exposure, and practical application through a diverse array of activities and tasks. The overall design blends online grammar instruction with interactive classroom activities, assignments, and formative assessments facilitated by instructors from different language backgrounds. This integrated approach aims to provide a comprehensive learning experience combining theoretical grammar knowledge with practical application and feedback in a blended learning environment.

IV. APPLICATION AND TESTIFICATION

The suggested model was applied to a group of 90 graduate students at a university in China. The blended class design was conducted for one semester lasting four months. The online part was mainly applied via Unipus (MOOCs.unipus.cn) with a MOOC titled College Practical Grammar. Then at the end of the semester, the students were asked to complete a questionnaire (see Appendix 1) on their satisfaction of the whole class design and the specific parts. The survey on blended class design was completed by 90 students. The majority were female (65.45%) and had less than 1 year of experience with blended learning (81.82%).

| Table 1 |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Que. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| No.2.1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 18.18 | 36.36 | 13.64 | 31.82 |
| No.6 | 0 | 0 | 9.09 | 18.18 | 22.73 | 13.64 | 36.36 |
| No.9 | 0 | 0 | 4.55 | 13.64 | 31.82 | 18.18 | 31.82 |
| No.12 | 0 | 0 | 4.55 | 13.64 | 27.27 | 13.64 | 40.91 |
| No.15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4.55 | 9.09 | 31.82 | 54.55 |
| No.18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4.55 | 22.73 | 31.82 | 40.91 |
| No.21 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4.55 | 22.73 | 27.27 | 45.45 |
| No.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9.09 | 18.18 | 36.36 | 36.36 |

The results (Table 1) indicate that for most of the questions concerning satisfaction over 70% of participants scored 5-7, which is on the satisfied side. The mean rating for overall satisfaction with the blended class design was 5.59 out of 7, indicating moderately high satisfaction. No students rated overall satisfaction below 4. For the online discussion part, students gave an average rating of 5.5 out of 7 for satisfaction with the online discussion component of the blended class. Most ratings were 5 or higher, though 2 students (9.09%) gave a rating of 3. On the part of the video lectures, the mean rating for satisfaction with video lectures was 5.59. Most students gave ratings of 5 or higher, though 1 student (4.55%) gave a rating of 3. No students rated video lectures below 3. For the online quiz part, satisfaction with online quizzes received the highest mean rating at 5.73. The majority of students (40.91%) gave a rating of 7, indicating they were very satisfied with this component. Only 1 student (4.55%) gave a rating below 5. For in-class listening & speaking, the mean rating for in-class listening/speaking with the foreign teacher was 6.36. Over half the students (54.55%) gave the maximum rating of 7. Only 1 student (4.55%) gave a rating below 6. For in-class reading & writing, the satisfaction component received a mean rating of 6.09. Most students gave ratings of 6 or 7, though 1 student (4.55%) gave a rating of 4. For student-teacher interaction, the mean rating for student-teacher interaction was 6.14, indicating moderately high satisfaction. No students gave ratings below 4, and 45.45% gave a rating of 7. For ease of use, when asked if the blended class design was convenient and easy to use, the mean rating was 6.0. Over 70% gave ratings of 6 or 7, while 2 students (9.09%) gave a rating of 4.

The open questions further indicate that most participants are highly satisfied because blended learning supplements classroom teaching, enriches their learning experience, and caters to individual learning preferences and pace. One participant accounts:

“Blended classes can improve our English knowledge and fill in gaps in classroom learning. They allow us to review and strengthen areas we may have missed in class. Through online learning, we can also boost our grammar skills and reduce mistakes. With online courses, we can learn at our own pace. If there is something we don't understand, we can pause or slow down the lesson until it makes sense. The ability to control the speed and repeat content aids comprehension. Online learning supplements in-person classes by allowing customized reviews based on our needs. We can focus on strengthening grammar, vocabulary, listening, or any weaknesses. The flexibility and self-directed nature
of online courses empowers us to shape our own English learning journey”.

Other participants report positive effects concerning enhanced practice and student-student interaction, as one participant admits:

“I feel that all aspects of the blended learning course have been extremely useful in developing my overall English abilities. The course provided ample practice for speaking, writing, and listening, allowing me to improve across the board. I believe my English proficiency has increased significantly thanks to the blended format. The combination of online and in-person learning was crucial. The online components allowed self-paced study and practice. The face-to-face classes facilitated collaboration, relationship-building, and interactive activities. Balancing independent study with group work prevented burnout while optimizing learning. In addition to the linguistic gains, blended learning enriched my relationships with classmates. Communicating and working together in class deepened our bonds. I benefited both in English proficiency and in friendship through the social dimensions of blended learning. In summary, blended instruction combines the strengths of online and in-person education. My English abilities grew exponentially thanks to the practice materials and social environment. I am grateful for the holistic improvement blended learning provided to my language skills and connections with peers”.

Still, others highlight the availability, flexibility, and convenience of blended learning, as one participant states:

“Online learning allows us to engage in course studies anytime, anywhere, saving time and energy without being constrained by time and space. It facilitates more effective learning and enables communication and interaction with teachers to address any issues that may arise. Subsequently, offline course studies foster a conducive learning environment, providing more opportunities for interaction and face-to-face communication. Therefore, a blended learning approach, combining both online and offline elements, contributes to better learning and progress”.

V. IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

This study proposes a blended learning framework tailored for college grammar instruction. The design integrates online explicit grammar modules with face-to-face integrated skills development. This blended approach offers several practical implications for language teaching and learning.

Firstly, the study provides educators with a structured model for blended curriculum design. Course design is a critical component influencing the success of blended learning implementations (Aldosemani, 2019; Napier et al., 2011). The alignment of online and offline components proposed in this study can serve as an exemplar for developing blended courses suited to learner needs and institutional contexts. Thoughtful integration of technology-mediated and in-person activities is key for meaningful blended learning experiences (Lakhal et al., 2021; Wong et al., 2021). The online grammar instruction modules supply foundational knowledge and practice opportunities, while face-to-face lessons focus on communicative development and skill transfer. This format promotes personalized and active learning with flexibility for self-paced online work and interactive offline tasks. Learner agency and engagement are frequently cited advantages of well-designed blended courses. At the same time, the blended curriculum retains teacher guidance and peer collaboration. In-person elements facilitate mentorship, discussion, collaborative projects, and relationship building, which are considered vital components of blended courses. This model can serve as a template for developing blended designs aligned to context-specific needs and resources.

Furthermore, the blended learning framework has implications for student learning experiences and outcomes. Research indicates blended designs can increase learner engagement, motivation, and self-regulation. The online grammar modules allow for personalized pacing and learning paths tailored to individual profiles and needs. This agency and flexibility are associated with heightened interest and effort. Face-to-face interactive lessons provide vital peer and instructor connections to reinforce engagement. Additionally, explicit online grammar instruction strengthens linguistic knowledge which learners can leverage to enhance language skills during offline activities. The multimedia online content caters to various learning preferences, further supporting achievement. Taken together, this blended curriculum accounts for key factors influencing positive student experiences and outcomes. The model provides a template for blended course design aimed at nurturing motivated and successful learners.

The results of this survey on student satisfaction with a blended class design reveal some interesting insights. Overall, students reported moderately high levels of satisfaction across all aspects surveyed. However, satisfaction was higher for certain components compared to others. Students were most satisfied with the in-class listening/speaking activities with the foreign teacher, giving it the highest average rating. This suggests the interactive practice with a native speaker was beneficial. Enthusiasm for the online quizzes was also strong, indicating students appreciated the self-assessment. Satisfaction was moderately high but slightly lower for areas like online discussion, video lectures, and in-class reading/writing. The online discussion in particular had the widest range of ratings. This component may need improvement to increase engagement. Another area to focus on could be strengthening student-teacher interactions. While satisfaction was moderately high, there is room to improve. Increasing communication channels could make interactions more meaningful. Overall ease of use was rated favorably, signifying the blended format was accessible. However, the fact that a couple of students gave low ratings suggests the design could be simplified further.
APPENDIX. BLENDED LEARNING SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 1: Demographic Information
1.1. Gender:
A. Male
B. Female
1.2. Years of Experience with Blended Learning:
A. Less than 1 year
B. 1-2 years
C. 3-5 years
D. More than 5 years

Section 2: Overall Experience with Blended Teaching
2.1. How satisfied are you with the overall design of the blended teaching approach?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
D. Dissatisfied
E. Very dissatisfied
2.2. What aspects of the blended teaching approach do you find most effective and why?
2.3. What aspects of the blended teaching approach do you find least effective and why?

Section 3: Online Components
3.1. How satisfied are you with the Discussion Forum in the course?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
D. Dissatisfied
E. Very dissatisfied
3.2. What specific features of the Discussion Forum do you find most beneficial for your learning?
3.3. What challenges, if any, do you face with the Discussion Forum?
3.4. How satisfied are you with the Online Videos in the course?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
D. Dissatisfied
E. Very dissatisfied
3.5. What specific features of the Online Videos do you find most beneficial for your learning?
3.6. What challenges, if any, do you face with the Online Videos?
3.7. How satisfied are you with the Unit Test in the course?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
D. Dissatisfied
E. Very dissatisfied
3.8. What specific features of the Unit Test do you find most beneficial for your learning?
3.9. What challenges, if any, do you face with the Unit Test?

Section 4: Classroom Teaching Components
4.1. How satisfied are you with the Listening and Speaking components of the course?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
D. Dissatisfied
E. Very dissatisfied
4.2. What specific activities or interactions in the Listening and Speaking components do you find most valuable?
4.3. What challenges, if any, do you face with the Listening and Speaking components?
4.4. How satisfied are you with the Reading and Writing components of the course?
A. Very satisfied
B. Satisfied
C. Neutral
4.5. What specific activities or interactions in the Reading and Writing components do you find most valuable?
4.6. What challenges, if any, do you face with the Reading and Writing components?

Section 5: Interaction and Communication
5.1. How satisfied are you with the communication and interaction between instructors and students in the blended learning environment?
   A. Very satisfied
   B. Satisfied
   C. Neutral
   D. Dissatisfied
   E. Very dissatisfied
5.2. What communication channels (e.g., email, discussion forums, virtual meetings) do you find most effective for interacting with instructors and peers?
5.3. Are there any improvements you would suggest for enhancing communication and interaction in the blended learning environment?

Section 6: Flexibility and Accessibility
6.1. How satisfied are you with the flexibility and accessibility of the blended learning format?
   A. Very satisfied
   B. Satisfied
   C. Neutral
   D. Dissatisfied
   E. Very dissatisfied
6.2. What aspects of the blended learning format contribute to or hinder your flexibility in learning?
6.3. Do you have any suggestions for improving the flexibility and accessibility of the blended learning approach?

Section 7: Overall Comments and Suggestions
7.1. Please provide any additional comments or suggestions you have regarding the blended teaching approach.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
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Jordanian Males’ Impoliteness Strategies While Commenting on the Physical Appearance of Females on Facebook

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Abstract—This study aims to examine Jordanian males’ comments on females’ physical appearance on Facebook to identify the impoliteness strategies that Jordanian males utilize in online communication. The socio-cultural factors affecting the selection of impoliteness behavior in males’ comments are also investigated. As for the corpus of the study, a total of 470 comments and replies were chosen from 32 females’ picture posts posted on two different Jordanian groups on Facebook. This study draws on Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness framework. All Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness strategies except withholding impoliteness (i.e., bald-on-record, sarcasm/mock, negative, positive) were employed. It was also found that making a clear boundary between different impoliteness strategies is not easy; more than one impoliteness strategy can be realized by the same expression. Furthermore, males were found to use other additional impoliteness strategies not mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness framework, namely, third-party implicit impoliteness, supplications, and negative interjections. The data analysis also revealed that some comments were subsumed under new categories not mentioned in previous (im)politeness frameworks: ambiguous (im)politeness and adversative (im)politeness. The use of such various strategies can be ascribed to the effect of socio-cultural and religious background on males’ behavior.

Index Terms—Jordan, Facebook, (im)politeness strategies, physical appearance, males’ comments

I. INTRODUCTION

The last two decades have witnessed increase in communication among people via different social media platforms. Such social networking sites have enabled people to communicate and express their opinions, thoughts, feelings, etc., more easily than face-to-face communication. According to Herring (2001, p. 621), “one characteristic feature, especially of many text-based CMC modes of communication (e.g., blog, emails) is that they are ‘anonymous’ (faceless, bodiless) forms of interaction”. Consequently, communication through computer-mediated contexts (CMC) gives people the chance not to obey any rules.

Nevertheless, every community has determined some social norms/rules to follow through communication to show politeness (Fraser, 1990, 2005). Therefore, people need to choose their words politely and wisely to show respect to their counterparts and build smooth and effective communication. The violation of these norms leads to the occurrence of inappropriate or impolite behavior. This violation has become common and visible on social networking sites. According to Wibowo and Kuntjara (2013), in most cases, participants in computer-mediated contexts exhibit more impolite behaviors in comparison with face-to-face communication. Impolite language is remarkably dominant in (CMC) more than traditional face-to-face interaction (Thurlow et al., 2004).

Communication through Facebook is one of the most popular computer-mediated contexts. Many users post/share their photos on groups or pages containing male and female users. Physical appearance has thus been the focus of
attention for many Facebook users in photo comment sections (Dörtkulak, 2017; Aberg et al., 2020).

Facebook is one of the primary mediums of social communication in Jordan. About 2.7 million Jordanians are Facebook users (Alarabiat & Al-Mohammad, 2015). Various negative comments have been noticed in comment sections on Jordanian females’ pictures on Facebook, particularly from males who criticize what has been posted by females. Consequently, it is essential to investigate impoliteness strategies employed in this mode of communication in the Jordanian context. Furthermore, many scholars have shown interest in investigating gendered language from (im)politeness perspective. In fact, numerous studies have investigated (im)politeness strategies in diverse cultures (see, e.g., Spencer-Oatey, 2008; Kecskes, 2015; Yu, 2019) and have confirmed the importance of detecting the factors that influence the presence of (im)politeness. However, studies investigating Jordanian males’ impoliteness when addressing females are rare. A primary motivation for the current study is the dearth of such studies.

The current study investigates the language of Jordanian males when commenting on females’ physical appearance through Facebook to consider the impoliteness strategies that males use in online communication. The study thus contributes to previous literature and seeks to present a better understanding of impoliteness strategies in a way that fits culture and society. Specifically, the study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What impoliteness strategies do Jordanian males employ when commenting on and responding to females’ physical appearance on Facebook?
2. What socio-cultural factors determine the selection of impoliteness behavior in males’ comments and responses?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the basic notions in pragmatics is politeness which is defined as “an appropriate behavior in particular situations in an attempt to achieve and maintain successful social relationships with others” (Lakoff, 1972, p. 910). Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that politeness is the best way to behave and protect the addressee’s feelings; accordingly, they advanced one of the most practical models of linguistic politeness, the kernel of which is rooted in the concept of ‘face’ which they define as a public self-image everyone needs to protect. They assert that face is the reason behind politeness. Through interaction, a face can be lost, protected, or fortified.

Brown and Levinson categorize an individual’s face into two forms. The first is the ‘positive face’, which represents an individual’s desire to be accepted and loved by others; it is “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 312). They, therefore, orient ‘positive politeness’ to protecting and saving the positive face of others. By positive politeness, we use verbal expressions that indicate solidarity with the hearer.

The second type is the ‘negative face’, which indicates that the individuals are free in their behaviors, and their actions are not imposed by others. A negative face is “the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 312). In this type, ‘negative politeness’ is oriented to expressions that show deference to the hearer. Nevertheless, ‘face’ can be threatened in most cases when the speaker’s utterances indicate a threat to the hearer/addressee. Any action, expression, or utterance (whether negative or positive) that causes potential damage to the face of the speaker is called a face-threatening act (FTA). The FTA is the act that threatens or damages the face of the speaker or the addressee by acting in opposition to the desire of the other (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The introduction of Brown and Levinson’s notion of politeness has led to the emergence of new concepts that were mainly built on their theory, most noticeably, the notion of impoliteness of Culpeper (1996). Several definitions of impoliteness can be identified in the literature. Goffman (1967), for example, defines impoliteness as an aggressive face work. Culpeper (1996, p. 355) describes impoliteness as “the use of communicative strategies designed to attack face which causes social conflict and disharmony”. Impoliteness is also perceived as a face-threatening activity in a specific situation (Bousfield & Locher, 2008).

Culpeper (1996, p. 8) argues that “instead of enhancing or supporting face, impoliteness super-strategies are a means of attacking face”. Consequently, Culpeper (1996) advanced a new model of impoliteness opposite to the politeness framework of Brown and Levinson (1987). Specifically, Culpeper (1996) proposed impoliteness strategies to attack face. These strategies are bald-on-record impoliteness, positive impoliteness, negative impoliteness, sarcasm/mock politeness, and withhold politeness.

Bald-on-record Impoliteness is the form of impoliteness in a clear and direct utterance/statement from the speaker attacking the hearer’s face. In this type, the speaker attacks the addressee’s face intentionally, and the (FTA) is carried out in a direct and clear way where the face is not minimized (Culpeper, 1996, p. 356). Using imperative commands boldly to attack the face of the parking attendant by saying “Shut up and act like a parking attendant”, for example, is an instance of this type (Culpeper et al., 2003, p. 1556).

Attacking the wants of the addressee’s negative face is considered negative impoliteness, whereas attacking the addressee’s positive face wants is regarded positive impoliteness (Culpeper, 1996, p. 356). Sarcasm or mock politeness strategy, on the other hand, means that the face-threatening-act is performed through the insincere use of politeness strategies (Culpeper, 1996). In other words, the individual can use sarcasm strategy to show his/her opposite feelings that are not included in the actual meaning of what was uttered. In this impoliteness strategy the individual speaks lies to damage someone politely.
Withhold politeness is a strategy used in a way that deviates from performing the anticipated politeness strategies. Politeness is absent in situations where it is expected to be present; the hearer does not respond to the speaker’s utterances and instead keeps silent. For example, when someone does not thank for a favor, it might be taken as deliberately withholding politeness (Culpeper, 1996).

Culpeper et al. (2003) argue that these impoliteness strategies may rarely occur as single realizations; these impoliteness strategies can be combined and appear as multiple strategies in the sense that a speaker can use more than one strategy in one sentence. For instance, it is common for someone to use a taboo word that belongs to the positive impoliteness strategy with a negative impoliteness strategy. Hence, Bousfield (2008) maintains that impoliteness could be simple or complex; simple impoliteness is a statement or an utterance with one impoliteness strategy, whereas complex impoliteness consists of more than one strategy within the same sentence.

Several studies have analyzed impoliteness strategies in the written language mode, mainly the language of a computer-mediated context like Facebook, building on Culpeper’s framework (see, e.g., Wibowo & Kuntjara, 2013; Al-Shlool, 2016; Abdul Ghani, 2018; Hameed, 2020; Pasaribu, 2021; inter alia). However, no study has focused on the impoliteness of Jordanian male Facebookers while commenting on females’ physical appearance. As such, this study is an attempt to fill this gap in the literature.

III. METHODS

This study tackles Jordanian males’ positive and negative comments on females’ physical appearance in order to identify the impoliteness strategies utilized in such a context and the socio-cultural factors that affect the selection of such impoliteness behavior.

A. Data Collection and Sampling

The data necessary for the purpose of this study was collected from comments made by Jordanian males on images of females posted on two Facebook groups: Its 2008-2012 Jordan and SanageJo. Facebook was used as the source of data as it is the commonest social media platform among Jordanians; accordingly, Facebook has formed the major source of data necessary for different Jordanian studies (see, e.g., Al-Daher et al., 2022).

These two Facebook groups contained Jordanian male and female users. Females posted their pictures in these two groups to get reactions from Facebookers, especially males. Each post included two pictures demonstrating the girl’s appearance before and after a change in look or two pictures taken in different years. Thirty two posts were selected to achieve the goals of this study (14 posts from its 2008-2012 Jordan group and 18 posts from SanageJo group). The males’ comments and responses to these 32 females’ picture posts were collected over a period of four months (from February 2021 to May 2021). The male comments were identified based on the profile name, personal picture, and personal information from the Facebook account.

Two types of comment were found in each post: (i) Single comments, where a male user directly commented to a female’s post, and (ii) chain comments, where (an)other male(s) commented on the first male’s comment to a female’s post. It is possible in this latter type for the first male commenter to reply to the other male users’ comments and they can in turn respond to his reply, hence chain comments. The total number of the collected comments and replies was 470.

B. Procedures of Data Analysis

The collected Jordanian males’ comments and responses were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Firstly, comments were classified based upon Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness strategies. The frequencies and percentages for each strategy were then calculated; the use of each strategy was tabulated and presented numerically. The socio-cultural factors affecting the selection of impoliteness behavior in males’ comments and responses were then discussed.

To validate the strategies, a sample of 100 comments was randomly selected and given to two specialists in pragmatics and discourse analysis to reanalyze them following the suggested theoretical framework. The intercoder reliability showed 89% of agreement between their analysis and ours. So, we sat with each other and reclassified the strategies till we reached an agreement.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data analysis revealed that Jordanian males made use of all Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness strategies, except the withholding impoliteness, when commenting on females’ photos. It was also found that impoliteness strategies can overlap. Impoliteness strategies not mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) model (i.e., third-party implicit impoliteness, supplications, and negative interjections) were also identified in the data 123 times (26.2%). It was also found that some comments involved ambiguous (im)politeness and adversative (im)politeness, which are both new strategies in the sense that they are not part of any previous (im)politeness framework. The percentages and numbers of the comments in which each strategy was employed are presented in Table 1 below.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Number of comments</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impoliteness strategies of Culpeper (1996)</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>62.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overlapping impoliteness strategies</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impoliteness strategies not mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) model</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguous (im)politeness</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative (im)politeness</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Impoliteness Strategies of Culpeper (1996)

As shown in Table 1, Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness strategies were the most used strategies by the male commenters with a percentage of 62.1%. Moreover, Jordanian male commenters were found to employ impoliteness strategies more than the participants of other studies (see, e.g., Abdul Ghani, 2018; Mirhosseini et al., 2017).

The high frequency of impoliteness strategies in the data can be explained as follows: The collected data is online, meaning there are no face-to-face interactions between the girls in the photos and the male commenters. Therefore, commenters did not abide by the social inhibition factors; they were in a state of disinhibition (cf. Suler, 2004). In other words, the commenters made use of this state to direct their comments more impolitely towards the girls, making a case of ‘toxic disinhibition’ (Suler, 2004) where the males are impolite toward females by using rude language and harsh criticisms or threats.

Culpeper’s model suggests five strategies of impoliteness: negative impoliteness, positive impoliteness, sarcasm impoliteness, bald-on-record impoliteness, and withholding impoliteness. Table 2 below summarizes the results related to the comments that employed Culpeper’s impoliteness strategies.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impoliteness strategy</th>
<th>Number of comments</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative impoliteness</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive impoliteness</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarcasm or mock impoliteness</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bald-on-record impoliteness</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that negative impoliteness is the most frequently used impoliteness strategy with a percentage of 54.8%; positive impoliteness was also highly-used by commenters with a percentage of 36.6%. The commenters also used sarcasm impoliteness and bald-on-record impoliteness but to a much lesser degree (7.2% and 1.4%, respectively). However, the withholding impoliteness strategy was absent in the comments of Jordanian males. Withholding impoliteness manifests when responding to others with silence. Employing this strategy thus requires face-to-face interaction. This means that it cannot exist in the type of data collected for this research, namely, written comments (cf. Abdul Ghani, 2018).

(a). Negative Impoliteness

Negative impoliteness is designed to attack the addressee’s negative face wants (Culpeper, 1996, p. 356). The data analysis revealed that negative impoliteness was the most frequent impoliteness strategy with a percentage of 54.8%. Since male users stated their opinions about girls’ appearance and personality through commenting on their photos, the negative face wants of these girls who posted their photos was attacked, hence the high frequency of this strategy.

According to Culpeper (1996), there are five negative impoliteness sub-strategies: invading other people’s places or spaces, condescending or scorning, connecting other people with negative things explicitly, scaring someone from doing or not doing something, and putting the other’s indebtedness on record. The percentages and numbers of these negative impoliteness sub-strategies are given in Table 3, and examples 1-6 are sample comments employing these sub-strategies.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative impoliteness sub-strategy</th>
<th>Number of comments</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Invading other people’s places or spaces</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condescending or scorning</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecting other people with negative things explicitly</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaring someone from doing or not doing something</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting the other’s indebtedness on record</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Invading Other People’s Places or Spaces:
As Table 3 above shows, ‘Invading other people’s places or spaces’ was the most used sub-strategy of negative impoliteness (975 = 46.9%). In this sub-strategy, commenters try to act/comment as if they have close relations with the girls. The commenter may invade the girl’s space directly or indirectly by, for example, asking her to get into a relationship with him.

The segregation between males and females in the Jordanian society may be the reason for the high frequency of this sub-strategy. Since this society is still largely conservative, the chance for face-to-face interaction between opposite genders is infrequent. Therefore, males may resort to expressing their emotions via online communication away from social pressures and expectations. Commenters seem to resort to this sub-strategy to start relationships with girls, to demonstrate to girls that they are bold, or to show off by making jokes. This sub-strategy was utilized in two ways: directly (61 instances) and indirectly (14 comments). Comment 1 below demonstrates an example of invading the addressee’s space directly where the male commenter directly attacks the girl’s negative face by asking her to get into a relationship with him:

(1) حبيبي بعرف أطبخ والله
“Love me. I swear I can cook.”
Likewise in example (2), the male commenter attacks the girl’s negative face indirectly by telling his male friend to go with him to the ‘Jaha’, one of the marriage ceremonies in Jordanian culture in which a group of men goes to the girl’s family for marriage proposal. Consequently, he indirectly invades her space and employs a negative impoliteness strategy.

(2) عشان تروح معي عالجاهه
“You need to go with me to the Jaha.”

2. Condescending or Scorning:

The ‘Condescending or scorning’ sub-strategy was the second most frequent corresponding to 30%. Commenters scorned or belittled the girl’s appearance, personality, or actions by treating her as an inanimate object, as shown in example (3):

(3) عمليات نفخ
“Filler injections”
In this example, the commenter scorns the girl’s look and action by just mentioning ‘Filler injections’ thus criticizing her beauty. He indicates that her appearance is artificial or unnatural. The commenter treats the girl as an object (i.e., a balloon) and attacks her negative face by condescending her appearance.

3. Connecting Other People With Negative Things Explicitly:

This sub-strategy constitutes 15.6% of negative impoliteness. Commenters were found to achieve this sub-strategy by stating that girls look like males, bad males, servants, cartoon or TV shows ugly characters, and so on. In the following example, the male commenter explicitly links the girl with negative aspects; he states that the girl in the photo looks like his male cousin, which is an inappropriate and rude way of criticizing the girl’s appearance:

(4) بصراحة فيكي شبه من ابن خالتي
“To be honest, you look like my male cousin.”

4. Scaring Someone From Doing or not Doing Something:

This sub-strategy constitutes 4.4% of negative impoliteness. Commenters frighten and threaten the girl in the photo by doing something terrible like burning if she does not follow his decision.

(5) امسحي صورك لاحرق عمان وانيمها قبل السحور
“Delete your photos, or I will burn Amman and make it sleep before Suhur.”
In this comment, the male commenter chose to attack the girl’s negative face by frightening her of burning Amman if she does not delete her photos; he used an exaggerated comment to scare the girl about posting her photos in the group.

5. Putting the Other’s Indebtedness on Record:

This sub-strategy was realized in only 5 comments (3.1%). Using this sub-strategy, the commenter states that he is barely enduring to see even one more picture of the girl, so she should not put more burden on him making him see other pictures of her in the group:

(6) بعدن معك انتي صورة برفؤاتك لحاليها معدنين جاهة تزرحل صورك كان
“It is not enough that your profile picture is tormenting us, and now you are also posting other pictures here!”

(b). Positive Impoliteness

This strategy is utilized to attack the addressee’s positive face wants (Culpeper, 1996). Females pay a great deal of attention to their appearance; they mostly post their pictures to receive comments from others, especially males. However, in the current study, females received more criticism of their appearance, and, consequently, the positive face wants of the girls who posted their photos were attacked. As demonstrated earlier (see Table 2), commenters highly employed positive impoliteness with a percentage of 36.6%. The data analysis revealed that commenters employed 8
different positive impoliteness sub-strategies. The percentages and numbers of these sub-strategies are presented in Table 4. After that, each sub-strategy is discussed and exemplified.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive impoliteness strategy</th>
<th>Number of comments</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Searching for disagreement</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using secret or obscure language</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using inappropriate name or identity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making others feel uncomfortable</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilizing profane words, abusive, taboos, or swears</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calling others ridicule or derogatory names</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discriminating from others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not showing kindness, sympathy, and caring</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Searching for Disagreement:
The results showed that searching for disagreement was the most used positive impoliteness sub-strategy corresponding to 43.9%. Commenters opted for this sub-strategy by tackling topics sensitive to the girls. Since females shared their photos to attract males, male commenters found themselves in a position that allows them to judge girls. It seems that Jordanian males believe that if a girl is not abiding by their cultural laws, they have the right to talk about private and even sensitive topics such as the girl’s behavior or appearance.

شكاكك تخففي بالحجاب بدك تبطلي (7)

"It looks like you are easing up on hijab. Do you want to quit?"

In the above comment, the girl posted two pictures of herself. In the first one, she wears a full-covering hijab, while in the second she wears a turban that only covers her hair. The male commenter attacks her positive face by tackling this particular sensitive topic. In the Jordanian community and all Islamic conservative communities, the topic of wearing hijab is part of a girl’s decency. The commenter disagrees with the girl’s behavior (i.e., not wearing a full-covering hijab). Therefore, it is unusual for a random person, especially a male, to comment on this topic.

2. Using Secret or Obscure Language:
This is the second most used sub-strategy of positive impoliteness with a percentage of 36.5%. In this sub-strategy, commenters offer their opinions without being very direct and form their comments in a secret language with a hidden meaning. This sub-strategy was employed in two ways. In the first way, the commenters used secret codes or jargon words addressing the girl, as shown in (8):

الله يخليلنا فقس المعده او الكيتو (8)

“All thanks go to sleeve gastrectomy or the Keto diet.”

In the second way, the male commenter used secret or obscure language only understood between friends but not by the addressee, as shown in example (9):

لونه ازرق (9)

“Its color is blue.”

Reply A:
له يا رجل اهم اشي النفس

“Oh man, the most important thing is the soul.”

This example implies that the male commenters are referring to the sexual organs of the girl using obscure language that can be understood by them only. It seems they are using ‘blue’ instead of ‘Pink’ or ‘red’, which is slang for vagina. Talking about such a sensitive topic by males is unacceptable and violates the values and ethics in Jordanian society. The commenters, therefore, used a secret code between each other to discuss such a topic. They are thus using a positive impoliteness strategy and attacking the girl’s positive face.

3. Using Inappropriate Names or Identity:
This sub-strategy was less frequent, constituting 5.8% of the positive impoliteness sub-strategies. In this sub-strategy, commenters often use comical metaphoric comments as a way of expressing their opinions. They use inappropriate, but not derogatory, epithets:

كرمني قبلي يا خالتي (10)

“You broke my heart, auntie.”

In this comment, the commenter attacks the girl’s positive face and insults her by using the inappropriate address term ‘auntie’. It is inappropriate to address a young girl in Jordanian Arabic using such an address term.

4. Making Others Feel Uncomfortable:
Only 5 examples, corresponding to 4.6%, were identified, in which the commenter makes the girl feel uncomfortable by attacking her positive face.

هانف الجروبة بيث مباشر من عنا من الأردن (11)
This group is live-streaming from Jordan.

Reply A:

يا زلمه البنات اللي هون ما نتشوفهم بالحقيقة زي عمان تاعت قناة الاردن

"Man, we do not see these girls in reality, just like those on Amman channel."

The commenters in example (11) make a type of small talk between each other about the girl in the photo without involving her in the conversation. In other words, the commenter and his friend are talking about the girl as if she were not reading their comments, which implies that she does not exist and consequently makes her feel uncomfortable. The commenter and his friend further attack the girl’s positive face by indicating she is fake. They are skeptical about the existence of the girls in the group; the commenter’s reply implies that the girls do not exist realistically. He compares the girls on the Jordanian TV channel ‘Amman’ to the girls on the group indicating that they are all unreal or fake.

It is worth noting that many commenters have written some English words in their comments using Arabic alphabet. For example, the last comment included the word ‘الجروب’ (group), which is English word. Integrating such English words into the Arabic comments can be considered as instances of code-switching (see Al-Daher, 2021) or borrowing (see Al-Dala’ien et al., 2022).

5. Utilizing Profane Words, Abusive, Taboos, or Swears:

This sub-strategy was found in only 4 instances, which correspond to 3.7% of the positive impoliteness sub-strategies. The low frequency of this sub-strategy can be attributed to the fact that it is pretty rude and unacceptable for a male to use such words in the presence of females. In the following comment, the commenter uses a taboo word to criticize the girl’s mentality:

علت خرا (12)

"Your mind is rubbish."

6. Calling Others Ridicule or Derogatory Names:

This sub-strategy was employed in only 3 comments, where commenters gave the girls derogatory names as a way of ridiculing them:

المحابيات كلمه هون (13)

“All Lesbians are here.”

In this comment, the male commenter attacks the girl’s face by stating that all the group members are lesbian. This offensive term contradicts the social and moral values in Jordanian society. The commenter is thus attacking the girl’s positive face by degradation.

7. Discriminating From Others:

In such cases, the male commenters refuse to associate themselves with the girls or share common ground with them. Only 2 examples were categorized under this sub-strategy.

التغيري التي الله جهرمنا منه (14)

“The change that may God deprive us of.”

In the above comment, the commenter discriminates himself from the girl by expressing his disapproval of the change in her appearance, meaning that he refuses to share common ground with her behavior.

8. Not Showing Kindness, Sympathy, and Caring:

Only one example of this sub-strategy was found in the data, in which the commenter did not show any sympathy with all group members, whether males or females. In this sole comment, the male commenter did not show any care about the group members stating they need to be burned:

هائط الجروب يده حرق باللي فيه الله يحبرنا (15)

“This group, with all its members, needs to be burned. May Allah save us.”

(c). Sarcasm or Mock Impoliteness

As shown in Table 2, this strategy constituted 7.2% of Culpeper’s impoliteness strategies. In this strategy, commenters use jokes or sarcasm to offend the girls; the commenters make fun of the girls’ physical appearance, outer shape, makeup or cosmetics through polite terms. Commenters mostly use a phrase that appears to be employing a politeness strategy on the surface, but it turns out that they are using this phrase insincerely.

يعودني خشوموك (16)

“Impressed by your nose.”

In this comment, the male commenter attacks the girl’s face by means of sarcasm. Although the commenter appears as if he is flirting with the girl’s nose politely, he actually makes fun of her nose. This phrase is used in Jordanian Arabic to mock someone implicitly through apparently polite terms. Thus, the phrase in this context can be interpreted as an attack on the girl’s face by employing sarcastic impoliteness. Resorting to this strategy by male commenters might be to alleviate criticism and avoid personal insults that breach ethical and social boundaries.

(d). Bald-on-Record Impoliteness
Bald-on-record impoliteness is achieved when the male commenters are direct and explicit in their comments without any mitigations. In this strategy, commenters attack the girls’ faces directly and concisely. As shown in Table 2, examples of this strategy were much less than other impoliteness strategies (only 4 examples corresponding to 1.4%). This might be because commenters try to avoid confrontations with girls in order not to find themselves held responsible in front of the law and to avoid any potential trouble with the girls’ relatives.

كنتوا بخزروا و لسا بخزروا (17)
“You used to be disgusting, and you are still disgusting.”

In this comment, the male commenter makes use of bald-on-record impoliteness and attacks the girl’s face by deliberately and directly describing her and her sisters as being disgusting. There is a clear and direct form of impoliteness in his comment.

B. Overlapping Impoliteness Strategies

It was found that impoliteness strategies sometimes overlap with each other and a clear boundary between them cannot be easily made (see Culpeper et al., 2003; Bousfield, 2008; Mirhosseini et al., 2017). This might be due to the multi-functionality of some comments and to the fact that distinguishing different functions depends on the commenter’s intention which is sometimes vague. Overlapping impoliteness strategies manifested in 12 comments in our study, which corresponds to 2.6% of the overall comments.

الفاز عامل عمالية (18)
“The filler is doing its work.”

The comment above shows that multiple functions can be realized by the same linguistic form. The impoliteness strategy employed in this comment to attack the girl’s face may indicate both positive and negative impoliteness. Specifically, it can be said that the commenter is employing a positive impoliteness strategy demonstrated by searching for disagreement with the change in the girl’s appearance. The commenter attacks the girl’s face by searching for disagreement with her appearance change, meaning that her beauty is artificial and unnatural because of cosmetic products like filler. Simultaneously, it can be said that the commenter is employing negative impoliteness since he condescends to the girl by treating her as an object that does much work to enhance her beauty. He attacks the girl’s face by condescending or scorning her appearance.

C. Impoliteness Strategies not Mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) Model

The data analysis also revealed that Jordanian male commenters employed some impoliteness strategies that are not mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) model 123 times, which corresponds to 26.2% of the overall strategies. These new strategies are shown in Table 5 and are taken up in the subsequent subsections.

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<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Number of comments</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<td>Third-party implicit impoliteness</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supplications</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative interjections</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
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(a). Third-Party Implicit Impoliteness

The data analysis revealed that males used an implicit impoliteness strategy to attack the girl’s face as a third-party accessible referent. This happens when a male commenter disputes with another male regarding the latter’s opinion about a girl. Specifically, when one male comments politely on a girl’s photo, and another male replies to the former’s positive comment with a profane utterance, the latter male is technically attacking the former’s face directly as a second party and is simultaneously addressing a condescending impolite attack to the girl’s face as a third party since she also has access to this comment on Facebook. It can thus be said that the realization of this third-party implicit impoliteness strategy is attributed to the presence of multiple opinions about the girl within the comment and the accompanying replies. This strategy is new in the sense that it is not mentioned in Culpeper’s (1996) model. It occurred 66 times in our data, which corresponds to 53.7% of the other impoliteness strategies.

بلك (19)
“I love you.”

Reply A:
ولك سليمان يحبك القرد ما انت شايف
“Oh, Suliman! To hell with you. Can’t you see?”

The example above shows that the commenter expresses his positive attitude toward the girl frankly stating that he loves her. However, another male reply to the first male’s comment by using a profane word, hence condescending the first commenter’s comment and attacking his face directly. By this reply, he is also simultaneously condescending to the girl indirectly by using a negative impoliteness strategy. Thus, he attacks both the male’s face as a second party and the girl’s face as a third party.
(b). Supplications

The data analysis revealed that male commenters employed supplications, which are realized by religious expressions (cf. Bader & Obeidat, 2020), to express impoliteness in 40.6% of the overall other new strategies. This strategy is a new impoliteness strategy in the sense that it is not mentioned in Culpeper’s model. This strategy indeed asserts the effect of religious values on Jordanian society. Commenters utilized a range of Islamic terminology to criticize girls. They utilized supplications to criticize girls, attack their face and express their disapproval of the girls’ negative behavior or look by saying, for example, ‘لا حول ولا قوة الا بالله’ (lit., There is no power or strength except by Allah), as shown below:

كما هو له في جملة (20)

“There is no power or strength except by Allah, why are you acting like that!”

The Islamic term ‘لا حول ولا قوة الا بالله’ (lit., There is no power or strength except by Allah) is used by people in Islamic culture in certain contexts to express disapproval or annoyance with something or somebody. The context of the above comment is a photo of a girl’s two sisters standing next to her. The male commenter uses this Islamic supplication to express his annoyance with the girls’ looks and to introduce the positive impoliteness sub-strategy (i.e., searching for disagreement about something with them).

(c). Negative Interjections

The analysis also revealed that males used negative interjection phrases to express their feelings and reactions in 7 comments, which corresponds to 5.7% of the other new impoliteness strategies. The following is an illustrative example:

بيك (21)

“Eww!/ yuck!”

The comment above shows that males can express their negative feelings through interjections. The Arabic form ‘بيك’ (Eww/Yuck!) is an expression of disgust and disapproval. Using such a form, the male commenter is expressing disgust about the girl’s appearance. The commenter used this interjection to convey an exaggerated feeling suggesting that seeing the girl has caused him disgust, indicating his irritation and mockery at the girl’s appearance.

D. Ambiguous (Im)Politeness

The analysis revealed that some utterances (#17 = 3.6%) were used by male commenters ambiguously in the sense that they can have dual opposite functions: They can be interpreted by the addressed girl either as polite or impolite instantaneously. It is worth indicating here that this strategy is not preceded in the sense that it has never been mentioned in any previous (im)politeness model.

Since such utterances can have polite or impolite interpretation and since they can be understood differently by girls, they can evoke various reactions. It seems that male commenters used such utterances to defend their own faces and themselves in case of being misunderstood. Put differently, male commenters chose to be vague as a kind of self-defense. Furthermore, achieving a balance between commenters’ interests and masculinity might be another reason for resorting to this strategy. Using such vague terms, male commenters can express their interest in girls while preserving their power and masculinity, hence power and masculinity play a role in the use of (im)politeness (see Mills, 2003; Mirhosseini et al., 2017). These utterances were mostly realized through explosive expressions (like bomb, bullet, sparkle) and exclamatory expressions. Such expressions may have different connotations according to the context, culture, and individual’s background knowledge. This asserts that individuals in the same community may interpret expressions differently. The judgment of what is polite or impolite varies according to the speaker and hearer’s understanding of an expression (Kienpointner, 1997; Mills, 2005; Culpeper, 2010).

ٍالطمأة (22)

“Bullet”

The above comment demonstrates that this expression has dual opposite functions. The addressee may think that the male commenter is flirting with her using positive politeness, meaning that she is beautiful (i.e., describing her as a bullet metaphorically to refer to her fitness). Conversely, other girls may consider this expression an inappropriate identity marker (i.e., harmful bullet). Thus, this expression can be thought of as positive impoliteness.

ٍباني مش بني ادم (23)

“Brother, she is not human!”

The comment above involves an exclamatory expression that can have dual opposite functions. The male commenter’s intention is ambiguous. It can be said that he is amazed by her outstanding beauty as if she were an angel; therefore, he is protecting her face using positive politeness. By contrast, this expression can have a scorning, humiliating function connoting that she is thought of as non-human (i.e., a beast); thus, he is attacking her face using negative impoliteness.

E. Adversative (Im)Politeness

Another unprecedented strategy revealed in our data is the adversative (im)politeness whereby commenters employed more than one opposing strategy in the same comment. More specifically, this strategy means that the commenters combine impoliteness with politeness strategies in the same comment; they, for example, start their comment with impoliteness then shift to politeness, or vice versa. This strategy was identified 26 times in our data,
which corresponds to 5.5% of the overall number of strategies. The following two examples illustrate the two possible realizations of the adversative (im)politeness: (i) the comment starts with impoliteness and then shifts to politeness, or (ii) the comment starts with politeness and switches to impoliteness.

Example: "I give you 9 out of 10; what is missing in you is me." This example demonstrates how the male commenter used two opposing strategies in the same comment. He started with impoliteness strategy, namely, connecting others with negative things explicitly (which is a negative impoliteness strategy), and immediately shifted to politeness strategy. The commenter explicitly connected the girl with negative things by saying that she looks like a cartoon character; then, he shifted directly to describe her as a very beautiful girl.

Example: "You look like Miss Mention in Sally’s cartoon, but, honestly, you are so beautiful." This example shows that males do not want to express their opinions of girls’ beauty directly as this might connote that they are harassing them. So, it can be said that males start their comments with negative impoliteness by making jokes, for example, to build a bridge with the girls before directly describing their beauty. Furthermore, males might want to be humorous to attract girls’ attention. Perhaps males try to infuse a touch of fun in their comments by sarcastically using impoliteness first, for instance, then they shift to showing interest in girls without putting them under pressure. Finally, the switch between politeness and impoliteness might also be used to ease social pressure; male commenters may desire to express their admiration for girls, but they may simultaneously feel pressured to conform to social norms.

V. CONCLUSION

We set out this study to investigate Jordanian males’ comments that were posted on females’ images on Facebook in order to identify the (im)politeness strategies that Jordanian males use in online communication. The data analysis drew on Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness theory. The socio-cultural factors influencing the selection of (im)politeness behavior in males’ comments and responses were also highlighted. The findings of this study revealed that Jordanian male commenters employed all Culpeper’s (1996) impoliteness strategies except the withholding impoliteness strategy. The most often used strategy was the negative impoliteness, followed by positive impoliteness. Both sarcasm impoliteness and bald-on-record impoliteness strategies were also used, but to a much lesser degree. It was also found that making a clear boundary between the different impoliteness strategies is not easy; more than one impoliteness strategy can be realized by the same expression. More importantly, the study revealed that Jordanian male commenters employed additional impoliteness strategies not found in Culpeper’s impoliteness model: third-party implicit impoliteness, supplications, and negative interjections. It was thus concluded that Culpeper’s (1996) model of impoliteness cannot be generalized to all languages and cultures.

Furthermore, the data analysis revealed that some expressions were ambiguous as they can be interpreted differently by different individuals, yielding the first unprecedented (im)politeness strategy: ambiguous (im)politeness. The results also showed that males employed more than one opposing strategy in the same comment hence producing a second unprecedented (im)politeness strategy: adversative (im)politeness.

Several factors were found to affect Jordanian males’ impoliteness. The mode of communication (i.e., online communication) and social norms are among these factors. The high frequency of impoliteness strategies in the data, for example, can be traced back to the mode of communication which allows males to express their opinions freely away from the prevailing social norms in the Jordanian community. The commenters on Facebook can be direct and can thus express their opinions without being bound by the boundaries and norms imposed by the society in face-to-face communication.

Individuals’ background knowledge as well as religion are other influential factors when it comes to (im)politeness. Evidence in support of the role of girls’ background knowledge in determining the (im)politeness comes from their different interpretations of some ambiguous expressions used by male commenters. For example, girls regarded certain linguistic expressions equally polite and impolite since such expressions can have literal and figurative meanings. More importantly, using such vague terms, male commenters can express their interest in girls while preserving their power and masculinity, hence power and masculinity are other factors affecting the use of (im)politeness (see Mills, 2003; Mirhosseini et al., 2017). Finally, the use of Islamic religious terms to criticize girls (e.g., supplications) by Jordanian commenters asserts the effect of religious values on the Jordanian society in general and on its (im)politeness behavior in particular.

The significance of this study is both theoretical and practical. Theoretically, the study provides additional reference to the field of pragmatics since it presents additional (im)politeness strategies related to the gender factor in online communication.
communication. Practically, the findings of the study identify impoliteness strategies in a way that fits Jordanian culture to avoid communication breakdowns between interactants, which in turn will lead to successful communication.

However, the data of this study included only 32 posts for females’ photos collected from two closed Jordanian Facebook groups, which makes the generalization of its finding difficult. It is thus highly recommended that this study be replicated with a larger sample to further validate its findings. It is also recommended that impoliteness strategies adopted by females toward males’ physical appearance be investigated to have a better understanding of the role of gender in using impoliteness in online context. Future studies could also tackle impoliteness strategies used in face-to-face interaction between male and female interlocutors in Jordan to compare their behavior in different communication modes.

REFERENCES


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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.

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