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An Analysis of Speech Acts in the Movie *Hive*

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate types of speech acts uttered by the main character of the movie *Hive*. It utilized both quantitative-qualitative research methods to analyze the types of illocutionary acts produced by Fahrije, the main character of the movie. The analysis was based on the taxonomy developed by Searle (1969) regarding five types of illocutionary acts, which include representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives. According to the finding, the main character performed four different categories of speech acts: representatives (37.3%), directives (35.5 %), expressives (13.6 %), commissives (13.6 %), and no declaratives (0%). The main character used representative speech acts to state what she believed to be true or false. She employed directive speech acts, such as commanding, ordering, and asking, to request actions from others. Fahrije committed herself to taking a certain course of action in the future by using commissive speech acts. Finally, she performed expressive acts to convey her feelings, including pain, sadness, pleasure, etc. The study revealed that the most prevalent acts in the movie were directives and representatives. Based on the results of the study, it can be concluded that further studies should investigate other genres of movies in order to gather more detailed information about speech acts.

Index Terms—Hive, movie, speech acts, pragmatics

I. INTRODUCTION

The main function of language is communication. Communication has a crucial role among people because through communication people express their attitudes, ideas, and opinions. In all areas of life in which people interact with one another, communication problems are inevitable (Lim & Mendoza, 2020). It is important to note that not all speakers are able to clearly convey their message, and not all listeners are able to fully understand what a speaker has to say (Virginia & Mubarak, 2021). As a result, there are instances where we do not always understand a person's purpose, which may lead to misinterpretation between the listener and the speaker. Hence, speakers should be conscious of what they are saying in order to be understood by listeners. Communication is successful when the speaker and listener are aware of what they are talking about. People not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words, but they also carry out actions through those utterances (Mulyani & Latifah, 2018). Likewise, people use language not only to convey meaning, but also to do something (Rustandi & Rizki, 2018). When speakers produce utterances, they perform so-called speech acts. Yule (1996, p. 47) defined speech acts as "actions via utterances". For example, through their communicative utterances, speakers convey promises, pledges, requests, compliments, apologies, etc. (Rakaj, 2022). Speech acts can be found not only in real-life situations, but also in movies (Dewi, 2017). Speech acts are widely found in movie dialogues (Wirastri & Ghozali, 2017). Speaking performances by actors and actresses, often scripted in TV series, offer a plethora of scenarios with various speech acts (Lim & Mendoza, 2020). Similarly, one character in a film can perform various acts while he or she conveys some utterances (Wildayanti & Kustinah, 2018). There are different genres of movies, including comedy, action, fiction, drama, etc. To date, there are various studies on speech acts. However, to the researcher's knowledge, the language used by the actors in movies has not received much interest from researchers in Kosovo. Therefore, this study tried to present a pragmatic analysis of speech acts made by the main character of the movie *Hive*. It was guided by two research questions (RQs):

RQ1: What are the classifications of speech acts uttered by the main character in *Hive*'s movie script?

RQ2: What are the most dominant speech acts frequently used by the main character in *Hive*'s movie script?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Speech Act Theory

There are numerous points of view on the field of pragmatics. Pragmatics is the study of invisible meaning, or how we recognize "what is meant even when it is not actually said or written" (Yule, 2010, p. 128). The field of pragmatics has received much interest not only from linguists and scholars, but also from philosophers, psychologists, and sociologists (Rakaj, 2022). The topics which are generally studied within the domain of pragmatics include deixis, presupposition, implicature, politeness, entailment, speech acts, etc. The theory of speech acts was first introduced by British philosopher John Austin (1962) in his book entitled *How to Do Things with Words*. According to Austin (1962), speech acts comprise locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. A locutionary act is the act of producing an utterance with specific references and meaning. An illocutionary act is the act of doing something. It is the act of making a promise, threat, etc. A perlocutionary act is the act of producing an effect on the addressees by producing an utterance (Lodge et al., 1997).

Illocutionary acts are divided into five categories: assertive, directive, commissive, expressive, and declarative. These categories were developed by Searle (in Levinson, 1983, p. 240):

- a) **Assertive** is a speech act which commits the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. This class involves *suggest, insist, state, and conclude*.
- b) **Directive** is a speech act which the speaker commands the addressee to do something. This class involves *ask, order, command, request, beg, plead, pray, entreat, and also invite, permit, and advise*.
- c) **Commissive** is a speech act which commits the speaker to some future course of action. This class involves *swear, promise, vow, and pledge*.
- d) **Expressive** act expresses a psychological state. This class involves *congratulate, apologize, welcome, deplore, thank, and condole*.
- e) **Declarative** is a speech act which effects immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions. This class involves *declare, baptize, name, dismiss, and resign*.

These five types of illocutionary acts are different in terms of the 'direction of fit' between *word* and *world*. The direction of fit could be either 'make words fit the world' - declaratives, representatives, and expressive or 'make world fit words' - directives and commissives (Cummings, 2015). Furthermore, there are some conditions that must be fulfilled for a speech act to be felicitous. Searle developed some conditions known as the "Searlean conditions," but his classification was refined by Yule. According to Yule (1996, p. 50), there are some details for each condition:

- a) **general conditions:** participants can understand the language being used and that they are not play-acting or being nonsensical,
- b) **content conditions:** the content of the utterance must be about a future event,
- c) **preparatory conditions:** there are two preparatory conditions: first, the event will not happen by itself and second, the event will have a beneficial effect,
- d) **sincerity conditions:** whether the action is performed seriously or not,
- e) **essential conditions:** whether the speaker intends the utterance to be performed by the addressee.

Another classification of speech acts is according to their structure. Speech acts can be divided into two categories: direct and indirect. Direct speech acts can be found in utterances where the structure and function of the utterance has homogeneity. On the other hand, indirect speech acts are heterogeneous when it comes to structure and function (Yule, 1996).

B. Previous Studies on Speech Acts

Speech acts have been studied in various contexts and sources. This section presents some of the main findings of studies concerning the types of speech acts found in movies. Mulyani and Latifah (2018) explored the most dominant speech acts produced by Erin Gruwell, the main character in the movie *Freedom Writers*. The researchers used Austin's (1962) theory of speech acts in their research to analyze utterances. They analyzed 100 utterances. The results showed that the five types of speech acts produced by Gruwell were representatives, directives, expressives, commissives, and declarations. The most dominant one was the representative act with 58%.

Another study was conducted by Lestari and Hartati (2017). They investigated speech acts which were expressed by Thor as the main character in the movie *Thor*. The data that was used in this research were the utterances performed by the main character. The results revealed that from the 5 classifications only 4 of them were expressed by the main character: representative, directive, commissive, and expressive acts. Representatives and directives were expressed 56 times. Commissives appeared 20 times and expressives appeared 29 times.

Another study was conducted by Rustandi and Rizki (2018). They examined the types of illocutionary acts spoken by the major and minor characters in the movie *Bridge to Terabithia*. The study utilized a qualitative approach, and the data were analyzed through content analysis. The researchers identified five kinds of illocutionary acts based on Searle's theory. The act that appeared most frequently was the directive. Dewi (2017) carried out a study to explore types of illocutionary acts in the movie *Fast and Furious 7*. The results showed that characters in the movie used assertives, directives, commissives, and expressives. In this study, declarative acts were not found in the utterances of the characters.

A recent study was conducted by Sakti (2022). The purpose of this study was to examine types of speech acts uttered by the main character in the movie *Onward*. This study employed a qualitative method with a pragmatic approach. The results revealed that all types of speech acts were found in the movie.

Another study was conducted by Sintamutiani et al. (2019). The study revealed that four types of speech acts were found in the movie *Beauty and the Beast*. The most frequent speech act used in the movie was the directive speech act. The researchers could not find any expressive acts.

Although several researchers have investigated speech acts in movies, little attention has been paid to analyzing speech acts in movies produced in Kosovo. Therefore, in order to add more knowledge on illocutionary acts, this study aimed at investigating types of speech acts in the movie *Hive*. This movie was chosen because of its popularity in Kosovo and worldwide.

C. Hive

Hive is a 2021 Kosovar drama written and directed by Blerta Basholli. It tells the story of Fahrije Hoti, a woman who lost her husband during the war in Kosovo. Played by Yllka Gashi, a well-known actress from Kosovo, the movie portrays the life of Fahrije as she tries to move on. She builds her own agricultural cooperative, but she faces challenges and disapproval of a patriarchal society that would prefer her to stay at home, take care of her children and in-laws (Armstrong, 2021), and socialize with other presumptive widows and display subservience to men (Dargis, 2021). She then takes matters into her own hands, learning to drive and supporting the women in her village to start producing 'ajvar,' a popular local relish that they sell at a local market (Rantala, 2022). The movie takes place in Krushë e Madhe. It has won three awards in the world cinema dramatic competition: *The Grand Jury Prize, Directing Award, and Audience Award* (Armitstead, 2022).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used both quantitative and qualitative research methods to analyze types of illocutionary acts. It is qualitative in nature because it investigated a movie script as a source of data. On the other hand, the quantitative aspect of the study provided some numerical data regarding the most dominant speech acts uttered by the main character. The main character's utterances were the data of the study. The main character of the movie was Fahrije. The movie was taken from a website (Terbitfilm, 2022). The procedures of the research were as follows: first, downloading the movie and the movie script; second, analyzing the movie, scene-by-scene to understand the content and the situation; third, analyzing the main character's utterances; fourth, identifying the illocutionary acts; fifth, identifying the types of illocutionary acts; sixth, classifying the illocutionary acts; and finally, dividing them based on their frequency and percentage.

IV. RESULTS

This section shows the findings collected from the movie script. Based on the results, the researcher found 110 speech acts (utterances) made by the main character of *Hive*. The researcher classified her acts based on their type and frequency. The following table describes the percentage and frequency of each type of speech act.

TABLE 1
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF SPEECH ACTS PRODUCED BY THE MAIN CHARACTER IN THE MOVIE *HIVE*

Types of speech acts	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Representatives	41	37.3 %
Directives	39	35.5 %
Commissives	15	13.6 %
Expressives	15	13.6 %
Declaratives	0	0 %
Total	110	100 %

Table 1 shows the frequency of utterances performed by Fahrije. Based on the data, Fahrije used representatives with 41 occurrences (37.3 %), directives with 39 occurrences (35.5%), expressives with 15 occurrences (13.6 %), commissives with 15 occurrences (13.6 %), and declaratives with 0 occurrences (0%). The table below summarizes some examples of speech acts uttered by the main character in the movie:

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF UTTERANCES MADE BY THE MAIN CHARACTER IN THE MOVIE

Data 1: "Edon, you shouldn't play near the river. I won't say it again" (06:02).	Directive
Data 2: "The children are growing. I need to plan for a long term" (14:22).	Representative
Data 3: "Your friend in the supermarket said he could sell it" (17:12).	Representative
Data 4: "I will talk to Emine" (18:23).	Commissive
Data 5: "She has always given us the books and she will do it again" (18:24).	Commissive
Data 6: "Thank you" (23:05).	Expressive
Data 7: "Get me the tape from the trunk" (25:05).	Directive
Data 8: "Sorry to cause you trouble" (34:23).	Expressive
Data 9: "Bahri, as soon as I sell something, I will pay you for the peppers" (34:50).	Commissive
Data 10: "Have a nice day" (35:45).	Expressive
Data 11: "He is 75, I can't force him" (41:22).	Representative
Data 12: "I will fix these and then go get Naza" (45:10).	Commissive
Data 13: "Zana, come and help" (47:34).	Directive
Data 14: "But come and have some coffee, there is nothing wrong with that" (50:48).	Directive
Data 15: "Wash your back, you might not reach" (54:52).	Directive
Data 16: "Good afternoon" (1:04:56).	Expressive
Data 17: "He knew how to work with bees" (1:05:15).	Representative
Data 18: "That's great" (1:11:45).	Expressive
Data 19: "Give me a cigarette, Naza" (1:12:22).	Directive
Data 20: "This isn't my husband" (1:17:54).	Representative

V. DISCUSSION

There were 110 different types of speech acts found in the movie *Hive* that were uttered by the character Fahrije. Regarding the first research question, the results of the present study indicated that the speaker used four types of speech acts, namely representatives, directives, expressives, and commissives. This is in line with previous studies conducted by other researchers (Dewi, 2017; Lestari & Hartati, 2017; Sintamutiani et al., 2019). However, it is not consistent with studies carried out by Mulyani and Latifah (2018) and Rustandi and Rizki (2018), which showed that the characters used all types of illocutionary acts.

Regarding the second research question, based on the character's utterances, from the 110 utterances that had been found by the researcher, representative and directive speech acts were the most common among other types of illocutionary acts. Representative speech acts occurred 41 times in the movie (37.3 %). The findings of this study are consistent with those of previous studies conducted by other researchers (Mulyani & Latifah, 2018; Rustandi & Rizki, 2018; Sintamutiani et al., 2019). The main character used representative speech acts to represent a situation or condition that can be assumed to be either a truth or falsity (Isnawati et al., 2015). From the collected data, the types of representative speech acts produced by the protagonist were affirming, informing, asserting, reporting, etc. She also used directive acts. Fahrije used directive acts 39 times (35.5 %). This speech act embodies an effort to direct the hearer towards the speaker's goal (Wildayanti & Kustinah, 2018). In this case, she used this kind of act because she wanted to express what she really wanted (Isnawati et al., 2015). Directive speech acts performed by Fahrije were commanding, inviting, ordering, suggesting, etc. Furthermore, Fitri et al. (2021) stated that directive speech acts are frequently used by speakers in daily conversations and show a strong relationship between a speaker and a listener. Moreover, the seamless flow of the film's stories depends heavily on directive speech acts. The storylines are boring and unappealing without directive speech acts (Muhartoyo & Kristani, 2013). In addition, speakers use directive speech acts to get great attention from listeners in communication (Lailiyah, 2015).

Further, it is worth mentioning that the researcher could not find the type of declaratives. This is consistent with the study conducted by Dewi (2017). Declaratives were not performed in *Hive*; it is known that this classification requires a special occasion and a special speaker (Lestari & Hartati, 2017). Therefore, Fahrije, as the main character, does not have a certain status or authority that can change the situation there (Fitriani et al., 2020).

Additionally, she used expressive and commissive acts in the movie. Commissive speech acts were used by Fahrje to commit herself to doing something in some future course of action. For example, commissive speech acts came in the form of promising, vowing, etc. Finally, she used expressive acts to express feelings of pain, sadness, pleasure, etc. The types of expressive speech acts were complimenting, thanking, greeting, closing, etc.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This study was conducted to explore and analyze the types of illocutionary acts uttered by the main character of the movie *Hive*. The data were gathered from the utterances performed by the main character. The researcher used the taxonomy developed by Searle to analyze the types of speech acts in the movie. Based on the findings and discussion, there were four types of illocutionary acts based on Searle's taxonomy found in the movie, namely representatives 41 (37.3 %), directives 39 (35.5%), expressives 15 (13.6 %), commissives 15 (13.6 %). The results of the study revealed that representative and directive speech acts were the most common utterances.

She used these types of speech acts because she wished to express something directly, and she needed to give information to the listener (Lestari & Hartati, 2017). Based on the analysis and the results, it can be concluded that the main character used four types of speech acts in the movie. Finally, the researcher hopes that this study could be used to shed some light on this context to provide a better understanding of speech acts.

A. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study include the number of movies as sources of data. This study explored only one movie produced in Kosovo. Also, this study did not provide data for other characters of the movie. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other characters.

B. Recommendations for Further Studies

This research still has some unfinished aspects, which need to be explored further. As previously mentioned, this study provided data for one movie. Further studies could observe other movie genres produced in Kosovo. In addition, other researchers could analyze and collect data from all characters in a movie. Ultimately, other researchers could investigate the representation of speech acts in English and Albanian movie scripts comparatively (de Pablos-Ortega, 2020), and use the results of this study to produce a better outcome.

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Language Learning Difficulties of Students With Dyslexia: A Case Study at a Primary School

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Abstract—Dyslexic learners have trouble learning English as a foreign language because of their difficulties in reading, focus, and sensory motor skills. Dyslexia is a specific learning disability derived from neurological deficits. This research aims at investigating the Language Learning Difficulties of learners with Dyslexia: A Case Study at a Primary School, Chennai District. This study is a descriptive research design. The subjects of the research are 19 teachers of dyslexic students at primary school, Chennai, District. The data were collected using a questionnaire and it was analyzed through the descriptive statistics technique. The result of the data analysis shows that students with dyslexia have challenges with reading, spelling, identifying sounds and letters, and decoding and recognizing words (vocabularies). In addition, the finding explored that teachers implement learners-center teaching methods and collaboratively work to enhance their students' reading skills. Furthermore, the result showed that the use of assistive technology, multi-sensory instruction, and individualized support are effective interventions for enhancing the reading ability of dyslexic students. This study helps future researchers as a benchmark for further exploration.

Index Terms—dyslexia, reading, language learning difficulty, intervention, assistive technology

I. INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition encompasses reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Some people learn languages easily, whereas others struggle. Language aptitude, motivation, learning tactics, social and cultural settings, instructional methods, learning environment, and cognitive or neurological issues might cause these challenges.

Dyslexia is a neurological disease that impairs reading skills. Dyslexic students struggle with reading, spelling, and sentence organization. The International Dyslexia Association defines dyslexia as a neurobiological learning disorder that impairs word identification, pronunciation, spelling, and decoding (Subramaniam & Nasir, 2020).

According to Shaywitz et al. (2018), 5-10% of students suffer from dyslexia. It basically impedes reading comprehension, decoding, and phonological processing. 20% of dyslexics have attention and motor ability deficiencies, and 50% have visual focusing issues. In many schools, students with dyslexia do not get early intervention and support because of teachers' lack of awareness about dyslexia. As stated by Natalie and Daly (2018) most schools don't have dyslexia policies and procedures, so kids with a learning disability are often forced to drop out because they aren't being adequately accommodated. Even though many studies have been conducted on students with reading dyslexia, very few studies investigate the challenges dyslexic students face, teachers' perspectives, and the effectiveness of the interventions at this specific primary school. Therefore, the researchers were motivated to fill this gap that previous researchers couldn't touch.

Dyslexic learners at one primary school, Chennai, District are the subject of the study. The study is significant in revealing challenges that dyslexia students face, showing the uses of assistive technology, and highlighting the effectiveness of intervention for language instructors and educators to understand these learners' unique issues. Therefore, for the study the following objectives were developed:

- To assess the major difficulties that dyslexic students with suffer while reading.
- To explore the teaching practice used in the reading classroom.
- To identify the use of assistive technology in enhancing their reading skills.
- To investigate effective interventions that develop their reading skills

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Empirical Researches

Dyslexic language learners have been studied extensively. Snowling and Hulme (2011) observed that dyslexics have trouble phonologically processing language sounds. This made word decoding and recognition challenging. Working memory, the capacity to store and manipulate information was also impaired in dyslexics. This made reading hard. Catts et al. (2012) discovered that dyslexics struggled in receptive and expressive language. Expressive and receptive language skills are different. Dyslexia affects linguistic competence in both domains, according to the study.

Berninger et al. (2008) discovered that dyslexics struggled with spelling, grammar, and punctuation. These issues hinder their writing. Shaywitz et al. (2018) examined children's dyslexia's neurological underpinnings. fMRI was used to compare brain activity in dyslexic and non-dyslexic youngsters while reading. The language-processing left hemisphere of dyslexic youngsters was less active. This study proves dyslexia is a neurological condition that impacts language processing.

Georgiou et al. (2010) conducted a study on "A meta-analysis of studies assessing dyslexics' abilities in hearing and reading." Students with dyslexia have greater trouble understanding what they read than either their age-matched normal reading peers or younger, reading-level-matched typical reading peers ($g = 1.43$ and $g = 0.64$, respectively). Listening comprehension was another area where kids with dyslexia lagged behind their typically reading-age peers ($g = 0.43$).

Landerl et al. (2017) also explored dyslexia in a large German-speaking kid population. And they identified that 7.5% of the learners suffer from dyslexia. Catts et al. (2019) also explored how dyslexia affects children's reading comprehension. Dyslexia was associated with worse reading comprehension scores. The study reveals that dyslexia impacts reading comprehension and decoding.

Moll et al. (2020) revealed that dyslexic children showed more anxiety and depression than non-dyslexic youngsters. Dyslexic students also exhibit worse self-esteem and social skills. These findings emphasize the necessity of treating dyslexic children's social and emotional needs as well as academic demands. Snowling et al. (2016) tested a dyslexia reading intervention program. In dyslexic youngsters, the intervention program improved reading accuracy, speed, and phonological awareness. Early intervention programs may assist dyslexic youngsters to improve their reading and academic skills.

Multisensory education helps dyslexic pupils. Multisensory education improves reading and phonological awareness in dyslexic individuals, according to Fawcett and Nicholson (2017). This method uses sight, sound, and touch to teach pupils.

Assistive technology works too. Assistive technology like text-to-speech and voice recognition software can help dyslexic kids with reading comprehension and writing (Peterson et al., 2019). Students may focus on comprehension and understanding using this technology.

Dyslexic students need early intervention. Torgesen et al. (2018) found that early dyslexia detection and treatments improve reading results. Early intervention can teach youngsters how to read. Dyslexic learners need a friendly and inclusive classroom. Snowling and Hulme (2019) discovered that a supportive and inclusive learning environment improves dyslexic students' reading and self-esteem. Teachers can offer extra time for reading and writing and build a welcoming classroom. As discussed by Tondeur et al. (2017), educators' pedagogical ideas reflect their assumptions about the relationship between education and student development.

III. METHODS

This research aims at investigating the Language Learning Difficulties of Students with Dyslexia: A Case Study at a Primary School, Chennai District. This study used a mixed research technique and a descriptive research design. Purposive sampling was used to recruit 19 third-grade teachers at a primary school who work with kids who have learning impairments. Data was gathered through a questionnaire. The researchers used SPSS to analyze the data. The results are displayed in tables and figures.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of the Questionnaire

Q1. Dyslexic students have L2 learning difficulties

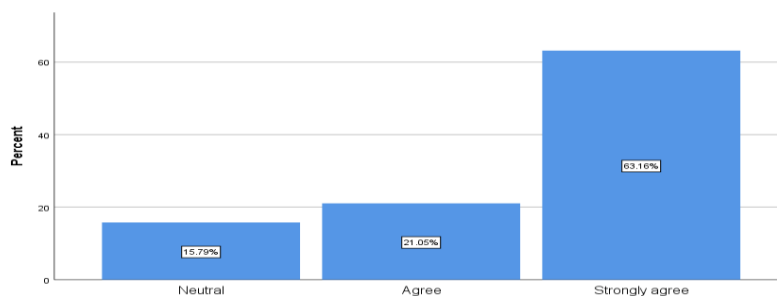


Figure 1. Respondents' Level of Agreement on Students' L2 Learning Difficulties

Figure 1 shows 63.16% and 21.05% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the dyslexia students have second learning difficulties. However, 15.79 % of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is second language learning. This finding is similar to Lin and Chen (2018) found that dyslexic students encounter difficulties with executive functions when learning a second language, impeding their language acquisition. Besides, Ganschow and Sparks (1996) discovered that dyslexic children struggle with academic writing and reading in a second language. In addition, Lin and Chen (2017) found that dyslexic students' acquisition of a second language is hindered by their working memory. Furthermore, a study by Rimmel and Ganschow (2015) found that the dyslexic individuals studying German as a second language, oral language abilities are substantially associated to reading performance.

Q2. Dyslexic students face challenges in learning vocabulary

TABLE 1
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF AGREEMENT ON STUDENTS' VOCABULARY LEARNING CHALLENGES

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Neutral	2	10.5
	Agree	6	31.6
	Strongly agree	11	57.9
	Total	19	100.0

Table1 shows 57.9% and 31.6% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the dyslexic students face challenges in learning vocabulary. However, 10.5 % of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is learning new vocabulary. This finding is supported by Bishop and Snowling (2004) that revealed students with reading dyslexia often experience difficulties in various aspects of language, grammar, vocabulary and comprehension.

Q3. Students with Dyslexia have word recognition problems

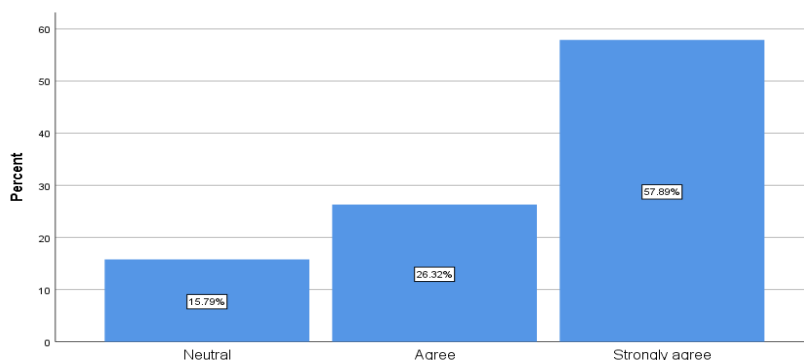


Figure 2. Respondents' Level of Agreement on Students' Word Recognition Problems

Figure 2 shows 57.89% and 26.32% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that students with dyslexia have word recognition problems. However, 15.79 % of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is decoding words. Similarly, study Fletcher et al. (2007) learners with dyslexia experience challenges with decoding and word recognition.

Q4. Students with Dyslexia have phonological processing difficulties

TABLE 2
RESPONDENTS LEVEL OF AGREEMENT ON STUDENTS' PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSING DIFFICULTIES

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Neutral	2	10.5
	Agree	4	21.1
	Strongly agree	13	68.4
	Total	19	100.0

Table 2 shows 68.4% and 21.1% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that students with dyslexia have phonological processing difficulties. However, 10.5 % of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is phonological processing difficulty. The finding aligned with Koda (2005) that observed dyslexic children struggles with phonological that affect learners reading and sound recognition. Similarly, Kuo and Anderson (2010) discovered that dyslexic learners experience difficulties in orthographic and phonological processing and it negatively affects their reading and language acquisition. Furthermore, Chung and Ho (2010) discovered that phonological awareness correlates with reading performance. Moreover, Cuertos and Suárez-Coalla (2010) discovered that dyslexic pupils across languages had phonological processing deficiencies. In addition, Yeung et al. (2013) suggested that phoneme awareness lessons

enhance dyslexic students' reading skills. Furthermore, Anis et al. (2018) found that training in phonological skills and alphabetical literacy enhances reading skills. Besides, Saiegh-Haddad (2013) found that dyslexic Arabic learners' phonological awareness is closely connected to reading success.

Q5. Dyslexic students face sound recognition challenges

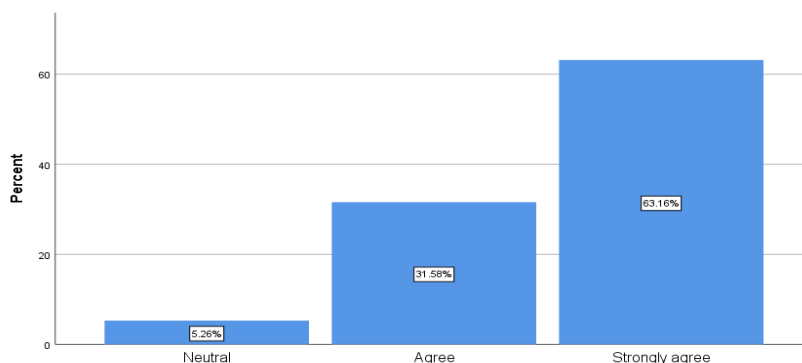


Figure 3. Respondents' Level of Agreement on Students' Sound Recognition Challenges

Figure 3 shows 63.16% and 31.58% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that dyslexic students face sound recognition challenges. However, 5.26% of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is confusion with letters' sound correspondence. This finding aligns with Vellutino et al. (2004) that found children with dyslexia often exhibit difficulties in early reading development and letter-sound correspondence.

Q6. Dyslexic students have difficulties in spelling words

TABLE 3
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF AGREEMENT ON STUDENTS' SPELLING WORDS DIFFICULTIES

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Neutral	1	5.3
	Agree	7	36.8
	Strongly agree	11	57.9
	Total	19	100.0

Table 3 shows 57.9% and 36.8% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the dyslexic students have difficulties in spelling words. However, 5.3% of the participants were not sure about the statement.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is difficulty in reading and spelling words. This finding is similar to Snowling (2000) that found dyslexia students face difficulties with imperfect word recognition and poor spelling and decoding abilities.

Q7. Students with Dyslexia have letter-sound corresponding difficulties

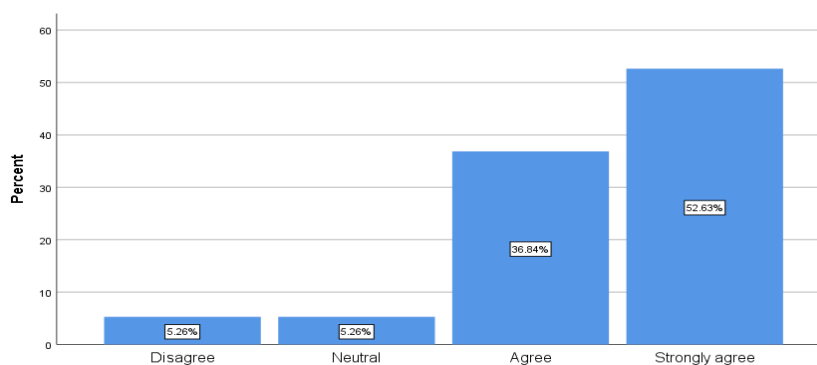


Figure 4. Respondents' Level of Agreement on Students' Letter-Sound Corresponding Difficulties

Figure 4 shows 52.63% and 36.84% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the Students with Dyslexia have letter-sound corresponding difficulties. However, 15.79 % of the respondents remained neutral, and 5.26% of the respondents disagreed that students with dyslexia have letter-sound corresponding difficulties.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is difficulty with sound correspondence. This result aligns with Sparks and Ganschow (1993) that found dyslexic students struggle with foreign language sound structure.

Q8. Students with Dyslexia have difficulties understanding the main idea

TABLE 4
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF AGREEMENT ON STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES IN UNDERSTANDING THE MAIN IDEA

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Agree	10	52.6
	Strongly agree	9	47.4
	Total	19	100.0

Table 4 shows 47.4% and 52.6% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that students with dyslexia have difficulties in understanding the main idea.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major challenge of dyslexic students is difficulty finding the main idea in the text. A similar result was found by Elbeheri and Everatt (2007) that observed dyslexic learners suffer from foreign language reading comprehension, especially in understanding the main idea.

Q9. How often do you identify students with dyslexia in early classrooms?

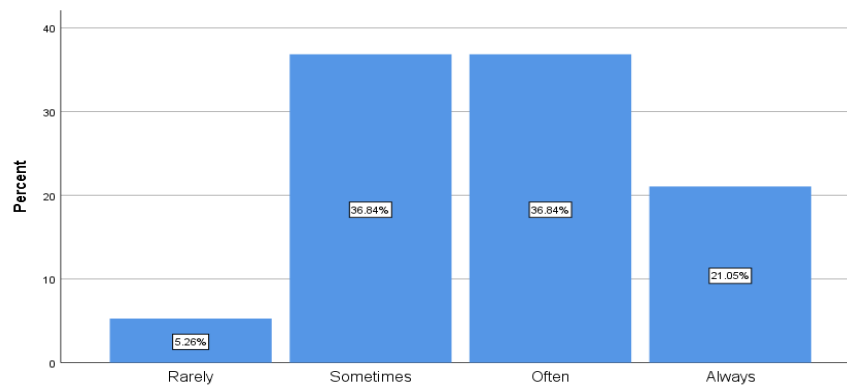


Figure 5. Respondents' Level of Frequency of Identifying Students With Dyslexia

Figure 5 reveals that 21.05% of the participants stated that they always identify students with dyslexia in early class. 34.84% of the participants stated that they often identify students with dyslexia in early class. Similarly, 34.84% of the participants stated that they sometimes identify students with dyslexia in early class. Only 5.26% of the participants stated that they rarely identify students with dyslexia in early class.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major of the teachers can identify learners with dyslexia problems. According to Kundi and Alharbi (2022), It is necessary to examine how foreign language students viewed English by determining their needs, gaps, and desires. An efficient classroom might evaluate early dyslexia identification to help pupils.

Q10. How often do you use the student-centered teaching method?

TABLE 5
RESPONDENTS LEVEL OF FREQUENCY OF USING STUDENT-CENTERED TEACHING METHOD

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Rarely	2	10.5
	Sometimes	9	47.4
	Often	5	26.3
	Always	3	15.8
	Total	19	100.0

Table 5 reveals that 15.8% of the participants believed that they always employ learner-centered teaching method. 26.3% of the participants believed that they often employ learner-centered teaching methods. However, 47.4% of the participants believed that they sometimes employ learner-centered teaching methods. Only 10.5% of the participants stated that they rarely employ learner-centered teaching methods.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major of the teachers uses student-centered teaching method. According to Mahoney (2010), effective teaching method improves dyslexic pupils' writing and reading skills.

Q11. How often do you employ multi-sensory instruction to improve students' reading skills?

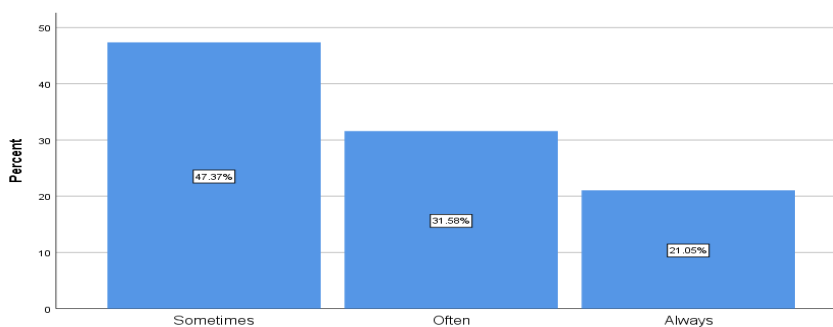


Figure 6. Respondents' Level of Frequency of Employing Multi-Sensory Instruction

Figure 6 reveals that 21.05% of the participants stated that they always employ multi-sensory instruction to improve students' reading skills. 31.58% of the participants stated that they often employ multi-sensory instruction to improve students' reading skills. However, 47.37% of the participants stated that they sometimes employ multi-sensory instruction to improve students' reading skills.

From this result, it can be concluded that the majority of the teachers employ a multisensory instruction approach. According to Fawcett and Nicholson (2017), multisensory education improves dyslexic students' reading and phonological awareness.

Q12. How often do you use assistive technology to help students learn reading?

TABLE 6
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF FREQUENCY OF USING ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Sometimes	2	10.5
	Often	11	57.9
	Always	6	31.6
	Total	19	100.0

Table 6 depicts that 31.6% of the participants indicated that they always employ assistive technology to help students learn reading. 57.9% of the respondents indicated that they often employ assistive technology to help students learn reading. Whereas, 10.5% of the respondents stated that they sometimes employ assistive technology to help students learn reading.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major of teachers use assistive technology to help students improve their reading skills. According to Fernandez-Lopez et al. (2013), employing of electronic devices and multimedia materials increased learners' interest in learning and attention. Similarly, Lee and Huang (2019) revealed the importance of computer-assisted instruction help dyslexic learners English language learning. Furthermore, Pirani and Sasikumar (2015) found students with learning difficulties (such as dyslexia) benefit from an adapted classroom equipped with various aids.

Q13. How often do you implement sustainable intervention to support students learning?

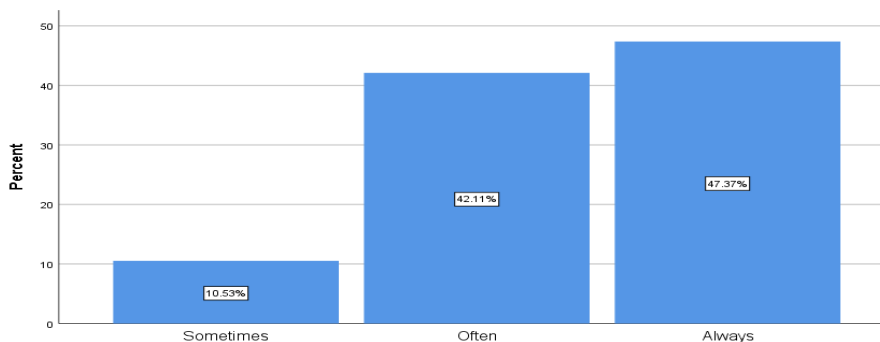


Figure 7. Respondents' Level of Frequency of Implementing Sustainable Intervention

Figure 7 reveals that 47.37% of the participants stated that they always apply the sustainable intervention to support students learning. 42.11% of the participants stated that they often apply the sustainable intervention to support students learning, but 10.53% of the participants stated that they sometimes apply sustainable intervention to support students learning.

From this result, it can be concluded that the major of teachers implements interventions to support their students' learning. According to Smith (2018), intervention employs the word in passages via the use of particular instructional activities including word tracing, use the word in passages, and visual modulation of vocabulary is very helpful in enhancing students' reading skills.

Q14. How often do you collaboratively work with others to enhance students' reading skills?

TABLE 7
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF FREQUENCY OF COLLABORATIVELY WORKING WITH OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Sometimes	1	5.3
	Often	10	52.6
	Always	8	42.1
	Total	19	100.0

Table 5 reveals that 42.1% of the participants indicated that they always collaboratively work with others to enhance students' reading skills. In addition, 34.84% of the participants indicated that they often collaboratively work with others to enhance students' reading skills. Only 5.3% of the participants indicated that they sometimes collaboratively work with others to enhance learners' reading skills.

From this result, it can be concluded that the majority of the teachers often collaboratively works with other concerned bodies to help their students. According to Fey et al. (2000) states that children with learning difficulties benefit greatly from collaboration because it fosters a feeling of belonging. There must be communication and cooperation between classroom teachers, speech therapists, and parents to help dyslexic students.

V. CONCLUSION

Reading in English is far more demanding and challenging than reading in one's native language. Learning to read opens up a world of knowledge beyond only the spoken word. Dyslexia is a language learning difficulty that influences reading abilities. Dyslexic students face challenges with reading, spelling, identifying sounds and letters, and decoding and recognizing words (vocabularies).

Dyslexic students need individualized and targeted instruction that is consistent with long-term intervention and support. Improving pupils' reading abilities is dependent on having access to and making use of effective educational systems for dyslexic kids and a multimodal approach. Students may now learn not just from their professors and tutors, but also from one another and from outside experts via the use of cooperative and assistive technologies. The use of multisensory training, assistive technology, and a supportive and inclusive learning environment have been found to be effective ways to improve the reading skills of dyslexic learners reading skills and academic achievement.

This study is limited to one primary school since it takes much time to involve many schools in the study. Therefore, researchers suggest future researchers can do a similar study on a similar topic in incorporating different schools.

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Utilization of Computer-Assisted Translation Tools Among Arab Translators: Scope, Challenges, and Solutions

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Abstract—The study aims at investigating the utilization of computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools by Arab translators with a particular focus on the challenges that they face. It also suggests potential solutions that can help Arab translators increase their translation efficiency and productivity. The author followed the quantitative and qualitative methods with an analytical descriptive approach in conducting the current study. To achieve the objectives of the study, a questionnaire consisting of 67 items was designed to identify the utilization of CAT tools, the scope of their use, and the challenges that Arab translators encounter while using CAT tools. The questionnaire was given to 104 Arab translators from various Arab countries. An interview was also used to achieve the objectives of this study; it aimed to collect data about finding solutions to the challenges that Arab translators face while using CAT tools from the perspective of 20 translators. Additionally, the SPSS program and other statistical tests were used for data analysis purposes. The findings showed that only a few types of CAT tools were used by Arab translators and even those they used were not utilized very much. The results indicated that only 19.03% of the total number of participants used CAT tools. That means Arab translators confronted many challenges while using CAT tools from the viewpoints of the participants. These challenges were related to translators, CAT tools, translation memory (TM), and technical issues. Additionally, a list of solutions was proposed to overcome the challenges that Arab translators face while using CAT tools from the perspectives of those interviewed.

Index Terms—computer-assisted translation tools, translators, challenges, scope, translation memory

I. INTRODUCTION

At present, due to the rapid advancements of technology in various fields, the volume of translation is rapidly increasing. As a result, fast-growing markets demand quick translation which places enormous pressure on translators and translation services as well. Consequently, since translators are not always able to cope with the sheer volume of materials, this has created an urgent need to use translation technology (TT) as an appropriate solution for increasing the amount of translation being performed. Recently, there has been a remarkable advancement in TT which has drastically improved translation speed and efficiency while also bringing significant changes to the practice and industry of translation. Therefore, in the digital age, new skills such as the use of computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools, a quick adeptness in using computers, and a good command of the website are required for a good translator. Alotaibi (2020) considers CAT tools to be very helpful tools that improve productivity while also producing high-quality translation services. CAT tools are highly useful for translators, professors, students, businesses, and others. In contrast, their use of these tools comes with challenges that many translators (and especially Arab translators) experience. For this reason, the current study aims to shed light on the challenges that Arab translators may face while using CAT tools with a particular focus on the most commonly used tools. It also suggests possible solutions that can help Arab translators overcome the challenges of using CAT tools.

Questions and Hypotheses

The study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are the CAT tools being utilized by Arab translators?
2. To which extent do Arab translators use CAT tools?
3. What are the scopes that Arab translators almost utilize CAT tools within?
4. What are the challenges that Arab translators face while utilizing CAT tools?
5. What are the potential solutions that can help Arab translators in increasing translation efficiency and productivity regarding the utilization of CAT tools?
6. Are there any statistically significant differences in the demographic information of Arab translators while utilizing CAT tools?
7. Are there any statistically significant differences in the demographic information of Arab translators in respect of challenges while using CAT tools?

The last two questions will be answered by testing the following hypotheses:

- H01.** Null hypothesis: there are no statistical significance differences in the demographic information of Arab translators while using CAT tools.
- H02.** Null hypothesis: there are no statistical significance differences in the demographic information of Arab translators in respect of challenges that Arab translators may face while using CAT tools.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents the literature review which is divided into two parts. The first part presents CAT tools as the main topic of the study. In the second part, the previous studies will be discussed with a comparison to this study.

Computer-Assisted Translation Tools

Technology is an amazing and successful component that helps move the translation circle forward. Gil and Pym (2006) considered technology to be what helps extend human capacities. Nowadays, using technology in the translation field is not only important but a must. As a result, the computer is a valuable technological device that aids in translation and can provide much help in facilitating the tasks of translators when it comes to achieving effective and efficient translation. Bowker (2002) has defined translation technology as various types of technologies used in human translation, computer translation, and CAT tools including word processors and other electronic resources and software used in translating such as corpus-analysis tools and terminology management systems. Similarly, Seljan (2011) has defined translation technologies as CAT tools and machine translation (MT). However, Quah (2006) divided TT into two divisions of the translation studies field: automatic translation tools and computer-aided translation tools. The researcher focused on CAT tools as the main topic of the current study.

The abbreviation "CAT" stands for "computer-assisted translation", and that's exactly what the computer does – it assists the translator rather than performing all the translation on its own. What differentiates CAT tools from MT is that CAT helps human translators complete their work more efficiently and handle their tasks more effectively. Additionally, translation memory (TM) is usually included in CAT resources. Wallis (2006) and Trujillo (2000) defined TM as a type of computer-assisted translation tool that stores previously translated texts alongside their corresponding source texts (ST) and enables translators to re-use these texts (or even sections of them) in new translations. Term bases are also an important component of translation software, as they enable translators to create their bilingual glossaries in their subject areas.

According to PoliLingua (2018), these are the most popular and well-known CAT tools:

1. **Trados:** Trados is translation and documentation software that includes TM. Almutawa (2012) confirmed that TRADOS is also compatible with a wide range of programs used to create content including Microsoft Office, Open Office, RTF, Tab Delimited, HTML, and XML. Moreover, Bowker and Barlow (2008) claimed that Trados may be the most powerful player in the CAT tool business. It is a full translation software solution that allows us to translate, handle terminology, edit, and run tests.
2. **MemoQ:** Perhaps a little less well-known than Trados, MemoQ is a full-size CAT tool with many of the same features as other programs but also includes some extras like a translation preview window which allows us to see the segment we are translating in detail. This tool is required for translation agencies that also use other translation tools because MemoQ accepts Trados and other formats as well.
3. **Wordfast:** It includes both terminology and TM management. Moreover, it also includes more project management features and supports additional file formats such as Java, Quark, Xliff, SDL Trados and editable PDFs.
4. **Across:** Across includes TM, terminology management, and project management, among other features. The basic edition is only available free to use online, while the premium edition can be used standalone and costs a monthly fee.

There are some free CAT tools as follows:

1. **OmegaT:** This is the most popular tool currently available for free. It also can read and write Trados data.
2. **Matecat:** Matecat is another free online CAT tool with several useful features. It focuses on providing users with access to MT databases to increase their productivity.
3. **Smartcat:** A CAT tool that also acts as a networking platform for translators and clients, Smartcat also manages compensation and offers ranking systems. However, it is important to note that it charges a commission on top of the freelancers' prices.

Previous Studies

This part contains a brief review of the major studies related to computer-assisted translation. According to the researcher's knowledge, the present study may be considered one of the newest studies to be conducted on the subject, particularly in Yemen. That is because most studies have not shed light on the challenges of using CAT tools, the reasons behind these challenges, the tools themselves, and the solutions to overcoming these challenges. The present study, however, presents the challenges, tools, and solutions that translators could happen upon while using CAT tools and the percentage of use for each kind while also reaping the benefits of previous studies. Some related studies will be summarized in chronological order from latest to oldest as follows:

Abdi (2022) conducted a study to determine student familiarity with computer-assisted translation tools. The study aimed to investigate the familiarity of MA translation students with CAT tools used to support CAT-related activities

included in the translator's workstation. To do so, a questionnaire was prepared for data collection purposes. The result indicated that students were mostly familiar with general-purpose applications such as word processing software and machine translations and not very familiar with specific-purpose software such as web publishing software and accounting packages. They were also in full agreement with the effectiveness of CAT tools in their productivity and efficiency.

Mohammed (2021) devoted his study to investigating the opportunities and challenges of CAT tools in translating cultural terms from English into Arabic and vice versa. It discussed the reasons for the CAT tool deficiency in translating Arabic cultural terms. A questionnaire and a test were used for collecting data. The results indicated that CAT tools suffer from a deficiency in translating Arabic cultural terms into English and vice versa. This was due to the diversity in the cultures of English and Arabic. The study explored the opportunities and challenges of CAT in translating cultural terms from Arabic into English and vice versa. Translating cultural terms poses many difficulties with CAT tools and the study shed light on the need for and the value of analyzing translating cultural terms as done by computer software without the assistance of specialists to underline the main threats and risks generated by this type of translation. The study suggested some pedagogical implications for universities and institutes to teach CAT tools in Yemen.

Alotaibi (2020) conducted a study titled *Computer-Assisted Translation Tools: An Evaluation of Their Usability among Arab Translators*. The study aimed to evaluate the usability of the CAT tool from the translators' perspective. The software usability measurement inventory (SUMI) survey was used to evaluate the system based on its efficiency, affect, usefulness, control, and learnability attributes. The population was 42 participants. The results showed that the global usability of these tools is above average. Additionally, the results for all usability subscales were also above average wherein the highest scores were obtained for effect and efficiency and the lowest scores were attributed to helpfulness and learnability. Thus, the study concluded that CAT tool developers need to work further on the enhancement of the tool's helpfulness and learnability to improve the translator's experience and satisfaction levels. Further improvements are still required to increase Arabic language support to meet the needs of Arab translators.

On the other hand, Mahdy et al. (2020) investigated the attitudes of professional translators and translation students toward CAT tools in Yemen. A questionnaire was composed of 27 statements distributed to collect data related to Yemeni translators' attitudes. The results showed that translators and translation students showed a positive attitude. Unexpectedly, the profiles of the participants do not play any role in their attitudes toward CAT tools.

Technology has a significant role in every human aspect including translation. Computer-assisted translation tools are developed to help translators complete their job and increase their productivity. However, such tools are not only helpful for translators but also beneficial for students as well. Alfariy and Reswari (2019) conducted a study titled *Applied English Students' Perceptions on Computer Assisted Translation (CAT) Tools*. Their study was based on the premise that students usually use all available technologies to complete their assignments since they spend most of their time online on their computers and phones. A questionnaire and interview were used for collecting data. The study showed that the students realize the advantages of the CAT Tools, but they never rely on those tools. They still check the quality of the translations based on their knowledge. Finally, the study recommends introducing and integrating technology into translation curricula to maximize translation skills - a recommendation that can be also found as one of the outcomes of the current study.

Alotaibi (2014) conducted a study titled *Teaching CAT to Translation Students: An Examination of Their Expectations and Attitudes*. The study was conducted among 103 female translation students enrolled at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The paper included pre- and post-questionnaires along with semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. The study aimed to assess the students' degree of knowledge regarding CAT tools and their attitudes toward utilizing such tools. The findings showed a relationship between the increase in the knowledge of CAT tools by the end of the course and the change in the attitudes of students towards discipline. In the end, the attitudes of students became much less biased and, in general, positive.

Moreover, Mikuličková (2010) conducted a study titled *Computer-Assisted Technology-Comparison of Programs*. The study compared different translation technology, especially CAT programs. It consisted of two parts: theoretical and practical. In the theoretical part, the study focused on computer-assisted translation itself as the core of the study. However, the second part focused on a comparison of CAT tools from several points of view such as price, support of file formats, user interfaces, and so on.

Reviewing the previous studies was very important. These studies provided the current research with theoretical background and practical guidelines to conduct the study and develop the study tools. It also assisted in utilizing statistical methods to analyze the data and discuss the results. Some studies confirmed that there has been an increase in interest in machine translation and CAT tools in the Arab world, but is still wishful thinking at this time. Thus, they recommend introducing and integrating technology into translation curricula to maximize their translation skill. The previous studies were very beneficial, but there is a gap in the literature which should be filled by the current research related to the utilization of CAT tools, the level of use, their scope, the challenges, and the role of such tools in increasing the efficiency and proficiency of Arab translators.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study followed the quantitative and qualitative methods and an analytical descriptive approach in collecting data. The population was Arab translators. The sample was taken from seven Arab countries: Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Palestine, Syria, Iraq, Libya, and Yemen. The respondents were either reached by phone or met in person, whilst the other respondents were simply contacted via Facebook or WhatsApp because the researcher has communicated with them through several online events, sessions, or webinars. To collect data and achieve the objectives of the study a questionnaire was given to 104 Arab translators to identify the CAT tools they use, the extent to which they use them, and the challenges that using such tools can bring from the perspectives of the participants. The questionnaire included two sections on CAT tools and their challenges consisting of 67 items. Interviews were also used to collect data about the solutions used to overcome the challenges that Arab translators face while using such tools from the perspectives of 20 translators.

IV. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Some important information related to the statistical analysis of the data collocation instruments will be presented below to help in answering questions and testing the hypotheses:

Normality Assessment

Two types of test should be administered to identify the type of distribution of data before adopting any statistical test for the data analysis (i.e., Skewness, Shapiro-Wilk, and Kolmogorov). Consequently, if the distribution seems normal, it is recommended to apply parametric tests such as a t-test or ANOVA; however, if the data seem abnormally distributed, it is recommended to apply non-parametric tests such as a Mann-Whitney test, a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, a chi-square test, and so on.

TABLE 1
THE NORMALITY ASSESSMENT OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Factors	Skewness	Kurtosis
Challenges related to translators themselves	0.378	0.128
Challenges Related to CAT Tools	0.464	0.187
Challenges Related to Translation Memory	0.311	0.353
Challenges related to technical issues	-0.363	-0.697
The Overall of challenges	0.626	-0.138
Using CAT tools	2.288	6.561

As shown in the above table, Kurtosis and skewness were measured, and it was found that the challenges have a Kurtosis between -1 and +1 which indicates that they are normally distributed. Therefore, parametric tests will be used. On the other hand, it was found that the use of CAT tools has a Kurtosis greater than 1 which indicates that it is abnormally distributed since this part of the questionnaire is ordinarily related to the use of CAT tools. Therefore, it is recommended to apply non-parametric tests such as a Mann-Whitney test, a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, a chi-square test, and so on.

Validity and Reliability

The following table shows the correlation and the validation of the data collection instrument.

TABLE 2
CORRELATION AND VALIDATION

Factors	Correlations with Overall Challenges	P. Value
Challenges related to translators themselves	.710**	.000
Challenges Related to CAT Tools	.782**	.000
Challenges Related to Translation Memory	.531**	.000
Challenges related to technical issues	.751**	.000

The table above shows that the dimensions are statistically correlated with the overall challenges ($R > 0.500$, $p < 0.001$) indicating that there is a convergent validity and that items measure what they are supposed to measure. Furthermore, the questionnaire was given to five experts in translation and linguistics to check the validation of instrument items concerning the study's objectives. After the validation, the questionnaire was distributed to 25 translators to carry out a pilot study to ensure reliability. The pilot study was conducted in March 2023. Reliability analysis was also carried out using Cronbach's Alpha scale to test the internal consistency of the questionnaire items. Results showed that the study dimensions are reliable and internally consistent among the items of the questionnaire ($\text{Alpha} > 0.700$). This confirms interrelatedness among items.

Demographic Data

TABLE 3
GENDER OF PARTICIPANTS

	Frequency	Percent
Male	58	55.8
Female	46	44.2
Total	104	100.0

Table 3 shows that 55.8% of the respondents are male while 44.2% are female.

TABLE 4
TRANSLATION EXPERIENCE OF PARTICIPANTS

	Frequency	Percent
Nil	8	7.7
5 years or less	21	20.2
6-10 years	37	35.6
11-15 years	18	17.3
Above 15 years	20	19.2
Total	104	100.0

As shown in Table 4, 7.7% of participants do not have any experience in translation, 20.2% of the respondents have 5 years of experience or less, 35.6 % have 6-10 years of experience, 17.3% have 11-15 years of experience, and 19.2% have more than 15 years of experience.

TABLE 5
QUALIFICATION OF PARTICIPANTS

	Frequency	Percent
Courses	10	9.6
Diploma	12	11.5
B. A	43	41.3
M.A	24	23.1
Ph.D.	15	14.4
Total	104	100.0

As shown in Table 5, 9.6% of participants have taken some courses in translation, 11.5% have a diploma, 41.3% have a B.A., 23.1% have an M.A., and 14.4% have a Ph.D.

TABLE 6
NATIONALITY OF PARTICIPANTS

Country	Frequency	Percent
Egypt	20	19.2
Iraq	15	14.4
Libya	5	4.8
Palestine	10	9.6
Saudi Arabia	15	14.4
Syria	10	9.6
Yemen	29	27.9
Total	104	100.0

Descriptive Analysis

A close-ended questionnaire was given to the participants related to the study's questions which are about the utilization of CAT tools, the extent of use, the scope of their use, and the challenges that Arab translators might face when using such tools. The data collected through the questionnaire were coded and entered SPSS program for the sake of statistical analysis based on a 5 Point-Likert Scale, as follows:

TABLE 7
MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

Challenges and Degree of Use CAT tools	Strongly Agree (Never)	Agree (Rarely)	Undecided (Sometimes)	Disagree (Often)	Strongly Disagree (Always)
Mean Range	Less than 1.80	1.80-2.59	2.60-3.39	3.40-4.19	4.20-5
Percentage Range	0% - 36%	37%-51%	52%-67%	68%-83%	84%-100%

The values shown in Table 7 help in quantifying and reading the analysis of the data and interpreting the achieved results as the following:

Results and Discussion Related to the First and Second Questions

1. What could be the computer-assisted translation tools that are used by Arab translators?
2. To which extent do Arab translators use CAT tools?

The following table shows the result related to the participants' utilization of CAT tools.

TABLE 8
THE PARTICIPANTS' UTILIZATION OF CAT TOOLS

	Frequency						Total		
	Never		Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	F	%	Result
	No	Yes							
F	%					F	%	Result	
Trados	37	35.6%	19.2%	21.2%	12.5%	11.5%	67	64.4%	1
MemoQ	52	50.0%	25.0%	12.5%	11.5%	1.0%	52	50.0%	2
Wordfast	57	54.8%	29.8%	9.6%	4.8%	1.0%	47	45.2%	3
Across	90	86.5	10.6	2.9	0.0	0.0	14	13.5%	8
Memsources	71	68.3	15.4	11.5	4.8	0.0	33	31.7	4
OmegaT	82	78.8	17.3	2.9	1.0	0.0	22	21.2	6
Smart CAT	82	78.8	14.4	5.8	1.0	0.0	22	21.2	6
MateCat	85	81.7	9.6	5.8	1.9	1.0	19	18.3	7
My Memory	78	75.0	8.7	10.6	1.0	4.8	26	25.0	5
SDL XV	99	95.2	2.9	1.9	0.0	0.0	5	4.8	15
QT Linguist	96	92.3	3.8	3.8	0.0	0.0	8	7.7	11
Passolo	95	91.3	4.8	3.8	0.0	0.0	9	8.7	10
Phoenix	94	90.4	4.8	4.8	0.0	0.0	10	9.6	9
TransCafe	96	92.3	4.8	2.9	0.0	0.0	8	7.7	11
Déjà Vu	97	93.3	2.9	3.8	0.0	0.0	7	6.7	12
Star Transit	97	93.3	3.8	2.9	0.0	0.0	7	6.7	12
Fluency Now	97	93.3	2.9	3.8	0.0	0.0	7	6.7	12
Zanata	98	94.2	2.9	2.9	0.0	0.0	6	5.8	14
MetaTexis	97	93.3	3.8	2.9	0.0	0.0	7	6.7	13
Total	1600	80.97%					376	19.03%	

Table 8 shows that only about 19.03% of the participants were able to use CAT tools whereas 80.97% never use any of the above tools. That means the utilization of CAT tools was somewhat poor as reflected by the frequency and percentage. That means all CAT tools were only used by 19.03% of the participants. Therefore, the use of CAT tools is still low and rare among Arab translators. The findings confirmed that not only is using such tools difficult for most of the participants, but they are also hard to acquire. The results above concluded that there are a few reasons that may stand behind the low use of such tools. Previous studies like Mohammed (2021) confirmed that technical and educational factors may play a negative role in using CAT tools.

For more clarification, the following figure reflects the level of use of each CAT tool.

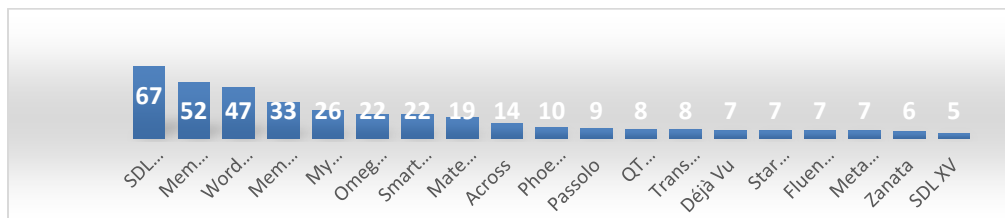


Figure 1. The Level of Utilization of Each CAT Tool

For more details and to identify to which extent CAT tools were used by Arab translators, the researcher summarized the results of using such tools in respect of each country as the following:

TABLE 9
THE PARTICIPANTS' USE OF CAT TOOLS IN RESPECT TO EACH COUNTRY

	Frequency				Result
	No		Yes		
	F	%	F	%	
Yemen	521	94.56	30	5.44%	7
Syria	156	82.00%	34	18.00%	4
Saudi Arabia	210	73.68%	75	26.32%	3
Palestine	127	67.00	63	33. %	2
Libya	79	83.15	16	16.85	5
Iraq	253	88.77	32	11.23	6
Egypt	253	66.58	127	33.42	1
Total	1600	80.97%	376	19.03%	

It is clear from the above table that the level of use of CAT tools by Arab translators is generally low. However, the level of use of translation tools is different from one county to another. The above findings show that Egypt, Palestine, and Saudi Arabia were the countries in which CAT tools were used more than other countries. Consequently, the challenges of using CAT tools in these countries are less than in others. On the other hand, Yemen, Iraq, Libya, and Syria were the countries in which CAT tools were the least used. That means the unstable situation and economic factors in these countries may affect all aspects of human life in general, including the field of translation.

Results and Discussion Related to the Third Question

3. What are the fields in that Arab translators almost use CAT tools within?

Alabbasi (2015) mentioned several fields of translation such as legal, business, religious, literary, media, and specialized and technical scopes. Consequently, the current study tries to shed light on this division by talking about the scope of translation that CAT tools almost use. The same questionnaire, including a part related to the scope of translation tools, was given to participants to answer the above question as shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10
FIELDS OF USING CAT TOOLS

Scope/field	No		Yes				Total F	%	Result
	Never		Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always			
	F	%	%	%	%	%			
Legal field	26	25.0%	6.7%	32.7%	17.3%	18.3%	78	75%	1
Religious	39	37.5%	15.4%	26.9%	17.3%	2.9%	65	62.5%	6
Political	35	33.7%	14.4%	29.8%	14.4%	7.7%	69	66.3%	4
Military	47	45.2%	15.4%	24.0%	12.5%	2.9%	57	54.8%	8
Media	36	34.6%	13.5%	26.0%	22.1%	3.8%	68	65.4%	5
Technical	33	31.7%	10.6%	27.9%	15.4%	14.4%	71	68.3%	3
Literary	50	48.1%	17.3%	23.1%	8.7%	2.9%	54	51.9	9
Economic	35	33.7%	18.3%	27.9%	17.3%	2.9%	69	66.3%	4
Medical	33	31.7%	9.6%	29.8%	20.2%	8.7%	71	68.3%	3
Scientific	32	30.8%	10.6%	26.9%	17.3%	14.4%	72	69.2%	2
commercial	42	40.4%	13.5%	21.2%	18.3%	6.7%	62	59.6%	7
Administrative	53	51.0%	19.2%	20.2%	5.8%	3.8%	51	49.0%	10

The findings in Table 10 show that the legal field was the field in which CAT tools were used most often (frequency =78, Percentage: 75%); however, CAT tools were used less frequently in other fields. The legal translation scope as commonly used can be defined as a part of technical translation which deals with legal texts such as contracts, agreements, laws, and regulations. The translator is required to have a deep knowledge of the SL and TL legal systems or at least they should consult a legal specialist to proofread and review their translation (Alabbasi, 2012, p. 12). Although the legal field is sensitive to translators, it can be translated by CAT tools easily due to the availability of TMs. The above findings show that legal, scientific, technical and medical fields were the fields in which CAT tools were mostly used. Therefore, transition tools are helpful for those who are interested in legal, scientific, technical, and medical translation. Conversely, the administrative, literary, and military fields were the least used fields for CAT tools.

Results and Discussion Related to the Fourth Question

4. What are the challenges that Arab translators encounter while using CAT tools in translation?

To answer the fourth question, a questionnaire was given to the participants. The questionnaire included 36 items within the challenges section. These challenges are classified into four sets related to translators, CAT tools, translation memory(TM), and technical issues challenges. Below, Table 11 shows the participants' responses related to the overall average of challenge dimensions showing the level of such challenges.

TABLE 11
OVERALL AVERAGE DIMENSIONS OF CHALLENGES

Rank	Challenges Related To :	Items	Mean	S.D	Level of Challenges
4	Translators themselves	10	3.2000	0.59251	Moderate
3	CAT Tools	12	3.5937	0.53856	High
2	TM	7	3.7486	0.49587	High
1	Technical Issues	7	3.7521	0.83833	High
	The Overall Challenges	36	3.5731	0.61631	High

As shown in Table 11, most of the participants agree that the stated challenges play a role in using CAT tools. Furthermore, the stated challenges generally seem to achieve almost an identical degree of importance. From the participants' perspectives, these challenges represent the most important challenges while using CAT tools. The table clarifies that technical issues were the highest level of the challenges faced by translators (Mean =3.7521, SD=0.83833) indicating that the majority of the respondents agree that the technical issues are the most challenging for them. However, challenges related to translators were the lowest level of challenges faced by Arab translators (Mean=3.2000, SD=0.59251). Generally, as shown in the above table, the level of challenges that Arab translators face while using CAT tools is high. That means Arab translators face real challenges at various levels. This result shows that the high price of CAT tools plays a crucial role in implementing them. That means, in poor or unstable countries such as Yemen, Iraq, and Libya, translators cannot afford the cost to purchase these tools. Consequently, translation institutions and concerned people must work on solutions to avoid such challenges or at least reduce their volume.

Therefore, the high cost of CAT tools is considered the biggest challenge for Arab translators. Along this line, Wallis (2006) confirmed that there are challenges in using CAT tools, and there has not yet been a significant amount of research into the challenges of using such tools nor have there been introduced any potential ways to solve such difficulties and better obtain the benefits of such tools. Note below the most important challenges according to their

highest means:

1. Most CAT tools are very costly (Mean=4.13).
2. Lack of financial support to activate the movement of modern translation technology generally (M=3.99).
3. Inability to update some ICT devices (laptops, etc.) when using CAT tools (M=3.97).
4. CAT tools depend on the input of TM and if the memory is poor, it will negatively effect on the outcomes of translation. (M=3.89).
5. The rapid of technology creates new tools, therefore it is difficult for a translator to keep pace with it easily (M=3.88).
6. Most ordinary memories do not include new developments in various fields (M=3.85).
7. Shortage of use or practice of the various versions of CAT tools (M=3.81).
8. Programs and workshops which provide translation with skills in translation tools are rare (M=3.692).

Results and Discussion Related to the Fifth Question

5. What are the solutions that can help Arab translators in increasing translation efficiency and productivity regarding the utilization of CAT tools?

To answer the fifth question, the researcher interviewed 20 translators from various Arab countries. The interview consisted of an open-ended question asking the translators to suggest solutions to the challenges that Arab translators face while utilizing CAT tools. It is assumed that such solutions will reduce the challenges that Arab translators face. Interviewees suggested twenty-six solutions to overcoming the challenges. These solutions were analyzed by using thematic analysis and classified into five themes related to technical, training, CAT tools and TM, curricula solutions, and the roles of governments and translation institutions. The following solutions achieved high degrees of agreement among the interviewees:

- Including translation technology as part of the curriculum of translation students.
- Finding a solution to the weakness of the Internet by improving network services.
- Holding frequent special training courses and workshops on CAT tools.
- Training translators to install available free tools on their PCs to avoid their high cost.
- Updating curricula regularly to match the development of translation technology.
- Using uninterruptible power supplies and cloud servers to avoid the loss of data in case of frequent electricity cuts.
- Benefitting from free online courses on YouTube and other platforms to have enough background in using such translation tools.
- Finding a solution to the problem of poor electricity by using alternative energy like solar energy for the countries that are suffering from such problems.
- Supporting translation by both the public and private sectors to reduce the cost, especially for CAT tools
- Supporting researchers in field translation in the Arab world by both private and public sectors to improve the quality of translation to meet the age requirements.
- Supplementing individual translators by institutions in using translation technology in Arab countries efforts as it is a job that exceeds the individual translator's ability and capability.

Results and Discussion Related to the Sixth and Seventh Questions.

6. Are there any statistically significant differences in the demographic information of Arab translators while utilizing CAT tools?

7. Are there any statistically significant differences in the demographic information of Arab translators in respect of challenges while using CAT tools?

Testing of the Hypotheses

To answer the 6 and 7 questions, the hypotheses should be tested by using statistical tests. For two variables such as male and female, we can use one sample t-test whereas in the case of two or more variables such as a group of experience or qualifications, a One-Way ANOVA Test will be used. The researcher tries in the following to ascertain whether there are statistically significant differences among demographic information while using CAT tools or not.

H01. Null Hypothesis: there are no statistically significance differences in the demographic information of Arab translators while using CAT tools.

Sub-Hypotheses

H01: There is no significant difference between translator genders regarding the use of CAT tools.

H02: There is no statistically significant difference between translators' qualifications while using CAT tools.

H03: There is no statistically significant difference between translators' experience while using CAT tools.

H04: There is no statistically significant difference between translators' countries while using CAT tools.

TABLE 12
MANN WHITNEY TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER GROUP CONCERNING USING CAT TOOLS

Gender	Mean Rank	Z	P-value	Result
Male	47.52	-1.906	0.057	Accept
Female	58.78			

It is clear from the above table that there is no significant difference between male and female translators with respect to using CAT tools since the P value is greater than 0.05. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted at a 5% level concerning the use of such tools. On the other hand, the Kruskal Test was used for the other differences related to nationality, qualifications, and experience.

TABLE 13
KRUSKAL TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCES RELATED TO TRANSLATOR NATIONALITY, QUALIFICATION, AND EXPERIENCE CONCERNING CAT TOOLS

	Groups	Mean Rank	Chi-square	P-value	Result
Country	Yemen	27.14	34.698	<0.001**	Reject the null hypo.
	Syria	48.85			
	Saudi Arabia	65.10			
	Palestine	71.90			
	Libya	54.20			
	Iraq	49.63			
	Egypt	73.68			
Qualifications	Courses	13.55	36.806	<0.001**	Reject.
	Diploma	29.79			
	B. A	54.13			
	M.A	61.31			
	Ph.D.	77.87			
Experience	Nil	48.63	11.706	0.02*	Reject
	5 and less	52.40			
	From 6 to 10	57.96			
	From 11 to 15	63.83			
	above 15 years	33.85			

As shown in Table 13, P- values are less than 0.05, so the null hypotheses are rejected regarding the use of CAT tools. Hence, there are significant differences between translator nationality, qualification, and experience concerning the use of CAT tools. We noticed earlier in Table 9 that the use of CAT tools is low with Yemen being the lowest when it came to using such tools. That means the war and unstable situations in some countries may affect all aspects of human life and especially educational and economic aspects.

H02. Null Hypothesis: there are no statistical significance differences in the demographic information of Arab translators in respect of challenges that Arab translators face while using CAT tools.

1. Difference Related to Gender

H02a: There is no significant difference between males and females with respect to dimensions of challenges.

TABLE 14
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER GROUP WITH RESPECT TO CHALLENGES

Challenges Factors related to	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	P-value
Translators	Male	3.1707	0.56133	-	0.574
	Female	3.2370	0.63399	0.565	
CAT Tools	Male	3.6801	0.48342	1.860	0.066
	Female	3.4847	0.58829		
TM	Male	3.6675	0.50730	-	0.061
	Female	3.8509	0.46653	1.897	
Technical issues	Male	3.8079	0.77950	0.747	0.457
	Female	3.6817	0.91097		
The Overall Challenges	Male	3.5815	0.40543	0.209	0.835
	Female	3.5636	0.47136		

Since the P value is greater than 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted at level 5 concerning all of Challenges. There is no significant difference between male and female translators with respect to dimensions of challenges.

2. Differences Related to Countries

H02b: There is no significant difference between translators' countries with respect to dimensions of challenges.

TABLE 15
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COUNTRIES GROUP CONCERNING CHALLENGES

Challenges related to:		Countries							F	P-value
		Yemen	Syria	Saudi Arabia	Palestine	Libya	Iraq	Egypt		
Translators	Mean	3.28	3.44	2.93	3.26	2.90	3.19	3.23	1.130	0.351
	S.D	0.62	0.51	0.66	0.70	0.35	0.52	0.55		
CAT Tools	Mean	3.72	3.68	3.34	3.56	3.12	3.72	3.59	1.734	0.121
	S.D	0.63	0.52	0.58	0.54	0.17	0.31	0.50		
TM	Mean	3.54	3.89	3.66	3.96	3.63	3.64	4.06	3.302	0.005**
	S.D	0.51	0.49	0.59	0.44	0.39	0.37	0.35		
Technical Issues	Mean	4.28	4.51	2.70	3.30	3.77	4.09	3.37	17.222	<0.001**
	S.D	0.49	0.92	0.55	0.84	0.52	0.42	0.59		
Overall Challenges	Mean	3.70	3.88	3.15	3.52	3.36	3.66	3.56	4.820	<0.001**
	S.D	0.39	0.38	0.51	0.55	0.10	0.20	0.35		

** denotes significance at a 1% level

* Denotes significance at a 5% level

Since the P value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at level 1 regarding TM, technical issues, and overall challenges. As a result, there is a significant difference among the translators' countries concerning TM, technical issues, and overall challenges. As the result of the Scheffe Multiple Comparisons Test, the Yemeni translators are significantly different from Egypt translators at a 5% level of significance, but there is no significant difference between Yemeni translators and other countries with respect to challenges related to TM. In challenges related to technical issues, the Yemeni translators are significantly different from Saudi, Palestinian, and Egyptian translators at a 1% level of significance. Nevertheless, there is no significant difference between Yemeni translators and Syrian, Libyan, and Iraqi translators.

In Overall Challenges, the Yemeni translators are significantly different from Saudi at a 1% level of significance, and the Syrian translators are significantly different from Saudi translators at a 1% level of significance. However, there is no significant difference between Palestinian, Libyan, Iraqi, and Egyptian translators. There is no significant difference among the translators' countries group concerning the challenges related to translators themselves, or challenges related to CAT since the P value is greater than 0.05. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted at a 5% level regarding dimensions of challenges related to translators themselves, and challenges related to CAT Tools. That means the challenges related to CAT tools and TM achieved agreement among all Arab translators concerning the technical issues, and only some unstable countries are still suffering from such problems.

3. Difference Related to Qualification

H02c: There is no significant difference between the mean of translators' qualifications concerning dimensions of challenges.

TABLE 16
THE DIFFERENCE AMONG THE QUALIFICATIONS GROUP WITH RESPECT TO CHALLENGES

Factors of challenges related to:		Qualification					F	P-value
		Courses	Diploma	B.A	M.A	Ph.D.		
Translators	Mean	3.50	2.93	3.16	3.26	3.24	1.45	0.22
	S.D.	0.54	0.67	0.50	0.58	0.77		
CAT Tools	Mean	3.82	3.27	3.51	3.63	3.88	3.07	0.02*
	S.D.	0.44	0.47	0.51	0.55	0.56		
TM	Mean	3.40	3.43	3.77	3.77	4.12	5.49	<0.001**
	S.D.	0.35	0.51	0.45	0.49	0.44		
Technical Issues	Mean	4.26	3.46	3.74	3.73	3.72	1.29	0.28
	S.D.	0.53	0.77	0.83	0.92	0.88		
The Overall Challenges	Mean	3.74	3.27	3.55	3.60	3.74	2.62	0.04*
	S.D.	0.33	0.35	0.38	0.47	0.54		

** Denotes significance at a 1% level

* Denotes significance at a 5% level

First, since the P value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at a 1% level concerning dimensions of challenges related to TM. Hence there is a significant difference among the qualifications group of translators concerning the dimensions of challenges related to TM. As the result of the Scheffe Multiple Comparisons Test, the translators who have taken courses are significantly different from those who have earned a Ph.D. at a 1% level of significance and there is a significant difference between those who earn a Diploma and those who earned a Ph.D. at a 1% level of significance. However, there is no significant difference between a B.A and other qualifications. Also, there is no significant difference between an M.A. and other qualifications for challenges related to TM.

Second, since the P value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected at a 5% level concerning challenges related to CAT Tools and the overall challenges. Hence, there is a significant difference among the qualification group related to CAT and the overall challenges. According to the Scheffe Test, the participants who have diplomas are significantly different from those who have PhDs at a 5% level of significance but there is no significant difference between the diploma and other qualifications. Finally, since the P value is greater than 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted

regarding dimensions related to translators, and technical issues. Thus, there is no significant difference among the qualification regarding the dimensions related to translators, and technical issues challenges.

4. Difference related to Experience

H02d: There is no significant difference between the mean of translators' experience concerning dimensions of challenges.

TABLE 17
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE EXPERIENCE GROUP CONCERNING CHALLENGES

Factors related to		Experience					F	P-value
		Nil	5 and less	From 6 to 10	From 11 to 15	above 15 years		
Translators	Mean	3.51	3.24	3.14	3.13	3.21	0.737	0.569
	S.D.	0.88	0.79	0.47	0.58	0.43		
CAT Tools	Mean	3.74	3.55	3.58	3.64	3.56	0.226	0.923
	S.D.	0.71	0.73	0.47	0.53	0.39		
TM	Mean	4.04	3.73	3.80	3.85	3.46	2.804	0.060
	S.D.	0.51	0.53	0.40	0.46	0.56		
Technical issues	Mean	4.21	3.84	3.68	3.67	3.68	0.798	0.529
	S.D.	0.76	0.86	0.95	0.75	0.71		
The Overall	Mean	3.88	3.59	3.55	3.57	3.48	1.263	0.290
	S.D.	0.47	0.58	0.38	0.41	0.32		

Since the P value is greater than 0.05. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted at a 5% level concerning all Factors of Challenges. There is no significant difference between the mean of translators' experience concerning challenges.

To sum up, concerning the first hypothesis, since P Values are > 0.05 , the study indicated that there are statistical significances among demographic information while using CAT tools related to the translators' nationality, qualifications, and experience, except for the gender where the P Value < 0.05 . Therefore, the first main and sub-null hypotheses are rejected. Only the null hypotheses related to gender and age are accepted. On the other hand, since P Values are > 0.05 , the study indicated that there are statistical significances among demographic information concerning challenges related to nationality and qualification, except for the gender and translators' experience which have a P Value < 0.05 . Therefore, the second main and sub-null hypotheses are rejected, and only the null hypotheses related to gender and experience are accepted.

V. CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that technology has become an essential part of our daily lives. Today, CAT tools represent a significant component of the development in the field of translation. Consequently, the study attempted to shed light on the utilization of CAT tools and the challenges that Arab translators face while using such tools and suggesting possible solutions that enable Arab translators in improving their translation efficiency and productivity. The findings indicated that only 19 % of the total number of participants use CAT tools at various levels of use depending on the stability, economic, and educational factors of each country. That means, from the viewpoints of the participants, Arab translators confront many challenges while using CAT tools. Therefore, the study concluded that Arab translators encountered real challenges and obstacles in using CAT tools or in their ease of use. These challenges were classified into four categories related to translators themselves, CAT tools, translation memories, and technical issues. The results also showed that legal, medical, and scientific fields are the fields in which CAT tools are almost used. A list of solutions from the perspectives of the interviewees has been proposed to overcome the challenges that translators encounter while using CAT tools. The study suggested that Arab translators have to be familiar with such tools to increase their efficiency and productivity in translation not only to meet the rapid and increased demand of translation work but also for saving time and effort. Finally, for making the best use of CAT tools and achieving ideal translation quality, translation institutes, universities, and concerned entities should adopt very special training on how to use such tools for translators or users and help them make the right choices concerning selecting appropriate translation tools

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A Cross-Sectional Study of Omani EFL Students' Competency in Using English Grammatical Aspect Categories

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Abstract—This cross-sectional study has been launched to explore the Omani EFL students' competency in using English grammatical aspect categories. It determined the most challenging aspect category and differences attributed to the study level and gender. The sample of the study consisted of 120 students representing the four levels of a four-semester General Foundation Program (GFP) at the English Language Unit, Center for Preparatory Studies, University of Technology and Applied Sciences (UTAS) in Salalah, Sultanate of Oman. Data were collected via a competency test and analyzed statistically using SPSS (Version 26.0). Findings showcase great variations in the competency of the learners across the four levels. The lowest scores of competencies were relevant to the first two levels of the program. The students in the third level scored higher, but the highest competency was evident in the scores of the fourth-level students. Concerning gender, there is no significant difference in the level of competency in aspect categories among male and female students at the four levels. The present perfect tense had the lowest competency across all four levels. Hence, it is considered the most problematic grammatical aspect because, unlike Arabic, English has numerous verbal tense and aspect categories that demand detailed knowledge, and this poses difficulties for Omani EFL learners at the entry-levels of the General Foundation Program. Learners at the entry-level seem to be more influenced by their mother-tongue (Arabic) grammatical system. This study can be used as a roadmap to tackle areas of difficulty in learning the English grammatical system, specifically the aspect categories.

Index Terms—aspect categories, competency, Omani EFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

Languages are different, and so are their grammatical systems. Different languages have different grammatical aspects in terms of types and numbers, depending on how they conceptualize time and events. Comrie (1976) defined 'aspect' as "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (p. 3). A grammatical aspect shows how a verb relates to time—whether an action is finished, ongoing, or happens once or repeatedly (Comrie, 1976; Mobaidin, 1988; Zhang et al., 2015). Aspect and its categories are the grammatical verb variations, and languages differ in their aspectual systems. Some languages, e.g., English, have a few aspects marked by verb forms or auxiliaries, while others have several aspects marked by different verbs, or they may convey aspectual meanings through other means, such as word order, adverbs, or context (Mudhsh, 2021; Obeidat, 2014).

Linguistically speaking, aspect categories relate to how a verb expresses an action, event, or state in terms of duration, completion, or repetition (Mudhsh, 2021; Obeidat, 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). According to Comrie (1976), aspect classifies the situation of the verb's action. The situation, Comrie (1976), adds, is determined by whether it is habitual, iterative, ongoing, completed, or not completed. Languages differ in marking aspect categories, such as using different

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verb forms, auxiliary verbs, or adverbs, which are essential for understanding the meaning and context of sentences (Mudhsh, 2021; Zhang et al., 2015). For instance, Arabic has a different aspectual system, just as English has its own aspectual system. In Arabic, two verb forms exist: the perfective and the imperfective (Alotaibi, 2020). The perfective form expresses a completed action, while the imperfective form expresses an ongoing or incomplete action. The perfective form is changed by adding an ending, but the imperfective form is changed by adding a prefix. Both forms change based on the person, the number, and the gender. In a neutral situation, Arabic tense is absolute, and verb forms take on the perfective and imperfective aspects. Arabic verb forms may relate to the context rather than the current instant, much as verb forms in other languages, including English. In English, there are four main aspects: simple, perfect, progressive, and perfect-progressive. Each aspect can be combined with different tenses to create different meanings. These differences in aspectual systems affect Arab EFL learners' performance in grammatical aspects of the target language.

A. Problem Statement

Language learning difficulties appear when two language structures differ—a postulation that existed as early as Lado's contention in 1959. Learning difficulties are lessened when two language structures are similar, so the learning process is generally easy. Lado (1959) stated that learning difficulties could be predicted and treated. Learners in the beginning stages of learning encounter more difficulties in several areas of second language learning. Aspect categories are no exception. Arab and non-Arab EFL students confront problems in working with aspect categories. Because the two languages (Arabic and English) do not belong to the same 'language family' and linguistic system, challenging to understand the English aspect which is difficult for learners whose first language is Arabic (Sholeha et al., 2020; Mudhsh & Laskar, 2021; Teng, 2022). In particular, one of the most challenging aspect categories that Arab EFL learners encounter when learning English is the present perfect (Listyani & Al-Kadi, 2022; Mudhsh, 2018; Mudhsh & Laskar, 2021). Previous studies grounded these difficulties in the Arabic and English tense and aspect systems differences (see, for instance, Murad & Khalil, 2015; Listyani & Al-Kadi, 2022; Halik et al., 2022).

Many studies have analyzed the grammatical errors committed by Arab EFL learners (see, for instance, Abisamra, 2003; Al-Khresheh, 2010; Corder, 1967; Listyani & Al-Kadi, 2022; Mukattash, 1983; Mudhsh et al., 2021; Murad & Khalil, 2015). These studies examined many aspects of the target language in EFL learning contexts. For instance, a substantial body of knowledge about Arab students' grammatical errors is available in the literature, showing that Arab students commit many grammatical errors while learning English, especially in the initial stages. These errors include subject-verb agreement, tenses, aspects, prepositions, word order, the omission of the verb 'be', and so on. The previous studies spurred more research to widen learners' horizons towards different aspect categories.

The current study aims to investigate the level of competency in using the grammatical aspect categories in L2 contexts. In Oman, little is known about which aspect among the English aspect categories poses difficulties to EFL students. This study might be beneficial for teachers to realize the barriers towards learning English aspect categories, with a particular focus on the General Foundation Program EFL learners at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences in Salalah.

B. Research Questions

The study addressed the following questions:

1. What is the current Omani EFL students' level of competency in aspect categories?
2. What is the most challenging aspect category they have?
3. Are there any statistical differences in the aspect categories of competencies attributed to the levels and genders?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The grammatical aspect, a linguistic category, comes under grammatical competence. It has been long debated that high grammatical competence underlies better performance. It implies using language appropriately and effectively in various situations. Prior research has shown that students' competency in using English grammatical aspect categories depends on several factors, such as level of language proficiency, native language background, exposure to authentic input and output, and instruction and feedback. In the literature, there are some studies on students who overuse or underuse specific aspect categories or transfer their native language patterns to English. Previous studies are too numerous to list in this section, but some studies from 2013 onward, beginning with Abu-Joudeh et al.'s study in 2013, would suffice for this investigation.

Abu-Joudeh et al. (2013) investigated the errors committed by Jordanian college students whose main subject was English. The aim of the study was to investigate how English majors in Jordan use verbs in the perfect form. To reach the aims of this study, the students were given a translation task. The results showed that the subjects needed help to change similar Arabic bare-perfect sentences into perfect English sentences. Using cases from 'William Golding's *The Inheritors*', Obeidat (2014) examined the English past perfect aspect and how it was translated into Arabic. He found that the translator used different strategies to render the past perfect aspect into Arabic. It showed that tenses, aspects, and prepositions were the most difficult for the students. This led to the conclusion that these strategies could have helped the students learn the Arabic system of the English past perfect aspect.

In 2015, Khalil and Abdallah (2015) analyzed grammatical errors in the writing of Omani learners of English as a foreign language at Nizwa University. The participants were selected from the Foundation Program at Nizwa University, and their number was 100. The study analyzed and classified the students' grammatical errors in writing. The study found that students committed 2709 grammatical errors in different language aspects. These grammatical errors were sorted and classified into major categories and sub-categories. Students made the majority of errors in the tenses category, which made up about 37.7% of all errors. Other errors were in other sub-categories, like prepositions and articles.

Over the past five years, two relevant studies are worth citing: Sabtan and Elsayed (2019) in Oman and Mudhsh and Laskar (2021) in Yemen. The former analyzed common errors in Omani EFL students' writing at Dhofar University, Oman. The sample consisted of 93 first-year students studying the required courses. They were asked to write essays to highlight their errors. The analysis revealed various types of errors in their writing. The errors were categorized into spelling and grammatical errors. The highest grammatical errors were in tenses, aspects, and forms. Then comes plurality, subject-verb agreement, prepositions, parts of speech, word order, articles, etc. The other study (Mudhsh & Laskar, 2021) examined Yemeni L2 students' comprehension and learning patterns of aspect categories depending on data collected from a sample of 120 BA students at Sana'a University, reporting that the differences based on levels were statistically significant and that the mother tongue appeared to negatively dominate the learning process of aspect categories for Yemeni students, especially for students in levels one and two.

As discussed above, the present perfect was most problematic for students in several Arabic EFL contexts. In addition, Arabic negatively impacts the learning of English's grammatical aspects and consequently influences EFL learners' overall competence. Therefore, it is necessary to examine this issue in the Omani EFL situation to provide implications for a better understanding of the problems that EFL learners encounter while learning English as a foreign language.

III. METHOD

This is a cross-sectional study of the competency of Omani EFL students in aspect categories. The researchers utilized a descriptive research design to answer the questions, with a focus on quantitative data collected from a sample of EFL learners at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences in Salalah, Sultanate of Oman. The General Foundation Program (GFP) within the English Language Unit has four levels represented in this study. In the program, English language aspects are taught within the traditional paradigm. On this basis, the study set out to examine the entrants' competency in using English aspect categories across the four-semester program.

A. Participants

A stratified random sampling strategy was used to select 120 students across the four levels to partake in this study. Thirty (15 males and 15 females) students were selected from each level. This sampling technique is the most effective means of reflecting all the population's various layers and degrees of complexity; the level and gender of the students were used to stratify the study population. Before data collection, all the participants were informed of the study's goals and procedures, and each participant consented to participate. Table 1 shows how the research sample was distributed based on the students' level and gender.

TABLE 1
BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE SAMPLE

Variables	Male	Female	Total
Level 1	15	15	30
Level 2	15	15	30
Level 3	15	15	30
Level 4	15	15	30
Total	60	60	120

B. A Competency Test

The researchers constructed a competency test to collect data that befits the research questions. The test consists of 20 multiple-choice questions covering the tenses under study (five questions for each tense). Four categories of English tenses were taken into consideration when designing the test: "the present progressive tense, present perfect tense, past progressive tense, and past perfect tense". To evaluate the content validity of the test, it was distributed to six English language specialists and one statistician. A concerted effort was made to establish a threshold of 80% consensus among these experts' opinions as the criterion for including or omitting the questions. The final outcome of this procedure was the acceptance of 20 multiple-choice questions, with five questions representing each of the four aspect categories equally. According to Cronbach (2004), an instrument's dependability may be defined as its correlation with itself. The dependability of the research instrument was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha (α) as in Table 2. Thus, the test has good reliability according to the Cronbach's Coefficients outlined in the Table 2.

TABLE 2
CRONBACH COEFFICIENT FOR RELIABILITY OF THE TEST

Tenses	Cronbach Coefficient
Present Progressive Tense	0.80
Present Perfect Tense	0.80
Past Progressive Tense	0.83
Past Perfect Tense	0.81
The test as a whole	0.85

IV. RESULTS

In this section, the results are arranged in Tables. They are arranged according to the research questions to illuminate Omani EFL students' level of competency in aspect categories across the four levels of study, the most challenging aspect, and the statistical significance attributed to gender and level of study. Statistical procedures were used to analyze the data. The t-test was applied to show the comparison between the means of the variable groups. A one-sample t-test (comparing the sample mean with the assumed mean) is a common tool in inferential statistics to identify the level of competency of level one in the four tense categories. Table 3 shows the data collected from the first-level students concerning the four aspect categories.

TABLE 3
RESULT OF T-TEST FOR ONE SAMPLE FOR LEVEL 1

Level 1	N	Real mean	Expected mean	SD	df	T	Sig.	Decision
Present Progressive	30	1.70	2.5	1.41	29	3.09	0.00	low
Present Perfect	30	0.96	2.5	0.67	29	8.70	0.00	low
Past Progressive	30	1.56	2.5	0.93	29	5.46	0.00	low
Past Perfect	30	1.20	2.5	1.06	29	6.69	0.00	low
Total	30	5.43	10	2.76	29	9.05	0.00	low

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 3 depicts that the t-value for the total score (9.05), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant, and the total of the real mean (5.43) is lower than the assumed mean (10) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 20 questions = 10), which confirms that the level of the students is low. The t-value for the present progressive tense (3.09), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant. The real mean (1.70) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 5 questions = 2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in the present progressive tense is low. The t-value for present perfect tense (8.70), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant, and the real mean (0.96) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low. The t-value for past progressive tense (5.46), and p . (0.00)(< 0.05) are significant, and the real mean (1.56) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in past progressive tense is low. The t-value for present perfect tense (6.69), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant, and the real mean (1.20) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low.

Likewise, the data collected from the second-level students are outlined in Table 4, which indicates the data collected on the four aspect categories. The results of the t-test (as explained earlier) are displayed in Table 4. Table 4 clearly shows that the t-value of the total score (9.05), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant, and the total of real means (5.43) is lower than the assumed mean (10) (where the assumed mean is the middle degree of 20 questions, or 10), which confirms that the level of the students is low.

TABLE 4
RESULT OF T-TEST FOR ONE SAMPLE FOR LEVEL TWO

Level 2	N	Real mean	Expected mean	SD	df	T	Sig.	Decision
Present Progressive	30	3.13	2.5	1.40	29	2.46	0.02	high
Present Perfect	30	1.10	2.5	0.884	29	8.66	0.00	low
Past Progressive	30	1.76	2.5	1.040	29	3.86	0.00	low
Past Perfect	30	1.23	2.5	0.971	29	7.14	0.00	low
Total	30	5.43	10	2.71	29	9.05	0.00	low

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Within the aspect categories, the t-value varied. The t-value for present progressive tense (2.46), and p . (0.02 < 0.05) are significant, and the real mean (3.13) is higher than the assumed mean (2.5) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 5 questions = 2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in present progressive tense is high. The t-value for present perfect tense (8.66), and p . (0.00 < 0.05) are significant, and the real mean (1.10) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low. The t-value for past progressive

tense (3.86), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (1.76) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which confirms that the level of the students in past progressive tense is low. The t -value for present perfect tense (7.14, $P < 0.05$) is significant at the 0.05 level, and the real mean (1.23) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which shows that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low.

In the same way, the results of the data collected from the third-level students are displayed in Table 5. It demonstrates the data for the four aspect categories, using the one-sample t -test for inferential statistics (sample mean and presumed mean). It was used to determine the learners' competency in the four aspect categories. Table 5 visibly illustrates that the t -value for the total score (2.06) and p ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (8.90) is lower than the assumed mean (10) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 20 questions =10), which confirms that the level of the students is low.

TABLE 5
RESULT OF T-TEST FOR ONE SAMPLE FOR LEVEL THREE

Level 3	N	Real mean	Expected mean	SD	df	T	Sig.	Decision
Present Progressive	30	3.43	2.5	1.104	29	4.62	0.00	high
Present Perfect	30	1.36	2.5	1.129	29	5.49	0.00	low
Past Progressive	30	2.53	2.5	1.25	29	0.146	0.88	middle
Past Perfect	30	1.56	2.5	0.97	29	5.26	0.00	low
Sum	30	8.90	10	2.91	29	2.06	0.00	low

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Within the aspect categories, the t -value for present progressive tense (4.62), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (3.43) is higher than the assumed mean (2.5) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 5 questions = 2.5), which signifies that the level of the students in present progressive tense is high. The t -value for present perfect tense (5.49), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (1.36) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which indicates that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low. The t -value for past progressive tense (3.86), and p . ($0.88 > 0.05$) are not significant, and there is no difference between the real mean and the assumed mean, which confirms that the level of the students in past progressive tense is medium. The t -value for present perfect tense (5.26), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (1.56) is lower than the assumed mean (2.5), which displays that the level of the students in present perfect tense is low.

Following a similar analysis of data obtained from the learners in the fourth level, Table 6 summarizes the inferential statistical results of the t -test that determined the fourth level students' competency in the four aspect categories. Table 6 clearly depicts that the t -value for the total score (4.85), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant. The real mean (12.65) is higher than the assumed mean (10), which confirms that the level of the students in all aspects is high.

TABLE 6
RESULT OF T-TEST FOR ONE SAMPLE FOR LEVEL FOUR

Level 4	N	Real mean	Expected mean	SD	df	T	Sig.	Decision
Present progressive	30	4.16	2.5	1.20	29	7.57	0.000	high
Present Perfect	30	2.53	2.5	1.40	29	0.13	0.898	middle
Past Progressive	30	2.96	2.5	1.17	29	2.12	0.04	high
Past Perfect	30	3.10	2.5	1.53	29	2.13	0.04	high
Total	30	12.65	10	2.943	29	4.85	0.00	high

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Among the fourth-level cohort, the t -value for present progressive tense (7.57), and p . ($0.00 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (4.16) is higher than the assumed mean (2.5), which ascertains that the level of the students in present progressive tense is high. The t -value for the present perfect tense (0.13) and p . ($0.89 > 0.05$) are not significant, and there is no significant difference between the real mean and the assumed mean, which shows that the level of the students in the present perfect tense is medium. The t -value for past progressive tense (2.12) and p . ($0.04 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (2.96) is higher than the assumed mean (2.5), which signifies that the level of the students in past progressive tense is high. The t -value for past perfect tenses (2.13) and p . ($0.04 < 0.05$) are significant, and the real mean (3.10) is higher than the assumed mean (2.5), which denotes that the level of the students in past progressive tenses is high.

TABLE 7
RESULT OF TWO INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	T	Sig.	Decision
Present progressive	Male	60	3.05	1.66	118	0.41	0.48	No difference
	Female	60	3.16	1.46				
Present Perfect	Male	60	1.35	1.31	118	1.23	0.22	No difference
	Female	60	1.63	1.20				
Past Progressive	Male	60	2.28	1.18	118	0.75	0.45	No difference
	Female	60	2.11	1.27				
Past Perfect	Male	60	1.93	1.24	118	1.77	0.11	No difference
	Female	60	2.11	1.45				
Total	Male	60	8.00	3.65	118	1.47	0.14	No difference
	Female	60	9.03	3.97				

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The t-tests for two-sample inferential statistics were used to compare male and female students across four levels of competency in aspect categories. Table 7 describes the results of the two-sample t-test. Table 7 clearly depicts that the t-test values are not significant ($p. 0.14 > 0.05$), which confirms that there is no significant difference in precision in the level of competency of aspect categories among male and female students in the four levels.

V. DISCUSSION

According to the results outlined above, the EFL students in the given context develop their understanding of the English aspectual system across the four levels of their enrollment in the General Foundation Program (GFP). The researchers noticed differences in the students' competence in English-language aspect categories. Given the substantial individual variance in aspect categories, this conclusion is congruent with Housen (2002) and Mudhsh and Laskar (2021) studies. Students at the entry level demonstrate the lowest competence in all categories of English aspects. The t-value for the total score (6.83, $p. < 0.05$) is significant, and the real mean (9.05) is lower than the assumed mean (10) (where assumed mean = middle degree of 20 questions = 10), which confirms that the level of the students is low. This finding is consistent with some previous studies (Sholeha et al., 2020; Khalil & Abdullah, 2015; Mattar, 2001; Mudhsh & Laskar, 2021) that showed Arab EFL students' struggle in learning aspect categories, particularly the first- and second-year students. In this study, students in the Second Level showed little progression compared with students in the first level, but still, their competency is relatively low. The t-value for the total score (9.05, $p. < 0.05$) is significant, and the real mean (5.43) is lower than the assumed mean (10).

Based on the analysis, the present progressive (continuous) is the highest level of competence for all four levels of students. This may be due to the fact that Arabic is considered an aspectual language, unlike English, which is considered a tense language (Ryding, 2005). Arabic employs imperfectives to express both the present simple and the progressive situation. The Arabic language makes no distinction between habitual and progressive (Mobaidin, 1988; Ryding, 2005).

It is particularly challenging to discern between the progressive and simple present tenses in Arabic due to the need for temporal adverbs. For example: "*Salma tuṭṭaxu ʔat-taʔa:m* Salma is cooking the food /Salma cooks the food" (Mobaidin, 1988, p. 75). Moreover, the suffix '-ing' indicates the progressive (continuous) tense. In English, the basic present tense and present progressive contexts are distinct. Arabic has no distinction between the present tense and the progressive aspect. Both of these categories fall under the imperfective category in Arabic. Similarly, English makes a clear distinction between past tense and past progressive tense, whereas Arabic uses the perfective for both contexts.

Students in levels one and two have yet to fully acquire the principles of the English tense and aspect system. Consequently, students at levels one and two may use their Arabic conception of temporality when marking English aspects. They derive inspiration from their native language (Arabic). While Arabic perceives 'temporality' by distinguishing perfective from imperfective categories, English conveys temporality through various verbal tenses and aspect categories (Ryding, 2005). By the time students reach level three, they have received sufficient English language instruction and exposure. Accordingly, their performance in this study reflects this. They had significantly surpassed level two with a t-value for total score (2.06, $p. < 0.05$), which is significant, and the real mean (8.90) is lower than the assumed mean (10). The performance of level four students concerning English aspect competency is exceptional in all the categories of aspects, except the present perfect. The t-value for the total score (4.85, $p. < 0.05$) is significant, and the real mean (12.65) is higher than the assumed mean (10), which confirms that the level of the students in total aspects is high.

Based on the analysis, all the students across the four levels had difficulty answering the present perfect category correctly. Therefore, this category proved to be the most problematic among the other categories for all Omani EFL students at the English Language Centre, University of Technology and Applied Sciences-Salalah. This result goes in parallel with the arguments of earlier studies, including Mudhsh and Laskar (2021), Mattar (2001), Mustafidah (2014), and Obeidat (2014). These previous studies discovered that Arab EFL students do not always comprehend the present

perfect tense at the beginning of their university studies. They cannot distinguish this tense from others. Mattar (2001) demonstrated that Arab students of English struggle with the English present perfect tense. This finding was supported by the findings of a recent study by Listyani and Al-Kadi (2022). In the study, learners tend to avoid using the present perfect not because of distinctions in how it is structured in Arabic and English but because the correct tense and aspect forms are not associated with it.

Concerning gender, there is no significant difference in the level of competency in aspect categories among male and female students at the four levels. They have the same level in the four aspect categories, and the t-test values (Table 7) are not significant ($p > 0.05$). This may be because students (males and females) study the same books and are taught by the same teachers.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has revealed the Omani EFL learners' challenges while learning English aspect categories, especially the present perfect tense. In this study, the Omani EFL students have been assessed as to their competency in aspect categories. The study aimed to identify the most challenging aspect category for the four levels of Omani EFL students. The study also aimed to investigate any significant differences among the levels and genders in the aspect categories of competencies. The results suggest that the level of competency in grammatical aspect categories increases as learners progress in the intended program that embeds the aspect categories. The more the learners advance, the better their competence in aspect categories is. It also underscores the influence of Arabic, which has a different aspectual system than English and hinders the learners' ability to master the English aspect categories.

Therefore, this study recommends that more attention should be paid to teaching and learning English aspect categories in the Omani EFL context. When interpreting the results of this study, some predictable limitations should be considered. The relatively small sample size and mono-method data collection narrow the breadth of the findings, and thus their generalizability to some other populations is rather cautionary. The researchers do not doubt that testing combined with some other data collection tools could have been an advantage for an in-depth and rigorous investigation. Hence, replicating the study on other similar learner cohorts in Oman or other EFL contexts would strengthen the findings. It is also recommended to conduct a longitudinal study to shed light on changes in learners' uses of grammatical aspects across their four-semester study instead of the current cross-sectional research design. These issues are worthy of more attention in future research to come up with more robust findings. Apart from gender, level of study, and mother-tongue, more research may explore other factors that affect learners' grammatical competence in general or, in particular, it may examine learning strategies that would extricate learners from learning difficulties in aspect categories.

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A Comparative Study on Two Translations of Lao She's *Black Li and White Li*

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Abstract—This paper employs Manipulation Theory and Skopos Theory as theoretical foundations to understand why and how external and internal constraints have affected translators in using translation solutions. This paper has chosen Lao She's Chinese short story, *Black Li and White Li*, and compared the two translations from Wang Chi-Chen and Lyell A. Williams. A comparison of “patronage”, “professionals”, and translation solutions shows that the two translators produced remarkable translation works at their time and their translation solutions are worth learning.

Index Terms—Lao She, patronage, professionals, translation solutions

Lao She, whose original name was Shu Qingchun, is one of the most prominent writers in modern Chinese literature. Many of his works, including his best-known works *Rickshaw Boy* (骆驼祥子) and *Teahouse* (茶馆), have been translated by other translators. This paper has chosen *Black Li and White Li* (黑白李) because it was Lao She's first short story translated into English in the US. Based on Manipulation Theory (Lefevere, 2004) and Skopos (Reiss & Vermeer, 2013), this paper attempts to investigate why and how translators adopted different translation solutions (Pym et al., 2020) in the two translation works on Lao She's *Black Li and White Li* (黑白李). This paper consists of five parts: I. A brief introduction of the story; II. A brief introduction of the two translators; III. The comparison of the external translation constraints and the internal constraints of the two translators; IV. The comparison of translation solutions of the two translation works; V. Conclusion.

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF THE STORY

Black Li and White Li was written and first published in 1933 in *Literature Quarterly* (文学季刊) (Zhang, 2016). It was a story set in 1920s Beijing where two brothers, one old-fashioned and the other revolutionary, shared a profound brotherhood even though they had different views of life. The two brothers resembled but were distinguishable as Black Li, the elder brother, had a black mole over his left eyebrow. In the story, Black Li followed Chinese rituals and sacrificed his love and his life for his younger brother, the young anarchist. On the other hand, the younger brother White Li tried to keep his brother away from being implicated (Lao She, 1933, 2004).

This was a special story at its time. First, it was inspired by Charles Dicken's famous novel *A Tale of Two Cities* and Lao She followed the narrative structure of modern English stories. Second, Lao She was a master of Chinese and the Beijing dialect. The fluent application of idioms in the story added to the story a special flavor (Zhang, 2016).

II. AN INTRODUCTION OF TWO TRANSLATORS

There are three English versions of *Black Li and White Li*. This paper focuses on the earliest and the last versions because they were published at different times by university presses in the United States and different social settings could help us have a clearer picture of why and how the translation solutions of the two translators were employed.

The earliest English version of *Black Li and White Li* was translated by Wang Chi-Chen in 1944 and published by Columbia University Press. The last one was translated by William A. Lyell in 1999 and published by the University of Hawaii Press (Lyell & Chen, 1999).

Wang Chi-Chen, a scholar born in a traditional intellectual family in Shandong province, graduated from Tsinghua University in 1922 and later studied at Columbia University. After graduation, he started translating Chinese classics and his *Dream of Red Chamber* was first published in 1927 by Doubleday Doran Co. in New York and Routledge in London at the same time (Guan, 2016). The translation brought great fame to Wang and he had been offered a teaching position in Chinese literature at Columbia University from the 1930s until he retired in the 1980s. In the 1930s and 1940s, Wang translated three books published by Columbia University Press, *Ah Q and Others*, *Selected Stories of Lusin* (1941), *Traditional Chinese Tales* (1944), and *Contemporary Chinese Stories* (1944). *Black Li and White Li* was the first translated story of Lao She in *Contemporary Chinese Stories*.

The last English version was from William A. Lyell, an American research specialist at Stanford University. An avid fan of Lu Xun's works, Lyell showed equal admiration for Lao She and translated a bulk of his works, such as the novel *Cat Country* (Lyell, 1970) and dozens of Lao She's short stories (Lyell & Chen, 1999).

III. THE COMPARISON OF THE EXTERNAL TRANSLATION CONSTRAINTS AND THE INTERNAL CONSTRAINTS OF THE TWO TRANSLATORS

Lefevere (2004), in his manipulation theory, discussed two controlling factors that constrain the literary system: professionals and patronage. According to Lefevere (2004), professionals were internal constraints as they were closely related to the literary system, such as critics, reviewers, teachers, academics and translators. They might partly determine the dominant poetics. Patronages, such as publishers, academic institutions, or academic journals, were external constraints.

Skopos, the Greek word for “aim” or “purpose”, was first introduced by Vermeer as a term to demonstrate the purpose of a translation and the primal guideline of the action of translating (Reiss & Vermeer, 2013). In Skopos theory, achieving functional adequacy is a paramount task to the translators where the translators should be primarily concerned with the coherence of the target text. The fidelity rule, therefore, maintains that coherence in the target text is achieved, firstly, by how the translators receive the source text information, how the translators interpret what they have comprehended and how readers, or the target text receivers encode the target information (Reiss & Vermeer, 2013).

In this paper, “patronage” refers to the publishers in the US at different times; “professionals” refer to translators with different educational backgrounds, personal experiences, and ideologies of translation.

The patronage for Wang Chi-Chen’s translation was Columbia University Press and the translation works were aimed at readers in the 1940s (Reiss & Vermeer, 2013). As an ally of the US in WWII, China was a popular topic in the then US. Columbia University Press thus published a collection of books to introduce China from different aspects in the 1940s (Wang, 2000), and literature was just one part. As Wang Chi-Chen was teaching at the university and known for his proficient mastery of English and Chinese, he was invited to translate and introduce Chinese literary works to American readers.

William A. Lyell’s translation was published by the patronage, University of Hawaii Press in 1999. At that time, the great economic development in East Asia aroused another hot wave of oriental studies in the US. Hawaii University Press had an ambitious plan to publish a series of translation works to showcase the works of contemporary Chinese novelists in fresh and authoritative translations and from a range of cultural and political milieus (Goldblatt; cited in Lyell & Chen, 1999).

Unlike commercial press which concerns more about profits, the university presses are non-profit academic organizations and are more knowledge-oriented. Aiming at intellectuals and potential intellectuals of university students, the publishers view high-quality academic books as a priority. Therefore, translators, to contribute to the readers with high-quality translation works, were granted a wide space of freedom in translating material selections and in choosing translation solutions. In a word, the two translators are less under external constraints but more under internal ones in translating Lao She’s work.

In the preface of *Contemporary Chinese Stories*, Wang Chi-Chen (1944, p. vii) elucidated his purpose of translating contemporary Chinese stories: to show readers in the US more works of the “other side of China’s life”. The primary reason is that Wang Chi-Chen was deeply influenced by New Cultural Movement. As Lu Xun was Wang’s preference, Wang translated *Ah Q and Others, Selected Stories of Lusin* in 1941. However, there were negative reactions from “better sorts” of Chinese who remarked they were embarrassed at Lu Xun’s portrayal of “the other side of China’s life”. Wang was disappointed at the remarks and began his translations of contemporary Chinese stories. He selected Lao She’s works because those works gleamed with the acute observation of Chinese ordinary people’s life and were realistic. Another reason for the translation of Lao She’s works is that Lao She’s *Black Li and White Li* followed the style of English stories. After the great success of his *Dreams of Red Chamber*, Wang was aware that Chinese stories, adapted to English narrative structure, were more readable and acceptable to English readers. With the goal of portraying “the other side” of China’s life to English readers (Reiss & Vermeer, 2013), Wang adopted similar translation solutions as in his *Dreams of Red Chamber*.

In “Translator’s Postscript: the man and the stories”, included at the end of the book, Lyell (Lyell & Chen, 1999) asserted his purpose of translating Lao She’s work. In the 1970s Lyell accomplished his Ph.D. dissertation on Lu Xun and his works (Zheng & Huang, 2019). He translated *Diary of a Madman, and other stories* written by Lu Xun. A scholar with rich knowledge about China, Lyell was later keenly interested in Lao She’s works and highly acknowledged Lao She’s personal charm through Lao She’s works. Lyell claimed reading Lao She’s short stories was like viewing China through the perspective of Lao She. Lyell insisted that reading Lao She’s works was an enjoyable experience for English readers to know China and to understand the spirit of China. Furthermore, his experiences of teaching Chinese literature in universities amazed him that Lao She was one of the most well-known Chinese writers to university students in the US. Therefore, he believed Lao She was unique to every reader. As a translator, what he should do was present Lao She’s works with as little of his personal conception as possible, leaving readers the chance to get “a more accurate impression of Lao She’s own voice” with their own eyes (Lyell & Chen, 1999). Therefore, the Skopos Lyell persisted in translation was to present the source text to its full, without any omission. Moreover, in terms of some culture-loaded expressions, he provided explanations in an academic demeanor.

IV. THE COMPARISON OF TRANSLATION SOLUTIONS OF THE TWO TRANSLATION WORKS

In this section, examples are chosen to demonstrate how internal constraints, that is, educational backgrounds, personal experiences, and ideologies of translation, have influenced translation solutions in the two translated works. The comparative analysis is conducted first at the discourse level to look at how sentences and words were translated in the context, then the analysis goes to the translation solutions on culture-loaded words. Each example, after the source text, Wang's version, and Lyell's version, is followed by the comments.

A. *Translation Solutions at the Discourse Level*

A parallel comparison between the source text and Wang's translation work has shown that Wang employed "text tailoring" (Pym et al., 2020), through which the omitted materials in the story can be more accessible to the English narrative structure. In fact, in the source text, there were many places where the narrator "I", who was also the avatar of Lao She himself, gave speculative comments about Black Li's behavior. To Wang Chi-Chen, such parts deviated from the plots and they were not useful in depicting "the other side" of China. Also, the integrality would not suffer by deleting these parts. Besides, to keep the flow of the story in English narration, Wang employed "perspective change" (Pym et al., 2020) to frequently rephrase some parts of the story.

Lyell's version, through the comparison with the source text, also revealed that it followed "text tailoring" (Pym et al., 2020), yet in another manner. That is, in addition to translating fully the work, Lyell employed "density change" (Pym et al., 2020), such as using explicitation, multiple translations and endnotes to display the translation in a more academic way. The added materials to the story were expected to enrich readers' understanding of the source text.

Example 1

Source text: "爱情不是他们兄弟俩这档子事的中心，可是我得由这说起。" (Lao She, 1933, 2004, p. 233).

Wang's version: "Love is not the central theme in this story of the two brothers, but it forms a convenient point of departure." (Wang, 1944, p. 25).

Lyell's version: "Love wasn't at the heart of that business between the brothers, but that's where I've got to begin." (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 45).

This is the first sentence of the short story. In Wang's version, the second half of the sentence was, with the translation solution of changing the semantic focus, rephrased. Such a solution epitomizes the translator's intention to tell a Chinese story in a way more acceptable to English readers. However, the second half of the first line from Lyell's translation has proved that Lyell's intention was to, through his translation, leave the readers to understand Lao She's works.

Example 2

Source text: "老四跟我好闹了一场，"他说，我明白这个“好”字--第一他不愿说兄弟间吵了架，第二不愿只说弟弟不对。这个字带出不愿说而犹不能不说的曲折。"因为她....."(Lao She, 1933, 2004, p. 233).

Wang's Version: "Four and I had quite a little row," he went on after a while, "because of her. ..." (Wang, 1944, p. 27).

Lyell's Version:

"Old Four and I got into a good one." I knew exactly what he meant by "got into a good one." First off, he didn't want to come straight out and say they'd had a fight. And then, too, he didn't want to lay the whole thing on his kid brother, either, even if it was White Li who was in the wrong. "Got into a good one" was also a handy way of avoiding saying something that really ought to be said, but he didn't want to say. "It was all because of her...." (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 48)

This example occurred at the start of the story when White Li, to get engaged in his revolution without bringing trouble to Black Li, worked out an excuse that White Li wanted to alienate Black Li as they fell for the same girl. In the source text, Lao She, the narrator of "I", gave some comments on the situation.

In Wang's version, Wang only included Black Li's words in the dialogue, and he converted the source text with the sentence "he went on after a while" to introduce the subsequent dialogue. Wang did this because what he decided was to tell readers a story in English narration.

In Lyell's version, fidelity in translation is strictly followed so that readers can form their own impression of Lao She's work. To achieve fidelity in form, Lyell has kept cohesive devices in the source text with "first off; and then, too; also". To maintain the original meanings in the source text, he used explicitation to keep meanings clearer. For example, he added "even if it was White Li who was in the wrong" to explain "不愿只说弟弟不对".

Example 3

Source text:

时间越长，他的故事越多。有一个礼拜天的早晨，我看见他进了礼拜堂。也许是看朋友，我想。在外面等了他一会儿。他没出来。不便再等了，我一边走一边想：老李必是受了大的刺激—失恋，弟兄不和，或者还有别的。只就我知道的这两件事说，大概他已经支持不下去了。他的动作仿佛是拿生命当作小玩艺，那正是因他对任何小事都要慎重地考虑。茶碗上的花纹摆不齐都觉得不舒服。哪一件小事也得在他心中摆好，摆得使良心上舒服。上礼拜堂去祷告，为是坚定良心。良心是古圣先贤给他制备好了的，可是他又不愿将一切新事新精神一笔抹杀。结果，他“想”怎样，老不如“已是”怎样来得现成，他不知怎样

才好。他大概是真爱她，可是为了弟弟，不能不放弃她，而且失恋是说不出口的。他常对我说，“咱们也坐一回飞机。”说完，他一笑，不是他笑呢，是“身体发肤，受之父母”笑呢。

过了晌午，我去找他。按说一见面就得谈老四，在过去的一个多月都是这样。这次他变了花样，眼睛很亮，脸上有点极静适的笑意，好像是又买着一册善本的古书。(Lao She, 1933, 2004, p. 239)

Wang's Version:

As time went on he took up more hobbies. One Sunday morning I caught him entering a church. Thinking that he might have gone in to see someone, I waited for him outside. He did not come out, however, and I gave up waiting for him. He had apparently decided to seek refuge in religion. I found him home that afternoon. For more than a month now. Four had been our sole topic of conversation, but on this occasion, he deviated from that usual routine. His eyes gleamed and there was a serene smile on his face, as if he had just acquired a rare old edition of some book. (Wang, 1944, p. 31)

Lyell's Version:

As time went by, he began doing more and more odd things. One Sunday morning I even saw him go into a church. Thinking he'd probably gone in to look for a friend, I waited outside, but he didn't come out right away. I couldn't wait around forever, so I left. I mulled it all over as I walked along. His peculiar behavior must be the result of the various shocks he'd suffered--a lost love, a falling out with his younger brother, and maybe something else, something even I didn't know about. If you just stick to the two things I *did* know about, either one would be enough to send him around the bend.

If you looked at the way he carried himself, you might have thought that he saw his own life as one of the antiques he collected, for you would sense that same note of careful consideration with which he approached everything, no matter how trivial. If the fish on the tea bowls didn't face in exactly the same direction, he'd be upset. It was like that with anything that came into his life. He always had to take it and arrange it in his mind with that same kind of care, get it just right so that it wouldn't bother his conscience.

Going to church was, no doubt, intended to strengthen that conscience, one that had long since been prepared for him by the sages of antiquity. And yet, he didn't want to dismiss everything new at one fell swoop just for the sake of that conscience, either. The upshot of all this was that the kind of guy he'd like to be was no match for the kid of guy he already was, and he just couldn't figure out what he ought to do. He probably really did love her but, for the sake of his younger brother, had no choice but to give her up, and that was something he couldn't tell anyone—even me.

He'd often say, "One of these days you and I are going to take an airplane ride, too!" Then he'd smile. But he wasn't really the one doing the smiling. From the parental pair come body, skin, and hair - and all that stuff from the classics about how a good elder brother is supposed to act was somewhere inside Black Li doing the smiling for him.

I went and looked him up after lunch. For more than a month now, as soon as we met, he'd start in about his brother. But his time he changed his tune. There was a slight twinkle in his eyes and just the trace of a satisfied smile on his face, the kind you'd often see just after he'd succeeded in buying a rare book. (Lyell, 1999, pp. 55-56)

In Example 3, the underlined parts in the source text and Wang's version indicate the translator only chose parts that might serve the plot development, deleting nearly 2/3 of the source text. Based on his understanding of the source text, Wang also achieved "perspective change" through rephrasing (Pym et al., 2020) For example, "故事" (gushi in pinyin) has been changed to "hobbies", which seemed reasonable as it meant similarly to the other two expressions of "小把戏" (xiaobaxi in pinyin), "小玩意" (xiaowanyi in pinyin), which appeared earlier in the source text (Lao She, 1933, 2004, p. 234). The sentence "He had apparently decided to seek refuge in religion" covered the idea of the deleted parts. However, if the source text was carefully read, it could be discerned that such a translation was a rough and inaccurate inference through Wang Chi-chen.

Lyell's version in Example 3 has shown that the translator not only covered the whole content of that excerpt, but also did explicitation in an academic way. The translation of "身体发肤，受之父母" is a piece of solid evidence.

The fixed idiom "身体发肤，受之父母" ("shenti fafu, shouzhi fumu" in pinyin) implied Black Li was a very old-fashioned person. Even though he claimed he would try flying one day, his belief that his body, skin, and hair were given by his parents would never allow him to risk himself because trying flying would violate the practices he learned from Filial Piety. As for such an idiom, Wang Chi-chen omitted it deliberately.

In Lyell's understanding, this idiom was important to demonstrate the mindset of a conservative Chinese person in the early 20th century. He sought faithful translation by copying the original structure of the Chinese idiom, hoping modern readers could fully understand old China's life. He even added an endnote (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 67) to discuss the importance of the Classic of Filial Piety for Black Li and "I", and the tenets an elder brother was expected to follow.

In a word, the three examples above reveal that compared with Lyell's fidelity to the form and content of the source text, Wang's translation is more like an abridged version in nature with frequent rewriting to keep the flow of the plots.

Example 4

Source text:

我还记得清清楚楚；正是个初夏的晚间，落着点小雨，我去找他闲谈，他独自在屋里坐着呢，面前摆着四个红鱼细磁茶碗。我们俩是用不着客气的，我坐下吸烟，他摆弄那四个碗。转转这个，转转那个，把红鱼要一点不差的朝着他。摆好，身子往后仰一仰，像画家设完一层色那么退后看看。然后，又逐一的转开，把另一面的鱼们摆齐。又往后仰身端详了一番，回过头来向我笑了笑，笑得非常天真。(Lao She, 1933, 2004, p. 233)

Wang's version:

I remember it well. It was an evening in early summer with a light rain falling. I went to see him and found him alone in the room with four fine porcelain teacups decorated with red fish before him. As we never stood on ceremony with each other, I sat down with a cigarette while he went on studying the cups. He turned first this one and then that and went on doing that until he had all the fish exactly facing him. After he had arranged them to his satisfaction he leaned back and looked at them like a painter withdrawing from his canvas in order to get a better perspective of his work. Then he rearranged the cups so that the fish on the other side faced him and again leaned back to look at them. He turned and smiled at me with satisfaction. (Wang, 1944, p. 26)

Lyell's version:

I remember it like it was yesterday. It was an early summer's night and a light drizzle was coming down. I went over to Black Li's to chew the fat. I found him alone in his room. He had four tea bowls set out in front of him. They were porcelain and decorated with goldfish. We never stood on ceremony, so I just plopped down and took out a cigarette. He was fiddling with those damned bowls. First he gave one a turn, and then another, until he had all the goldfish lined up so they faced him at exactly the same angle; he leaned back and looked down the bridge of his nose at them, the way an artist might look at a painting after adding a masterful stroke. And then he switched them all around until he had the goldfish on the *other* side lined up in the same way. He leaned back again, gave them another once-over, and then turned to me.

He was grinning just like a kid—a very young one at that. (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 46)

By reading the two translated versions, it is quite obvious that syntactically the sentences were generally similar except for several minor places. With the goal of creating a story, Wang simplified “我去找他闲谈” to “I went to see him”, deleting the word “闲谈” while Lyell, instead of using a more common word of “chat”, chose a colloquial expression, “chew the fat”, to help readers enjoy the beauty of local dialect in the source text. “to chew the fat” means “to talk with someone in an informal and friendly way”. (<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/chew-the-fat>) Moreover, both translators used explicitation to describe how Black Li was studying and turning the four cups like an artist. Yet when translating the last clause of “笑得非常天真” (literally meanings “smiling naively”), Wang rephrased the part and used “with satisfaction”, instead. Lyell, gave explicitation to “naive” with “grinning, like a kid, a very young one”, to keep faithfulness to the source text.

B. Translation Solutions of Culture-Loaded Words

Born and bred in old Beijing, Lao She was a language master in depicting the local people's life and the local culture. The following examples show the different translation solutions to culture-loaded words.

(a). Translating Terms of Addressing Titles

Examples 5 to 8, with the differences in translating words of kinship, display different translation ideologies of the two translators.

Example 5

Source text: “...老四跟我好闹了一场”，他说... (Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 234)

Wang's version: “Four and I had quite a little row,” he went on after a while... (Wang, 1944, p. 27)

Lyell's version: “Old Four and I got into a good one.” (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 48)

Example 6

Source text: “...他老拿我当作‘弟弟’，老拿自己的感情限定住别人的行动...” (Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 237)

Wang's version: “... He is always so solicitous about me, his didi, always trying to work on my feelings...” (Wang, 1944, p. 29)

Lyell's version: “... He always thinks he's gotta look out for his 'kid brother'. Tries to dictate my activity on the basis of his feelings...” (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 52)

Example 7

Source text: “四爷不管我的腿，可是管我的心；二爷是家长里短，可怜我的腿，可不管这儿。”他又指了指胸口。(Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 243)

Wang's version: “Ssu-yeh doesn't care anything about my legs, but he cares about my heart. Erh-yeh is considerate and pities my legs, but he doesn't care anything about here.” He pointed to his heart again. (Wang, 1944, p. 35)

Lyell's version: “Fourth Master couldn't care less about my legs, but he cares about the way I feel. Second Master worries about every piddlin' little thing inside the family and he's got real sympathy for my legs, but he really doesn't care about me here.” He pointed to his chest again. (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p.62)

Example 8

Source text: “老二大概是进了天堂，他在那里顶合适了；我还在这儿砸地狱的门呢。”(Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 247)

Wang's version: “Lao Erh has probably gone up to Heaven. That's the right place for him. I, however, have to go on trying to break down the gates of Hell.” (Wang, 1944, p. 39)

Lyell's version: “Old Two is probably up in heaven -- just the place for him--and I'm down here still trying to smash down the gates of hell”. (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p.67)

In the four examples, the Chinese ways of addressing titles and kinship, such as “老二，老四，弟弟，二爷，四爷”，are translated differently. In most cases, Lyell has opted for “cultural correspondence” (Pym et al., 2020). He used a Western way of addressing titles, For example, he used the American slang “the kid brother” to mean “弟弟”，“Fourth Master, Second Master” to “四爷，二爷”，and “Old Two” to “老二”.

On the other hand, Wang adopted transliteration, or copying sounds after Chinese words, to address the titles of the characters and refer to the Chinese way of kinship, for example, “Erh-yeh”, “Ssu-yeh” and “Lao Erh”. In fact, this way of naming Chinese titles was maintained after Wang translated *Dream of Red Chamber*. It helped readers to understand the social ranks and the addressing system in China, a unique feature of China. In case such an addressing system might confuse the readers, Wang appended a glossary for further explanation (Wang, 1944, pp. 228-234).

(b). Translating Idioms and Colloquial Expressions

Lao She was a master of the Beijing dialect. In *Black Li and White Li*, he used idioms to display the unique local flavor. To Wang Chi-chen, he was the most concerned with the plots, so anything not closely relevant to the plot was deleted. For example, the idiom “身体发肤，受之父母”，as discussed previously, was not translated by Wang. How were the idioms both translators came across translated? Here four examples are chosen.

Example 9

Source text: “所以你不是现代人，”我打着哈哈说。(Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 234)

Wang's version: “That's why you're not a man of this age,” I said jokingly. (Wang, 1944, p. 26)

Lyell's version: “Shows you're not a very up-to-date guy,” I said, trying to make light of the whole thing. (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 47)

Example 9 came as the narrator's comment when he was informed that Black Li gave up the love affairs that three parties were involved in for the brotherhood. “打着哈哈” (dazhe haha in pinyin) is a colloquial expression spoken in the northern part of China, meaning giving vague comments to avoid embarrassing the speakers involved. From the Chinese meaning, Lyell's version is better as it is more faithful to the context.

Example 10

Source text: 不是：老狗熊学不会新玩艺了。三角恋爱，不得劲儿。(Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 234)

Wang's version: It's not that, but you can't teach an old circus bear new tricks. I can't go in for these triangular affairs.” (Wang, 1944, p. 26)

Lyell's version: “It's not that exactly. It's just that you can't teach an old dog new tricks. Triangular love affair? Not for me.” (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p.47)

The source text occurred when Black Li told the narrator that he withdrew from the love affairs. In the source text, 老狗熊 is a metaphor to refer to Black Li as one who did not want to learn a new way. In Wang's version, the old bear is given with explicitation as an “old circus bear” to help readers understand the original meaning. Lyell found a perfect match for the Chinese expression with American slang “teach an old dog new tricks”, achieving the cultural correspondence of the two languages. Such a translation is better of the two as through the American slang, the English readers can sense the charm of Beijing idioms.

Example 11

Source text: “..... 老二以为这个关系应当叫作神圣的, 所以他郑重地向她磕头, 及至磕了一鼻子灰, 又以为我也应去磕, 对不起, 我没那个瘾”。 (Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 236)

Wang's version: “... Two, however, seems to think there is something sacred about it and insists on Kowtowing before her. Now after he only got his nose smeared with dirt for all the kowtowing he did, he wants me to do the same thing. I am sorry, but I don't care for that sort of thing.” (Wang, 1944, p. 28)

Lyell's version: “... Number Two thinks that there's something holy about that desire, and so he throws himself at her feet. And what's he got to show for it? Face full of dirt. He thinks I ought to do the same thing. Sorry folks, but I'll have to take a pass on that one!” (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p.50)

This dialogue was from White Li when he was commenting to the narrator on Black Li's vain effort to apologize to “her” and asked for a reunion between “her” and White Li. In terms of the expression 磕头 (ketou in pinyin), Wang employed transliteration, copying sounds of the expression “kowtow” while Lyell gave a vivid picture with a verbal phrase “throws himself at her feet”. As to “磕了一鼻子灰” (ke le yibizi hui in pinyin), Wang did literal translation by copying the structure of the source text while Lyell's translation used metonymy to discuss the consequence of Black Li's apology. Using rhetorical devices here has achieved a similar local flavor in translation as in the source text.

Example 12

Source text: 我晓得他还有话呢, 直怕他的酒气教酳茶给解去, 所以有紧了他一板: “往下说呀, 王五! 都说了吧, 反正我还能拉老婆舌头?” (Lao She, 1933/2004, p. 243)

Wang's version: I knew that he had more to tell and being afraid that the tea might get the better of the stimulating effects of the wine I urged him on: “Go on, Wang Wu! Tell me everything. I can gossip just as well as any woman, don't you worry!” (Wang, 1944, p. 35)

Lyell's version: I knew he had more to say and was afraid that the strong tea I'd given him would undo the loosening effect of the wine he'd drunk. So now I came in with a little drumbeat to keep him from losing his rhythm. “Come on, Wang Wu, get it all off your chest. After all, I'm not the kind to go round running off at the mouth like some old lay and get you in trouble.” (Lyell & Chen, 1999, p. 62)

Example 12 is from the latter part of the story where the narrator was eager to know how Black Li got White Li's secret anarchy deeds. In the source text, three underlined segments are colloquial and idiomatic expressions from the local dialect. For the first underlined segment, 酳茶 (yancha in pinyin) means strong tea, so both translators did the free translation of explaining the essential meaning of the expression. The second one, “紧了一板” (jinle yiban in pinyin) means to urge the chain of actions. Therefore, Wang did free translation by explicating the inner meaning of the expression. Lyell, on the other hand, achieved “cultural correspondence” by using “drumbeat”, a word familiar to US readers to mean the pressure to push Wang Wu to spill out more details. 拉老婆舌头 (la laopo shetou in pinyin) is an idiomatic expression spoken in the northern part of China, meaning “gossiping”. Both translators did the free translation, and Lyell's one was more lifelike.

In sum, through the eight examples in discussing translating culture-loaded words, we can see how two translators applied translation solutions to achieve their translating Skopos.

V. CONCLUSION

Wang Chi-Chen was the first one to translate Lao She's works to the readers of the United States. Through the translation solutions he employed, he displayed a fantastic Chinese story and partially brought Lao more recognition in the United States. Nearly half a century later, Lyell discovered that Lao She had been so well-known among students in the US that the students were bored of any critiques on Lao She (Lyell & Chen, 1999). Therefore, Lyell presented his translation work with different ideologies and translation solutions. It's hard to judge which of the two translations is better, yet they offered us different perspectives to understand the controlling factors in constraining literary translation.

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Social–Societal Context Element Changes in Cyberpragmatics Perspective

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Abstract—This article aims to describe evidence of change to the social–societal context seen from the cyber pragmatic perspective. The substantive data sources were texts on social media in which there were objects and data of this research. The data were collected by using the observation method equipped with note-taking techniques and recording techniques. Data were analyzed by applying the contextual analysis method. We applied the contextual analysis method or the extra lingual analysis method because of the cyberpragmatic perspective of this research with a virtual external context as the main determinant of its meaning. Before the analysis, data that were classified and typified properly were triangulated with the expert and consulted on relevant theories. The results show that the social–societal context element changes occur in the following context elements: (1) setting, (2) participants, (3) ends, and (4) instrumentalities. Setting element changes occurred in the aspects of venue, time, and atmosphere. The instrumental element changed in the aspects of the kinds of tools and the range of errand communication. The participant element changed in the aspects of perception of gender, age, and social status, and the last element, changed in the aspects of monodimensional goal manifestation and multidimensional goal manifestation.

Index Terms—cyberpragmatics, evidence of changes, multidimensional perspective, social–societal contexts

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a double-edged sword. Its use depends on the motive of the users (Rahardi, 2020a). In the disruptive era, the other side of the coin is technology. Technology is an integral part of culture and its development; it cannot be separated from the society that owns it (Goddard, 2009). Since language is the social mirror, language cannot be separated from technology, as in information, digital, and internet technology (Finegan, 1985). Furthermore, it should be emphasized that the close relationship between language and technology has great implications for the development of the study of language fields under the umbrella of linguistics (Williams, 2012). Of course, the greatest impact is on the study of meaning or pragmatic meanings in verbal communication, where language is the means of communication (Locher & Graham, 2010).

The study of meaning focuses on pragmatics (Mey, 2003; Rahardi, 2020). It continues to shift from the most conventional pragmatics, called systemic pragmatics or semantico-pragmatics due to its systemic and semantic dimensions, to the general pragmatics, to the culture-specific pragmatics, and is now developing into a new branch of pragmatics called cyberpragmatics (Locher, 2013; Orsini-Jones et al., 2017; Yus, 2011). The latest pragmatics is the most closely related to technology, especially digital-based technology and internet-based technology. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that the study of a speaker's meaning is bound to context, be it social–societal, cultural, or situational dimensions (Rahardi, 2020a; Rahardi, 2020b). The three types of context in pragmatics play a simultaneously important role in determining the speaker's meaning. Ignoring contexts in interpreting the speaker's meaning will result in misunderstanding, fuzziness, and ambiguity (Mey, 2003). However, each type of context in pragmatics plays a significant role in determining what to mean.

The social–societal context plays an important role in determining the meaning of societal pragmatics introduced by (Mey, 2003). Cultural context is very important in determining the speaker's meaning from the perspective of cultural pragmatics, both in the sense of intercultural pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, and culture-specific pragmatics proposed by Blum-Kulka (1987) and Halliday (1978). The situational context plays an important role in determining meaning in the general pragmatics perspective (Leech, 2007) and subsequent pragmatic developers (Limberg, 2009; Rahardi, 2019b). Thus, in the various types of pragmatics, it is clear that there is evidence of meaning triadicities, instead of meaning disabilities as the focal point in semantics (Rahardi, 2020a; Rahardi, 2020d).

This article should contribute to pragmatic studies both in and outside of Indonesia, which have not been explored fully. The development of pragmatic studies has lagged behind other fast-growing and ever-increasing research in linguistic and nonlinguistic phenomena. The development of digital technology and internet technology impacts the increasing use of language in social media, which inevitably results in various hoaxes and hate speech. The use of language in social media is not accommodated well in various research in language studies. Consequently, the issues of meaning in verbal communication are not elaborately researched. The ensuing consequence is the rampant cases of confusion, fuzziness, and misunderstanding in social media communication. Now is the right momentum for the study

of pragmatics to evolve from general pragmatics to virtual or cyberpragmatics. Similarly, the study of contexts in pragmatics must evolve from conventional external contexts to virtual external contexts.

This short paper focuses only on the socio-societal context from the cyberpragmatic perspective. The dimensions of the social–societal context to be described in this paper deal with the nature of changes, namely the changes to the elements of context. In certain cases, the description of the changes will be more exhausted to the aspects of each element of the social–societal context. As mentioned earlier, the changes are the results of the development of information technology, digital technology, and internet technology. It is important to describe the evidence and aspects of the element changes so that the interpretation of digital and virtual dimension speech is easier and clearer. Based on the description, the research problem is formulated as: “What is the evidence of the social–societal context element changes found in cyberpragmatics?” In agreement with the formulated problem, this article’s objective is to describe the evidence of the social–societal context element changes in cyberpragmatics.

II. THEORETICAL REVIEWS

In this article, two basic theories are discussed as a framework of reference, namely the theory related to the changes from systemic pragmatics to cyberpragmatics (Locher, 2013; Yus, 2016), and the theory linked to the changes from conventional external context to virtual external context (Berry, 2006; Beyer, 2007; Rahardi, 2018). Regarding the first theory, it is worth noting that the study of the speaker’s meaning is not independent of the semantic meaning (Chen, 2017). The pragmatic study is still oriented to two branches, namely semantics, and pragmatics. The systemic semantic meaning study is known as the systemic pragmatics era or semantico-pragmatics (Ray, 2004; Setyaningsih & Rahardi, 2020). Thus, the study of meaning is still dependent on the study of semantic meaning, which is dyadic.

The rigor of the study of meaning emerged coincidentally with the interdisciplinary linguistic sciences such as ecolinguistics (Gerbig, 2010; Kravchenko, 2016). Ecolinguistics was further developed into metaphorical ecolinguistics and naturalistic ecolinguistics (Setyaningsih & Rahardi, 2020). Both branches of ecolinguistics emerged to respond to formalists’ perspectives in linguistics who view language as being homogeneous. In its development, the sociology of language evolved into sociolinguistics, focusing on language variations. Contexts in sociolinguistics are needed to identify language variations, while contexts in ecolinguistics are needed to identify the role of the environment as metaphorical and naturalistic (Mühlhäusler & Peace, 2006; Wimberley & Scott, 2017). Thus, from the functionalists’ perspective, the entity of contexts is seen as important as its existence.

Functionalism in linguistics assumes that language is heterogeneous. Language is never singular and homogeneous as the formalists believe (Jaszczolt, 2018; Wijana, 1997). The study of meaning is understood along that line. Originally, the study of meaning focuses on the dyadic meaning of a word. Recently, the study of meaning has focused on the triadic meaning of a word. The triadic meaning is derived from the involvement of and dependence on contexts because language is never independent of the context (context-bound) (Rahardi, 2019a; Verschueren, 1985). Although the study of meaning has shifted from the pure semantic meaning to the study of the speaker’s meaning, in its early development, the functionalists had their footings on two sides, namely the semantic side and the pragmatic side.

The next stage is the development of general pragmatics. The development of pragmatic rules is linked to pragmatic parameters, pragmatic principles, Cooperative Principles, politeness principles, and other linguistic principles based on Western languages and cultures (Sperber & Wilson, 2002; Wearing, 2015). The study of language in non-European and non-American countries has not been widely explored. Thus, the pragmatic rules formulated based on the study of European and American languages are followed, borrowed, and applied blindly to the study of Mediterranean and Asian languages. Of course, the rules are not always applicable to all. The principle of linguistic politeness and its maxims, for example, cannot always be implemented in Asian society and cultures (Leech, 2007; Locher & Graham, 2010). Similarly, the cooperative principle and its maxims are not always suitable for non-Western communities and cultures. Thus, the development of general pragmatics, which led to the study of meaning based on external linguistic factors, was admittedly phenomenal in its heyday. However, it is no longer appropriate to apply it to the local languages and cultures. Meanwhile, local cultures possess a wealth of cultural wisdom and extraordinary cultural values (Rahardi, 2020; Roudometof, 2015).

Hence, the rigor to study meaning based on a specific local culture began. This development inspired cultural pragmatics, such as intercultural, cross-cultural, and culture-specific pragmatics. Therefore, pragmatics evolved into intercultural pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, and culture-specific pragmatics (Wierzbicka, 2012; Yu, 2011). From systemic pragmatics to cultural pragmatics and its variations, pragmatics’ development confirms the pragmatic studies’ gap as described earlier. However, along with pragmatic development, globalization is also crucial in affecting all aspects of social life. The industrial revolution and the emergence of globalization gave birth to the globalization perspectives proposed by Graddol (Beyer, 2007; Roudometof, 2015). In turn, they led to remarkable developments in information technology.

Language is increasingly complex as it involves aspects of information technology and digital devices. The development of increasingly complex matters is driven by the internet of things perspective of life (Palacio & Gustilo, 2016; Widiana, 2015). Language is inseparable from the technology-ridden reality. The original and simple function of a language to develop common sense and a vehicle for strengthening interpersonal cooperation seems to have been distorted. The growing use of language for different genres and purposes on social media has inevitably created hoaxes,

hate speech, and other language function abuse (Rahardi, 2020b). A new perspective in pragmatics, called cyberpragmatics, which is virtual, emerged in 2011 (Locher, 2015; Yus, 2011). Interpreting language cannot be independent of the virtual contexts as an inevitable impact of digital and internet technology manifested in various social media contexts such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, etc. With the advent of cyberpragmatics, the basis and concern of sociolinguistic studies have shifted from the social community to the virtual community (Yus, 2016). In the past, the similarity of the verbal repertoire between individuals creates a speech community. Now, the parameter has changed. The speech community has shifted to a virtual community.

The virtual community is not based on the similarity of verbal repertoire or the similarity of language competence (Schneider, 1999). The virtual community is characterized by the common interest in certain public figures, making the news in the digital media and the internet (Yus, 2016). Therefore, the netizens or the virtual community may not know each other, do not speak the same language, do not share the same cultural roots, and live thousands of kilometers away. Despite the long distance across different time zones, digital technology makes it possible for them to form a virtual community. Communication and interaction can be built and established well. They can even go beyond the social community in the past. This has led the researcher to examine the evidence of social–societal context elements and their aspects (González-Lloret, 2012; Rahardi, 2019b). It guides researchers to examine and observe more carefully and deeply the evidence of changes in social–societal context elements and their aspects. The preliminary study context is divisible into three, namely the social–societal context, cultural context, and situational context. The social–societal context is based on society (Rahardi, 2020b).

The social context has a horizontal dimension, while the societal context is vertical. Social contexts are intertwined with social distance and social equality, while societal contexts are intertwined with social status and social ladder. The social and societal contexts are very crucial to determine the speaker's meaning from the perspective of sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics, proposed by Leech (2007), and the societal aspects, proposed by Mey (2003). The social contexts have been identified, while the local context is elaborated by Rahardi (2017). Mey (2003) further explains the social context, and the local context is developed further by Rahardi (2017). The social–societal context is also intertwined with the cultural context. This context refers to the various cultural dimensions shared in society, including cultural knowledge, cultural behavior, cultural artifacts, and the cultural wisdom held by society. The nature of cultural context has been discussed by Blum-Kulka (1987), Halliday (1978), Rahardi (2016), Suszczyńska (2011), and Wierzbicka (2012).

The last type of context is situational context. Verschueren (1985) has specifically featured the situational context in Pragmatics. The general pragmatic studies typically address this general situational context. Subsequently, the virtual external context is currently being studied by Rahardi (2019b). This virtual external context will be very useful to study pragmatics from the perspective of cyberpragmatics (Dewi & Simanjuntak, 2017). In Rahardi's observation, the conventional external context has changed the context's elements and aspects. The result of the change is what Rahardi refers to as a virtual external context. The evidence of the changes is described in his articles, such as the change in the speaker and addressee, and other interlocutors. In the conventional external context, the three elements of context are usually seen from the dimensions of age, gender, and background (Hymes, 1979; Milroy & Gordon, 2003).

However, from the perspective of cyberpragmatics, the elements to consider in the interlocutors are aspects of their life, life philosophy, social circle, daily life, life mission, etc. The aspects attached to the interlocutors are very complex. Information on the interlocutors' gender and age alone will only inform the language variations. The pragmatic meaning of the speech will be correctly interpreted by taking into account the complex aspects mentioned earlier. Consider the other contextual elements, such as the channel of speech. The channels used to speak and communicate in the present are very different from those in the past. People needed to use "amplifiers" to hear their voices clearly by people from a long distance. For example, in remote villages, devices of pasimology, such as the sound of slit bamboo drums, bells, etc., are still used to signal incidents and summon villagers (Limberg, 2009; Patterson, 2010).

At present, such a device is ubiquitous and within a hand's reach, as in the "digital gadget." With digital devices such as smartphones, people can spread the news worldwide in just a matter of seconds by simply clicking or tapping the "share" button. On the one hand, the speed of information transmitted with the "digital gadget" device is an advantage (Palacio & Gustilo, 2016; Tarr & Warren, 2002). News travel in a fast, time-efficient, and effective manner. On the other hand, information speed is at the expense of language use, which is used carelessly. This may lead to long-term irrevocable damage to the language. It is so easy for religious groups, delinquent juveniles, and anarchist groups to plan and organize a crime or terrorist attack, and in just a matter of seconds, they orchestrate a series of attacks to destroy their targets.

In this paper, pragmatic theory shifts from systemic pragmatics to the cyberpragmatics; similarly, the theory of context changes from conventional external contexts to virtual external contexts. These contexts are used as a reference framework in this article.

III. METHODS

This research is descriptive-qualitative type. The source of this research's locational data is a variety of social media available on smartphones. The substantive data sources are texts on social media in which there are objects and data of this research. Furthermore, the object of this research is the evidence of a shift in the socio-societal context. This

research's data are excerpts of speech containing the object of research, which proves the shift in the social–societal context (Rahardi, 2020b). Therefore, it is obvious that the object of research, and its context, is the manifestation of the data in this study. The data were collected using the observation method, which is equipped with note-taking techniques and recording techniques. The recording and recording results are then transcribed for identification, selection, classification, and data typification (Mahsun, 2005).

Furthermore, the data were analyzed by applying the contextual analysis method. This contextual analysis method is applied by basing and linking the context. This contextual analysis method is also called the equivalent analysis method, especially the extra lingual equivalent analysis. The contextual analysis method or the extra lingual analysis method is applied because this research's perspective is the cyberpragmatics perspective with a virtual external context as the main determinant of its meaning (Locher, 2013). Before applying the analysis, data that has been classified and typified properly is triangulated with the expert and consulted on relevant theories. The purpose of implementing data triangulation is to ensure the validity of the analyzed data. After the triangulation process is complete and the data analysis process is done properly, the final step is to present the results of this study's analysis. Presentation of the analysis results is carried out by applying informal methods (Sudaryanto, 2015).

IV. RESULTS

In this section, two things are presented, namely research findings and discussions of the research findings. The researcher deliberately separates the research results from the discussion with the intention that these two things are clear and have a deep description. The following shows the presentation of the two parts presented one by one.

Elements of social–societal contexts change following the development of digital and internet technology. In addition to the context elements' changes, aspects of each social–societal context element are likely to change. The context elements are based on Dell Hymes' speaking grid, a classificatory grid as a descriptive framework for the ethnography of communication. Speaking is the mnemonic device to describe the setting, participants, ends, act sequence, keys, instrumentalities, norms, and genre. In this research, the setting can be differentiated into two, namely, the setting of place and the setting of time. The participants' element can be seen as two kinds, namely speakers as participants and hearers as participants. The element of objectives or ends can also be differentiated into two, namely the single and multiple ends. In addition, the element of norms can be divided into two, namely the norms of interaction and interpretation. The following table shows evidence of the changes.

TABLE 1
EVIDENCE OF SOCIAL–SOCIETAL CONTEXT CHANGES IN CYBERPRAGMATICS

Social–Societal Context Elements	Change Evidence	
	Existing	None
Settings of Time	√	
Settings of Place	√	
Speakers as Participants	√	
Hearers as Participants	√	
Single Ends	√	
Multiple Ends	√	
Acts Sequence		√
Keys of speaking		√
Passimologic Instrumentalities	√	
Digital Instrumentalities	√	
Norms of Interaction		√
Norms if Interpretation		√
Genres		√

V. DISCUSSIONS

Table 1 shows that the changes occur in the following grids: (1) participants, (2) setting, (3) ends, and (4) instrumentalities. Changes in the setting element occurred in the aspects of venue, time, and atmosphere. Changes in the participant element occurred in the aspects of perception of gender, age, and social status. Changes in the end element occurred in the aspects of monodimensional goal manifestation and multidimensional goal manifestation. Changes in the instrumentalities element occurred in the aspects of the kind of tools and the range of errand communication. Each piece of evidence of changes will be discussed in detail. The element of participants can be seen as two kinds, namely speakers as participants and hearers as participants. The element of settings can be differentiated into two, namely, the setting of place and time. The element of objectives or ends can also be differentiated into two, namely the monodimensional and multidimensional ends. Each of the above elements will be discussed in detail below.

A. Evidence of Context Change in the Participant's Element

The speaker and the addressee play very important roles in speaking and communication. With the speaker and the addressee, the other participants are the third party or audience involved in a conversation. In a real-life conversation, the presence of an audience determines the linguistic codes being used. The presence of a third party who has no

business in the subject matter may cause the speaker and the addressee inconvenience. The third party can be anyone who intentionally appears on the scene and wants to hear the conversation or any passersby who accidentally appear on the scene and overhear what is being said (Finegan, 1985; Schneider, 1999). The third-party could be any individual or a group of individuals. The age and gender of the speech participants were relevant to determining linguistic codes in the past. For instance, talking to children is different from talking to adults or the elderly. Similarly, the linguistic codes used to talk to men are different from those used to talk to women. In the study of language variations and the study of meaning, these elements are considered important.

From the perspective of cyberpragmatics, the aspects of participants are not the same as the ones presented earlier. When digital and internet technology is crucial to determine meaning in communication, the aspects discussed earlier do not play a significant role. Such aspects are not needed in a virtual conversation on social media whose participants have different cultural and social backgrounds (Yus, 2012). When we send a message, share news, and upload information and images on social media, should such aspects be considered? The answer is no. Anyone can share anything on social media in an instant, and it will be available online for anyone to see, regardless of their background, social interest, socio-political background, social circles, etc.

In other words, there has been a change in the boundaries of a region. Communication has become completely 'borderless' from one person to another. The aspects of age and gender are not important to be discussed in a virtual conversation. The comment sections in social media posts may involve people from different gender and age groups. The linguistic codes and manifestations are not determined by aspects of participants as identified earlier. This proves that in the virtual external context, the elements of participants have changed. Understanding the speaker's meaning by considering the change of the elements of the participants in cyberpragmatics will not result in the interpretation of the true meaning (Locher, 2013). Thus, the pragmatics' focus should be on different aspects from the earlier pragmatics because the aspects and context elements are different from those in the past. Table 2 showed the social-societal context changes in the element of participants.

TABLE 2
SOCIAL-SOCIETAL CONTEXT CHANGES IN THE ELEMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

Elements of Participants	External Context	
	Conventional	Virtual
Gender	Female or male	Any gender
Age	Young or old	Any age
Social Status	Degree of social status	None
Member of Community	Social community	Virtual community

B. Evidence of Context Change in the Settings Element

One of the most important social-societal elements to be considered in interpreting the meaning of an utterance is the setting. Setting refers to the situation where an utterance is spoken. However, the setting is limited to the situation and the physical and social setting in which the utterance occurs (Milroy & Gordon, 2003). In a specific social setting, such as a family gathering in a Javanese community, people tend to speak formally and politely. The language used considers acceptable manners and etiquette to ensure that everyone feels valued and respected by others. In contrast, in the factory setting, factory workers in a particular factory will use different linguistic codes from those who work in a different setting in a different region. It is evident that in the social-societal context, a speech event's physical setting will greatly determine the linguistic codes (Fill & Penz, 2017).

In a sacred physical setting, such as the funeral service in a Javanese village, people tend to behave solemnly and speak in a hushed tone. It is culturally understood that, on such a sacred occasion, people speak softly and behave politely. In the church, the mosque, or other places of worship, people are expected to behave politely and speak softly in a hushed tone. The social setting determines the linguistic codes used in speech events. This cultural norm was a part of a social convention in the past. However, in the era when people believe in freedom of speech and democracy, the physical, social, and environmental settings seem to have changed dramatically (Clyne, 2006). Social settings are no longer considered in social media speech events. In the digital era, people no longer care about the social setting, which required politeness from past participants. In this day and age, people are more concerned with the message's urgency (Rahardi, 2020a).

Once again, urgency is the sole determinant. In times of grief, people can send messages without considering the addressee's psychological setting. For instance, a student may text a lecturer through social media as if nothing special happened, even though he knows that the lecturer is in a grieving psychological state. A few decades ago, when a neighbor died, people in the whole neighborhood came to pay respect to the dead and to help around the house. Not a single kiosk or food stall opened, no one went to school or work, and children stopped playing. The whole neighborhood was mourning the bereaved family.

In the digital era, the setting of the speech event has changed dramatically. It is no longer relevant to interpret the speaker's meaning in the current pragmatic study from the conventional external contexts as in the past. Someone is forced to compromise, delay, or even cancel her/his intention when he/she considers the conventional elements too seriously instead of the virtual external contexts (Rahardi, 2020). Thus, the evidence of a change of setting is very

important to note to understand the speaker's meaning in communication in the era of disruption. This proves that pragmatic studies should focus on more complex dimensions, unlike systemic pragmatics, general pragmatics, and culture-specific pragmatics (Culpeper, 2010). Social–societal context changes in the element of settings (Table 3).

TABLE 3
SOCIAL–SOCIETAL CONTEXT CHANGES IN THE ELEMENT OF SETTINGS

Elements of Settings	External Context	
	Conventional	Virtual
Venue	Determining linguistic codes	Undetermining linguistic codes
Time	Determining linguistic codes	Undetermining linguistic codes
Atmosphere	Determining linguistic codes	Undetermining linguistic codes

C. Evidence of Context Change in the Ends Element

The “ends” element refers to the speaker's purpose in communicating with the addressee and other participants. In communicating and interacting with each other, people almost always have a goal or purpose in mind. A person who habitually greets his neighbor positively is considered a polite member of society. On the contrary, a person who does not socialize with their neighbors, let alone greet them, is considered arrogant, unfriendly, and antisocial. The Javanese people use the expression “*ilang Jawane*” to refer to someone who no longer observes the Javanese cultural norms. While waiting at a train station before a train ride, people normally strike up a polite conversation with fellow passengers. In such a setting, people tend to use phatic speech function to break the silence. When Indonesians meet fellow Indonesians in a foreign country, say in Europe or America, they will greet each other and strike up a conversation even though they have not known each other previously, simply because they are foreigners in the country. Thus, it is obvious that people greet each other and communicate for a purpose, whether the purpose is substantive, phatic, or others.

People have a communicative purpose when speaking. The linguistic codes people use may serve the function of small talk, a phatic function, or a substantial referential function commonly happening in verbal communication (Chen, 2017; Siegel, 2008). The notion of “ends” occurs in speech events and is considered to be true in sociolinguistics, systemic pragmatics, general pragmatics, and culture-specific pragmatics. The question remains whether in cyberpragmatics the notion of “ends” still applies. In other words, has the notion of “ends” changed in manifestations? It is safe to say that people have their “ends” in mind when they converse with others. However, the goals and purpose of communication in the present time are more multidimensional than the monodimensional goals and purposes of communication in the past (Chen, 2017).

The multidimensional goal or “end” occurs because life is getting more complex nowadays. An utterance that was interpreted individually in the past may have multiple meanings now. The utterance may have multiple ends. Metaphorically, in the past, when people shot a target, the bullet only hit one target at a time. In the era of cyberpragmatics, when people shoot, the bullet may hit several targets simultaneously. Thus, interpreting the purpose of people's speech in the era of cyberpragmatics is not as simple as it was in the past. People may not show their true colors in social media posts (Rasmussen, 2003). Behind their seemingly good image, they may have bad or even devilish intentions. This illustrates the changes from conventional external contexts to virtual external contexts. It is important to understand the new phenomena to warn people to be vigilant against strangers with hidden motives prowling in social media. Social–societal context changes in the element of ends (Table 4).

TABLE 4
SOCIAL–SOCIETAL CONTEXT CHANGES IN THE ELEMENT OF ENDS

Elements of Ends	External Context	
	Conventional	Virtual
Roles of ends	Determining linguistic codes	Undetermining linguistic codes
Characteristics of ends	Monodimensional ends	Multidimensional ends

D. Evidence of Context Change in the Instrumentalities Element

The element of social–societal contexts is related to the notion of a “channel” or medium to express the speaker's meaning to the addressee. In the past, to speak to a big audience, people used a loudspeaker or “amplifier” so that the meaning or purpose can be delivered well. As technology advances, the development of audio and video technology makes an impressive replacement (Swidler, 1986). To measure the success of a stage performance, the quality of audiovisual equipment during the show becomes the main consideration. News broadcasts are conveyed through loudspeaker devices to ensure the good quality of channels or “instrumentalities” in delivering the message. It is common to consider this as the conventional external context that applies to various pragmatics outside cyberpragmatics (Haider, 2019).

In today's internet era, the medium or “channel” to deliver meaning has changed dramatically. The medium to spread information is a small device within a hand's reach. Through smartphones, any information can go viral in a matter of seconds. In the past, tools to amplify the message were limited by time and space. However, from the perspective of cyberpragmatics, the channel is identified as smartphones. Through smartphones, the spread of the message or intention

is done simultaneously by tapping the sharing button in the smartphone (Binkley et al., 2012). The dissemination speed of the messages or information should go hand in hand with the quality of the information being delivered. Unconfirmed errors or inaccuracies in the information, no matter how small, will be irrevocable once they have spread to the world.

The rampant spread of fake news or hoaxes in social media lately is disconcerting as they are available to be read and accessed by everyone all over the world regardless of their inaccuracies. In the present-day world, one person can have several smartphones. They are also constantly connected to social media through their smartphones. When a person gives inaccurate information, instantly, many people respond to the errors for everyone to see. The dramatic changes in the "instrumentalities" of the virtual external context should be seriously heeded by the speakers and other speech participants from the perspective of cyberpragmatics (Bandura, 2002). Social–societal context changes in the element of instrumentalities (Table 5).

TABLE 5
SOCIAL–SOCIETAL CONTEXT CHANGES IN THE ELEMENT OF INSTRUMENTALITIES

Elements of Settings	External Context	
	Conventional	Virtual
Kind of tools	Passimological	Digital
Range of communication	Within the range	Beyond the range

VI. CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, it is important to restate the four pieces of evidence of changes in the social–societal context from the perspective of cyberpragmatics. The four pieces of evidence are in the elements of (1) participants, (2) setting, (3) ends, and (4) instrumentalities. The shift of elements of social–societal contexts from the conventional type to the virtual one determines the quality of communication in the disruptive era. Linguistics studies, especially about the branch of pragmatics, must refocus the core of the study, that is, the study of the speaker's meaning must be based on virtual external contexts. The impacts of informational, digital, and internet technology must be wisely considered in the study so that this branch of linguistics focusing on the study of speakers' meaning will run on the right track in the disruptive era. More extensive and in-depth observations of other elements of other social–societal contexts are called for to formulate evidence of changes more holistically. The detailed description and illustration of the evidence will significantly contribute to the growing research in the field of cyberpragmatics. Understanding the meaning of utterances in the digital and internet contexts will be easier to be done. Similarly, language will evolve with the community and culture where it is spoken, instead of being left behind due to limited research and observations of the community's language phenomena. Research rigors to examine the linguistic phenomena involving digital and digital technology must be encouraged in these modern times.

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Assessing Saudi EFL Learners' Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies: A Cross-Sectional Study

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Abstract—With extant studies producing inconclusive findings regarding English as foreign language (EFL) readers' metacognitive strategies, researchers are yet to investigate the perceived metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies among tertiary EFL learners with varying proficiency levels, an area that has not fully received attention in the Saudi context. Hence, this study investigated differences in the metacognitive reading strategies that Saudi students learning English as a foreign language used when reading English texts to determine whether metacognitive awareness varied across proficiency levels (low, intermediate, and high). The study adapted and administered the Survey of Reading Strategies questionnaire to 260 Saudi English majors and analyzed the data using independent-samples ANOVA across the three proficiency groups, and found how participants varied in their perceived use of reading strategies across global, problem-solving, and support strategy categories. Overall, EFL learners with high-proficiency reported global and problem-solving strategies more often than intermediate- and low-proficient groups did, while low-proficiency group reported using support strategies more often than high- and intermediate-proficiency groups did. The study results also revealed how problem-solving strategies were most frequently reported by study participants, followed by support and global strategies. Subsequently, two major pedagogical implications are discussed: the need for Saudi EFL readers to be exposed to diverse reading strategies to help facilitate their reading comprehension of English texts, as well to reading-strategy instruction, which should emphasize global, problem-solving, and support strategies for Saudi EFL learners with varying reading abilities across different reading tasks.

Index Terms—metacognition, reading strategies, survey of reading strategies (SORS), language proficiency groups

I. INTRODUCTION

English is the primary instructional language in most international educational systems worldwide. In academic settings, courses based on English as a foreign language (EFL) often require advanced reading comprehension skills to help language learners process challenging content in a variety of academic textbooks and text types (Alderson, 2000; Huang, 2006). It is not surprising then that research has already asserted how reading is one of the most demanding academic skills required for efficient learning in second language (L2) or foreign language contexts (Grabe, 2008; Grabe & Stoller, 2013). But since reading is established as a complex activity involving mental operations ranging from lower- to higher-level processes, EFL readers find it necessary to develop their reading comprehension skills and strategies to help them confront reading difficulties in various reading tasks and conditions.

However, reading researchers and practitioners have long recognized that it can be challenging to develop reading abilities in L2/FL reading contexts because of the various text-based, context-specific, and reader-related factors in operation, including lexical and/or structural difficulties of texts, readers' background knowledge, and cognitive and metacognitive abilities. Hence, language learners may continue to encounter obstacles in reading comprehension, particularly for academic texts, despite of displaying satisfactory language proficiency skills. Furthermore, in language learning contexts, reading remains a primary means of developing L2 aptitude and a strong determinant of academic success (Alderson, 2000; Grabe, 2008; Huang, 2006).

Defined as “thinking about thinking” (Flavell, 1987), metacognition, a concept developed in cognitive psychology, is the cornerstone of L2 reading comprehension and thus is relevant to academic literacy. Metacognition is the knowledge that individuals possess over their cognitive abilities. In reading contexts, it refers to how readers consciously engage with the text through self-regulatory actions such as planning, evaluating, and monitoring (Zhang, 2018). Developing metacognitive knowledge allows readers to use various cognitive strategies (e.g., word-guessing using contextual clues, translating, summarizing, or making inferences) to help them obtain successful comprehension (Meniado, 2016). Accordingly, metacognitive awareness is critical, as readers in language learning contexts are required to possess a repertoire of reading strategies (Alderson, 2000; Grabe, 2008; Huang, 2006; Zhang, 2018). EFL readers need to consciously select a set of reading strategies to facilitate their reading comprehension in reading tasks. Hence, by developing metacognitive awareness, FL readers recognize the cognitive abilities that help them regulate, monitor, and

evaluate the success or failure of the reading strategies employed to process a given text (Pressley & Gaskins, 2006). With that in mind, the present study aimed to assess the metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies among Saudi university-level students, and examine variations in reading strategy use across various language proficiency levels.

In essence, metacognitive awareness comprises two aspects: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. "Metacognitive knowledge" is an individual's knowledge of their cognitive processes, which are influenced by their beliefs, understanding of a given task, and perceptions about strategies that facilitate learning. Conversely, "metacognitive regulation" is a decision-making process based on learners' metacognitive knowledge and management of cognitive processes when engaged in a learning task (Schraw & Dennison, 1994; Zhang, 2018). Therefore, improving metacognitive awareness requires learners to plan, monitor, and evaluate their cognitive processes to attain optimal learning outcomes (Veenman et al., 2006). In FL reading, metacognitive awareness is significant for reading tasks that require strategic processing to address reading comprehension difficulties.

Over the years, there has been extensive research on reading strategies in various language learning and academic contexts regarding EFL learners' metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension (Alkhaleefah, 2017; Bilici & Subaşı, 2022; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Malcolm, 2009; Park, 2010; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) which has yielded a variety of, and sometimes overlapping, definitions and classifications of reading strategies (Alkhaleefah, 2016). For instance, Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) classified reading strategies as global, problem-solving, and support strategies. "Global strategies" are used to prepare readers for targeted reading tasks. They include skimming, scanning, setting a purpose for reading, previewing text characteristics, predicting, and activating prior knowledge. "Problem-solving strategies" are frequently used to solve reading problems encountered in a text (e.g., adjusting reading pace, reading aloud, word guessing, re-reading, and reading on). Finally, readers can resort to "support strategies" (e.g., using a dictionary, paraphrasing, note-taking, and help-seeking) to facilitate their comprehension of the text content.

Methodologically, existing reading strategy studies on various reading tasks and conditions have been conducted using varied introspective and retrospective instruments. These included inventories/questionnaires, recalls, and think-aloud protocols (Alkhaleefah, 2017; Al-Nujaidi, 2003; Al-Qahtani, 2020; Al Rasheed, 2014; Green & Oxford, 1995; Muhid et al., 2020; Prichard, 2014; Zhang & Wu, 2009). Most studies on EFL reading strategies have relied heavily on Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), originally constructed to measure language learners' metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies. This line of research has consistently focused on looking into language learners' perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension in a variety of global contexts (Malcolm, 2009; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Using quantitative designs, numerous studies computed the frequency of metacognitive strategy use among EFL learners for reading comprehension (Ahmadian & Pasand, 2017; Al-Nujaidi, 2003; Al-Qahtani, 2020; Al Rasheed, 2014).

Despite this growth in past research examining the quantity and frequency of language learners' reading strategies in various contexts, the results have been inconclusive and, sometimes, conflicting. For instance, Meniado (2016) found correlations between global, problem-solving, and support metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension among Saudi EFL readers in a preparatory year program. Other studies found that EFL readers reported support strategies as the most frequently used reading strategies, followed by global and problem-solving strategies (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Meniado, 2016; Pammu et al., 2014; Tavakoli, 2014). Conversely, studies using similar designs reported that EFL readers used problem-solving strategies more frequently than support and global strategies (Al-Sobhani, 2013; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Yüksel, 2012). Furthermore, Ahmadian and Pasand (2017) concluded that global strategies were more frequently used than problem-solving or support strategies.

Given this increase in research on EFL metacognitive reading strategies in various language learning contexts involving participants with varying proficiency and other reader-related variables (e.g., gender, age, and motivation), findings regarding EFL learners' metacognitive reading strategies remain inconclusive. Researchers have yet to investigate the perceived metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies among Saudi EFL university learners with varying proficiency levels. Thus, the present study aimed to bridge this research gap by examining the frequency at which language learners reported using different reading strategies, and whether significant variations in reading strategy use could be detected across proficiency levels. Hence, the present study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. How often do Saudi EFL learners use different reading strategies when reading English texts?
2. Which reading strategies do Saudi EFL learners use most and least frequently?
3. Are there any significant differences in the frequency of reading strategy-use among high-, intermediate-, and low-proficiency EFL learners?

II. METHODS

A. Design

This study is cross-sectional in design aimed to explore Saudi EFL learners' frequency of perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies across three language proficiency groups (high, intermediate, and low) via data collected at a single point in time. Hence, Mokhtari and Sheorey's SORS questionnaire (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) was adapted for the study data collection procedures.

B. Participants

The study first aimed to recruit 320 Saudi EFL students as participants during the second academic term (November 2021 to January 2022). At the time, the participants were senior undergraduate students enrolled in various academic courses in the English program at Al Imam University (IMSIU). The researcher distributed questionnaires to 320 students at random and received 260 valid responses that were used for further analysis. Our sample thus exceeded the minimum sample size in relation to the study variables of $50 + (8 \times 4) = 82$. Hence, the sample was determined to be large enough for descriptive and inferential data analyses. Overall, the study sample was representative of all students enrolled in the bachelor's program of English Language and Literature at the time. As evident in the collected demographic data, the study participants were homogeneous. Specifically, all the participants 1) were young native speakers of Arabic learning English as a foreign language, 2) had covered the same course requirements throughout the first three years of the program, 3) had comparable academic experience (in school and universities) of reading various text types (including narrative and expository texts), and 4) possessed similar levels of pre-university public education, cultural, and, to some extent, socio-economic backgrounds. In addition, the students were required to take compulsory courses (e.g., Arabic and Islamic studies, linguistics, learning and teaching methods, English/American literature, and translation) as a part of their academic courses. Assessment of English majors' academic progress is heavily dependent on their overall scores, which are based on submitted written assignments, mid-term and final exams. According to their teachers' assessments of their mid-term and final exams (often designed and administered by EFL instructors to assess students' overall English proficiency), the 260 participants were divided into three language proficiency groups (low, intermediate, and high). This distribution projected some approximate measurements of Saudi EFL students' language proficiency at the time.

C. Instrument

Our main data collection instrument was Mokhtari and Sheorey's SORS (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), originally designed to measure ESL readers' metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies when reading English texts. It includes 30 items measuring three main reading strategies: global, problem-solving, and support strategies. *Global reading strategies* are strategies used to prepare for the reading task (e.g., assessing what to read or ignore, noticing text characteristics, and guessing what the material is about). The SORS contains 13 global strategy items, such as "I think about what I know to help me understand what I read," "I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it," and "I check my information when I come across new information". *Problem-solving strategies* deal with problems that arise when comprehending textual content (e.g., re-reading to increase understanding, going back to a previous section when losing concentration, taking a pause, and thinking about reading). The SORS includes eight problem-solving items, such as "I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading," "When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding," and "When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading." Finally, *support strategies* are used to facilitate reading comprehension (e.g., underlining or circling information, paraphrasing to improve understanding, and going back and forth in the text). The SORS includes nine support strategy items, for example, "When reading, I translate from English into my native language," "I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it," and "I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it".

All 30 items were scored on a five-point Likert-type scale: 1 (I never or almost never do this), 2 (I only occasionally do this), 3 (I sometimes do this), 4 (I usually do this), and 5 (I always or almost always do this). SORS is a well-established self-reported instrument with high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.89$). Its Cronbach's alpha was acceptable for global ($\alpha = 0.780$), problem-solving ($\alpha = 0.790$), and support ($\alpha = 0.720$) strategies, and the overall reliability coefficient was $\alpha = 0.85$. Over many years, the SORS instrument has been used exclusively in past studies (Ahmadian & Pasand, 2017; Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Ghaith & El-Sanyoura, 2019; Malcolm, 2009; Meniado, 2016; Tavakoli, 2014; Zhang & Wu, 2009).

However, to avoid any possible comprehension difficulties in completing the original SORS instrument, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic (the participants' native language). Two university faculty members specialized in the field of translation were invited to verify the quality of the translated version. After verification, the adapted SORS was administered. The researcher also decided to regroup the order of the 30 items in the original SORS under separate reading strategy-use categories (global, problem-solving, and support strategies) that the questionnaire items correspond to; hence, making it easier for the study results to report the statistical variations across the three reading categories (see Table 1).

D. Procedures

The adapted SORS questionnaire was administered to the study participants using the SurveyMonkey online service, which distributed the questionnaire to the participants' previously obtained emails. All ethical considerations were addressed in this study. The researcher first explained the study's overall aim to the participants, and requested their participation in the study. They were explicitly informed that the outcome of their participation would have no bearing on their academic standing and assessment, and that they could withdraw at any time. After informed consents to participate were obtained, all the participants were requested to provide honest responses to the questionnaire items.

E. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed quantitatively to obtain both descriptive and inferential statistics. Subsequently, a two-factor ANOVA design was employed to detect any statistically significant differences among the three proficiency groups. Similar to previous studies examining students' levels of reading strategy-use based on Likert scales (Oxford & Burry-Stock; 1995; Zhang & Wu, 2009), our study considered three levels of usage: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), moderate (mean of 2.5 to 3.4), and low (mean of 2.4 or lower).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first two research questions ("How often do Saudi EFL learners use different reading strategies when reading English texts?" and "Which reading strategies do Saudi EFL learners use most and least frequently?"), descriptive analysis was conducted on the questionnaire responses to reveal the frequencies (means [M] and standard deviations [SD]) of the respondents' perceived use of individual reading strategies (Table 1).

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY OF READING STRATEGIES

Strategy	Item	Item description	Min.	Max.	Md.	M	SD
Global strategies	Q1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.54	1.02
	Q3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.67	1.22
	Q4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.49	1.28
	Q6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.69	1.14
	Q8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics, like length and organization.	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.99	1.38
	Q12	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.18	1.37
	Q15	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.49	1.34
	Q17	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.19	1.14
	Q20	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.07	1.35
	Q21	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.96	1.25
	Q23	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.80	1.13
	Q24	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.81	1.11
Q27	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.26	1.26	
Problem-solving strategies	Q7	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.01	1.02
	Q9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	2.00	5.00	4.00	3.94	0.93
	Q11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.61	1.13
	Q14	When the text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.90	1.16
	Q16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.23	1.24
	Q19	I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.62	1.16
	Q25	When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.04	0.98
	Q28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	2.00	5.00	4.00	3.94	0.90
Support strategies	Q2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.00	1.11
	Q5	When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.76	1.20
	Q10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.80	1.22
	Q13	I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.46	1.27
	Q18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.47	1.20
	Q22	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.40	1.19
	Q26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.97	1.34
	Q29	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.58	1.10
	Q30	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.92	1.04

As shown in Table 1, students varied in their perceived use of reading strategies across the three categories. The least frequently used strategies were as follows: item 21 in the global category (“I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text”; $M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.25$), item 16 in the problem-solving category (“I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading”; $M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.24$), and item 26 in the support category (“I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text”; $M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.34$). Interestingly, all the least frequently used strategies require higher-level processing by the reader. Furthermore, each least frequently used strategy targets readers’ comprehension monitoring or evaluation of text context. Thus, readers may use these strategies less frequently because they are more cognitively demanding than other strategic processes.

The most frequently used reading strategies in each category were as follows: item 24 in the global category (“I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read”; $M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.11$), item 25 in the problem-solving category (“When the text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding”; $M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.98$), and item 30 in the

support category (“When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue”; $M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.04$). Item 25 was the most frequently used strategy overall. This result is unsurprising and is in line with previous studies reporting that re-reading as a problem-solving reading process was the most frequently used cognitive strategy in various language-learning contexts, perhaps because of its low cognitive demand on the reader. Conversely, item 21 was the least used strategy. Overall, the results showed that the respondents reported using 16 strategies (53.3% of all 30 strategies) at a high-frequency level ($M \geq 3.5$), while the remaining 14 strategies (46.6%) were moderately used ($M \geq 2.5$). Interestingly, none of the 30 individual strategies was reported at a low-frequency level ($M \leq 2.4$). Regarding strategy-use categories, the data indicated a high rate of strategies in the problem-solving category ($M = 3.99$) across the three proficiency levels, followed by global strategies ($M = 3.65$) and support strategies ($M = 2.65$; Table 2). While the results indicate apparent mean differences among all three proficiency levels, the use of global and problem-solving strategies was higher among high-proficiency students. However, the use of support strategies was higher for the intermediate proficiency group than the low or high-proficient group (as shown in Table 2).

TABLE 2
MEAN USE OF STRATEGY CATEGORIES ACROSS PROFICIENCY LEVELS

Students' proficiency levels	Global strategies	Problem-solving strategies	Support strategies
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Low	2.53	3.30	2.45
Intermediate	4.07	4.24	2.95
High	4.36	4.45	2.55
Overall Mean	3.65	3.99	2.65

To address the third research question (“Are there any significant differences in the frequency of reading strategy-use among high-, intermediate-, and low-proficiency EFL learners?”), an independent-samples ANOVA test of the three proficiency levels (low, intermediate, and high) was conducted to determine whether these apparent mean differences in strategy frequency use were statistically significant. Overall, the study results reveal statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) among students in their perceived use of reading strategies for each reading proficiency level.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF THE ANOVA TEST: DIFFERENCES IN THE STRATEGIES REPORTED BY PROFICIENCY GROUPS

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Global strategies	Between groups	126.459	2	63.230 .226	279.532	0.00*
	Within groups	58.133	257			
	Total	184.593	259			
Problem-solving strategies	Between groups	63.148	2	31.574 .585	53.997	0.00*
	Within groups	150.277	257			
	Total	213.425	259			
Support strategies	Between groups	18.153	2	9.076	39.369	0.00*
	Within groups	62.688	287			
	Total	85.405	289			

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Overall, Table 3 shows that students with high-proficiency reported global and problem-solving strategies more often than intermediate- and low-proficient groups did, while low-proficiency group reported using support strategies more often than high- and intermediate-proficiency groups did. Our results are consistent with some previous findings (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Meniado, 2016; Pammu et al., 2014; Tavakoli, 2014) regarding reading strategy use among EFL readers when completing reading tasks in various reading conditions. Overall, the study results also revealed that problem-solving strategies were most frequently reported by participants ($M = 3.78$), followed by support ($M = 3.48$) and global strategies ($M = 3.39$). This is in line with the findings drawn by earlier studies (Al-Sobhani, 2013; Ghaith & El-Sanyoura, 2019; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Yiksel, 2012), which reported problem-solving strategies as the most frequently used, followed by global and support strategies. However, our results contradict some studies that found support strategies to be the most frequently used among EFL readers, followed by global and problem-solving strategies

(Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Meniado, 2016; Pammu et al., 2014; Tavakoli, 2014). These differences in results were expected, considering the interplay of factors regarding language learning and reading contexts, individual variations, and differences in the settings and designs used in past studies.

IV. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated Saudi EFL learners' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies when reading English texts and examined whether reported reading strategies varied across three proficiency levels (low, intermediate, and high). With the SORS instrument (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) being adapted, the present study revealed how participants varied in their perceived use of reading strategies across global, problem-solving, and support strategies. Overall, EFL learners with high-proficiency reported global and problem-solving strategies more often than intermediate- and low-proficient groups did, while low-proficiency group reported using support strategies more often than high- and intermediate-proficiency groups did. Our study results also revealed how problem-solving strategies were most frequently reported by study participants, followed by support and global strategies.

A major implication of this study is that Saudi EFL readers need to be exposed to diverse reading strategies to facilitate their comprehension of English texts. Once aware of the varied word- and text-related metacognitive reading strategies available, Saudi EFL learners can be steered into employing and monitoring their reading strategies when processing different English text types to facilitate their reading comprehension. Furthermore, this study recommends that EFL instructors teach and guide their students on planning, regulating, and monitoring metacognitive strategies when reading English texts. Some researchers (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Alkhaleefah, 2017; Carrell, 1989) have stated that EFL learners may benefit from strategy-use instruction and designed curricula to raise awareness of the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of FL reading. Moreover, students should be encouraged to employ effective global, problem-solving, and support strategies. In other words, the study results suggest that reading-strategy instruction in the Saudi EFL context should emphasize the use of various reading strategies for language learners with varying reading abilities across different reading tasks. This is to assert the pedagogical objective of maximizing Saudi EFL learners' strategic reading to achieve effective reading comprehension in various reading tasks and activities.

Despite the study's findings and implications, it is important to acknowledge its limitations. First, our central focus was on inspecting EFL readers' *perceived* use of metacognitive reading strategies rather than the *actual* strategies employed while reading English texts. The researcher relied solely on the SORS questionnaire (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) as incorporating think-aloud reading tasks in the study design was not feasible at the time, due to time constraints in collecting and analyzing qualitative data and limited student availability. Hence, this study suggests that future researchers incorporate think-aloud reports into mixed research designs aimed at determining EFL readers' actual and perceived reading strategies. Second, the study sought participation from students enrolled in an English program, as a result of which the study findings pertain to a specific academic context involving Saudi English majors at the university level; hence, generalizability of the results is impaired. Accordingly, future studies need to explore multiple language-instruction or academic settings where various EFL readers with diverse reading abilities and backgrounds reflect upon and report their reading strategies under different reading tasks and conditions. Finally, our study relied on EFL instructors' assessment of their students' proficiency when categorizing participants into low, intermediate, and high levels. Given this limitation, we suggest that future research in EFL strategic reading incorporates standardized reading proficiency tests (e.g., IELTS or TOEFL) while sampling study participants to ensure accurate measures of EFL learners' reading abilities.

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Using “Predict, Organize, Search, Summarize, and Evaluate” Strategy in Improving Students’ Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The current study looked at how the "predict, organize, search, summarize, and evaluate" (POSSE) strategy affected the reading comprehension of Jordanian EFL¹ students. The participants, 40 female tenth graders from Kufir Youba Secondary School for Girls, Irbid, Jordan, were divided into a control and an experimental group of 20 students each. The POSSE strategy was implemented in teaching reading comprehension to the experimental group, whereas the conventional method was utilized in teaching the control group. A quasi-experimental design was followed to collect data. A reading comprehension pre-posttest was developed for both study groups to meet the study’s purpose. The study's findings revealed that students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group on the post-test. In light of the current study and its results, the researcher recommended utilizing the POSSE strategy to improve students’ reading comprehension.

Index Terms—EFL students, POSSE strategy, reading comprehension, Yarmouk University

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is "a complex process by which a reader reconstructs, to some degree, a message encoded by a writer in graphic language" (Goodman, 1970, p. 5). Students must understand what the text is trying to say in order to get the information they need and learn. Anderson (1999) and Grellet (1981) say that reading is a process in which the reader interacts with the written text to get the writer's message. It, further, helps students get better at school and learn languages. It is fun, increases their knowledge, improves their spelling and vocabulary, teaches them facts and important ideas, and gives them more chances to learn (Hamdan, 1991). It is also a crucial skill that helps students learn and master other language skills (Harmer, 2007).

Reading comprehension, according to Loca (2016), is "the process of constructing meaning through the coordination of several complex processes" (p. 117). Reading comprehension is the ability to understand and connect with a text by combining a number of complex skills such as fluency, vocabulary, and word reading. Similarly, it is a complex process that must build on what the reader already knows (Al-Rimawi & Al-Masri, 2022). It also entails grasping the overall meaning of what is said in a text, whether said directly or indirectly (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008).

The activation of the pupils' prior knowledge depends on three levels of reading comprehension, which are: literal comprehension, which leads readers to obtain a direct meaning and determine specific details without activating their previous knowledge. However, inferential comprehension requires readers to find an implicit meaning and draw conclusions by stimulating their background knowledge. Concerning critical comprehension, readers can assess a text's elements and a writer's intent, style, and skill based on their prior knowledge (Burns et al., 1999).

The acronym of the POSSE strategy is Predict, Organize, Search, Summarize, and Evaluate (Englert & Mariage, 1991). POSSE aims to develop learners’ reading comprehension "by predicting what the text is about, organizing the students' background knowledge about the text, searching and summarizing the main ideas of a text, and evaluating the concept map before and after reading" (Suprida, 2020, p. 15).

The POSSE strategy helps learners link their predictions with the content of text. It is useful for learners since it involves activation of prior knowledge, visual aids, semantic mapping, and self assessment. It can be applied during the three stages of reading: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading (Arianti & Tiarina, 2014).

Researchers like Aprilia (2015), Andani (2017), Englert and Mariage (2008), Harisma and Karimah (2020), and Ichiarti (2020), have outlined some benefits of the POSSE strategy in teaching reading comprehension. These benefits include: (1) helping students figure out what will happen and make predictions about a text; (2) giving students a way to organize their predictions and connect them to information in a text through semantic mapping; (3) teaching a variety of

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¹ EFL: English as a Foreign Language

reading skills and strategies, such as brainstorming, semantic mapping, organizing, comparing, searching, evaluating, predicting, summarizing, and asking questions; and (4) helping students reach a higher level of reading.

Many students in Jordan have trouble understanding English texts (Alkhalaf, 2011; Fraihat, 2003; Jarrah, 2008). Many Jordanian researchers (such as Fraihat, 2018; Huwari, 2019; Migdadi & Baniabdelrahman, 2016; Radaideh et al., 2020; and Al-Awamleh et al., 2021) have said that the student doesn't understand what he or she is reading well enough. Similarly, Amoush (2012) said that although reading comprehension is important, students' reading comprehension is still low and falls short of expectations. Also, teachers are hesitant to use different strategies or methods that are similar to what they usually do (Hassan, 2019). Because of this, the current study could help Jordanian teachers improve and EFL students understand what they are reading better.

The present study's purpose focuses on determining how the POSSE strategy can develop the reading comprehension of Jordanian female EFL students in the tenth grade. To achieve this purpose, the present study attempts to respond to the study's question: "*Are there any statistically significant differences (at $\alpha=0.05$) in female tenth-grade students' reading comprehension (literal, inferential, critical) that can be attributed to the instructional way (POSSE strategy vs. conventional)?*"

The present study is significant for students because applying the steps of the POSSE strategy could improve their reading comprehension. Furthermore, this study is vital for teachers because it could enable them to solve the problems related to students' reading comprehension, present an effective explanation of the reading texts, and develop the process of teaching reading. Moreover, this study is vital for researchers because they could use it as a reference to carry out reading comprehension research and increase their knowledge of teaching strategies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is the ability to understand meaning by interacting between the reader and the reading text and connecting prior knowledge with an overall understanding of the text (Basaraba et al., 2013). Literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, critical comprehension, and appreciative comprehension are the levels of reading comprehension (Barrett, 1972; Zintz, 1978). This study only found three levels of comprehension: literal, inferential, and critical.

Literal comprehension requires the explicit comprehension of a text's content. Further, understanding content necessitates finding out a sequence of events, main and supporting ideas, and answering questions such as where, who, when, and how without completely understanding the text (Caldwell, 2008).

Inferential comprehension entails understanding text implicitly. It involves the deep use of background knowledge to expect results, conclude the author's implicit message in a text, identify the writer's purpose, and make inferences and predictions (Bilbao et al., 2016).

Critical comprehension refers to assessing a text in terms of who wrote it, his or her style, and goal. It includes skills like: 1) assessing the accuracy of the content of a text using one's prior knowledge and knowledge acquired from other texts; 2) inferring the intentions of an author; and 3) differentiating between viewpoints and facts stated in the text (Nuttall, 1996).

B. POSSE Strategy

Englert and Mariage (1991) designed the POSSE strategy as a reading comprehension strategy to help learners enhance their reading comprehension. POSSE refers to several steps, as follows: *Predict*: to motivate learners' background knowledge by brainstorming ideas about a given text. To do so, learners utilized pictures, images, a text's title, and the headings, and they sometimes read the first sentence of a paragraph. Organize: Students used a concept map to organize their ideas while referencing a text. *Search*: learners read a text to seek the main ideas and supporting details for each paragraph, as well as any textual structures. Summarize: students summed up a text. *Evaluate*: learners evaluated and compared their predictions with the information mentioned in a text.

Setyowati (2017) studied how the POSSE strategy affected eighth-grade students' ability to comprehend what they were reading. 78 participants at MTS, Miftahul Ulum Balong Ponorogo, Indonesia, were randomly distributed into a control group that followed the lecture strategy and an experimental group that utilized the POSSE strategy. To achieve the study's goal, the researcher created a pre-post test that was given to study groups. The study's findings showed that the POSSE strategy helped Indonesian eighth-grade students enhance their reading comprehension.

Hajisamae (2020) investigated how the POSSE strategy on Google Classroom influenced the reading comprehension of students in the eleventh grade at Thailand's Khanaratsadon Yala senior high school. The researcher created a pre-test and post-test for measuring reading comprehension with different treatments, following a quasi-experimental design. A total of 86 participants were chosen as a sample and randomly assigned to one of two groups: 43 in the experimental group and 43 in the control group. The results demonstrated that the POSSE strategy implemented in Google Classroom has a beneficial impact on the eleventh graders' reading comprehension.

Ulfa and Juliari (2020) examined the impact of applying the POSSE strategy on enhancing the reading comprehension of 10th graders. 35 participants made up the study sample, including 30 female learners and 5 male

learners from SMK PGRI 2 Denpasar, Indonesia. Qualitative and quantitative data were extracted in this study. The qualitative data were gathered by examining the outcomes of observation. Pre- and post-test quantitative data were used to compile statistical information. The findings showed that the POSSE strategy effectively promoted the 10th graders' reading comprehension. Additionally, utilizing POSSE steps in the teaching and learning process might catch their attention.

Several studies associated with the current study have highlighted that the POSSE strategy is effective in enhancing students' reading comprehension. This is clearly demonstrated by the research of Andani (2017), Aprilia (2015), Hajisamaae (2020), Loca (2016), Maha and Sibarani (2013), Setyowati (2017), Sundari (2012), Ulfa and Juliari (2020).

However, according to the researcher's knowledge and research results, none of the studies reviewed how using the POSSE strategy affected learners' reading comprehension levels, such as literal, inferential, and critical comprehension. Moreover, there were no reviewed studies carried out in Jordan to measure the effect of the POSSE strategy on EFL students' comprehension. Therefore, the current study may be beneficial as it dealt with students' literal, inferential, and critical reading comprehension; in addition, it may be the first study conducted to investigate the effect of the POSSE strategy on the reading comprehension of EFL students in Jordan.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design and Variables

The researcher used a quasi-experimental design. The dependent variable was reading comprehension (literal, inferential, and critical), and the independent variable was teaching method (POSSE vs. traditional).

B. Participants

Students from the tenth grade at Kufir Youba Secondary School for Girls, which is part of Irbid Directorate of Education in Jordan, participated in the study. Two entire sections out of the school's three sections were chosen at random. After placing the names of the three sections into a basket, a random selection was performed, and only two of the sections were chosen to take part in the investigation at hand. It was decided by tossing a coin to designate the first section as an experimental group and the second one as a control group. Each group includes 20 students.

All of the participants have been learning English for ten years, and they are now sixteen years old. The experimental group was taught using the POSSE method, while the control group was taught using a more traditional method. The students in the tenth grade were chosen because, in comparison to students in other grades at the same school, they have a more advanced knowledge of the language, both in terms of their prior experiences and their educational level. As a consequence of this, utilizing POSSE as a reading strategy may affect a positive change in their level of reading comprehension.

C. Instrument

The researcher prepared a reading comprehension pre-posttest. Reading comprehension can be broken down into three levels: literal, inferential, and critical. This test measures all three. In accordance with the reading material presented in *Action Pack 10*, the researcher designed both multiple-choice and open-ended questions for the reading comprehension pre-post test. There were nine questions overall, with a total of fifteen items.

These questions were categorized into one of three different levels. The first level, which measured the inferential level, consisted of seven questions and accounted for 40percentof the questions' overall number. The second level assessed the literal level and consisted of a total of six questions, which was equivalent to 35percentof all questions. The third level assessed the crucial level and consisted of two questions, which together accounted for 25 % of the total questions.

The reading comprehension post-test pursued to see if there were any differences in reading comprehension between the tenth-grade students that could be attributed to the use of the POSSE strategy both before and after the implementation of the educational program. The use of the POSSE strategy may be responsible for these differences.

D. Validity and Reliability of Instrument

The validity of the reading comprehension pre-post test was validated by a panel of 12 professionals who served on the jury. This jury was pleasantly asked to evaluate the content of the test as well as whether or not the questions were appropriate for the students' levels. They suggested modifying some of the test questions in order to make them more understandable, as well as ensuring that its content is consistent with the outcomes of the POSSE instructional program. As a result, the examination was altered in response to the suggestions and comments made by the jury.

Twenty students were given the test's pilot version so that its reliability (internal consistency) could be evaluated. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient between a level's overall score and the score of an item was calculated. In addition, the corrected item total correlation was determined between the score of the item and the levels' total score. According to the findings, the Pearson correlation coefficients between the item score and the level's overall score range were more significant and higher than the threshold point (i.e., 0.35). In addition to this, the corrected item total correlation values were higher than the threshold point (0.40). As such, the test is valid.

To evaluate test reliability, Cronbach alpha coefficients were extracted. Results revealed that the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the inferential, literal, critical, and overall tests were 0.91, 0.90, 0.86, and 0.91, respectively. Since the reliability coefficients are above the threshold value (0.70), the test is reliable and applicable to assessing students' reading comprehension.

E. The POSSE-Based Instructional Program

To fulfill the goal of this study, the researcher created a POSSE instructional program for teaching the POSSE strategy to tenth graders in order to enhance their reading comprehension. Before implementing the POSSE strategy, the researcher analyzed the reading activities from Modules 1, 2 (Units 1 and 2), and 3 (Units 3 and 4) of the student's book in *Action Pack 10* and redesigned them to fit for the instructional program based upon the POSSE strategy, which involves the 5 sequential steps of predict, organize, search, summarize, and evaluate.

The POSSE strategy used in the instructional program targets levels of *literal, inferential, and critical* reading comprehension as a means to improve reading comprehension in the experimental group. The POSSE instructional program has been in place for eight weeks. It ran from September 7, 2022, to November 10, 2022.

a) Procedures for Designing the Instructional Program

The researcher followed the suitable procedures in order to design the instructional program:

- 1- analyzing the reading activities of the student's book in *Action Pack 10*;
- 2- determining the reading of every lesson;
- 3- redesigning reading activities of the first three Modules in light of the POSSE strategy; and
- 4- designing worksheets.

b) Validity of the Instructional Program

The POSSE instructional program was presented by the researcher to 12 specialists in English instruction to ascertain its validity. Three professors, six instructors, a supervisor of English language instruction, and two teachers made up the jury. The researcher kindly requested that they review the instructional program's content and provide any feedback or suggestions regarding the program that was distributed. The jury's comments and suggestions were taken very seriously and used to improve the quality of the teaching program, make it work for all levels of students, and help students understand what they are reading better.

F. Data Analysis

The following statistical analyses were conducted to answer the study question,: (1) one-way analysis of covariance (one-way ANCOVA) was utilized to examine the influence of instruction way (POSSE vs. conventional) on overall reading comprehension levels; and (2) one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (one-way MANCOVA) was used to investigate the influence of teaching way (POSSE vs. conventional) on reading comprehension levels and POSSE steps, followed by univariate analysis.

IV. RESULTS

To response the question of this study, the researcher followed the procedures below:

1. The means and standard deviations of pre- and post-test results in overall reading comprehension test for the two groups have been calculated, it is clear from Table 1.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE OVERALL READING COMPREHENSION FOR THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Reading Comprehension Level	Group	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Overall	Control	9.45	3.78	10.65	4.68
	Experimental	8.75	3.01	16.40	2.96
	Total	9.10	3.39	13.53	4.84

Table 1 shows the two groups' mean scores are different in post-test performance for overall reading comprehension. It is noticed that the experimental group attains the best mean scores in overall reading comprehension as assessed by the reading comprehension post test.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to manifest a statistical effect of the instructional way (i.e., POSSE strategy and conventional method) on the overall reading comprehension after controlling the effect of the overall reading comprehension pre-test scores, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANCOVA TO ASSESS THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL WAY ON THE OVERALL READING COMPREHENSION AFTER CONTROLLING THE EFFECT PRE-TEST SCORES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pre-Test	164.854	1	164.854	14.575	.000	.283
Group	377.396	1	377.396	33.366	.000	.474
Error	418.496	37	11.311			
Corrected Total	913.975	39				

Table 2 shows noticeable differences in the students' overall reading comprehension between the groups (treatment and control) in favour of the treatment group. An instructional approach explained 47.4% of the variance in overall reading comprehension, according to a partial eta squared value of 0.474.

In addition, adjusted and unadjusted means of the overall reading comprehension of study groups have been calculated. Table 3 shows the overall reading comprehension means, standard errors, and standard deviations for each study group before and after the overall reading comprehension pre-test scores were taken out.

TABLE 3
ADJUSTED AND UNADJUSTED MEANS OF THE OVERALL READING COMPREHENSION

Group	Unadjusted Mean		Adjusted Mean	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	Std. Error
Control	10.65	4.68	10.44	.754
Experimental	16.40	2.96	16.61	.754

As shown in Table 3, a difference virtually appears between the two groups in terms of the overall reading comprehension after differences in the pre-test scores of overall reading comprehension were taken into account. As such, the POSSE strategy enhanced overall reading comprehension.

1. The means and standard deviations of pre- and post-test scores in reading comprehension levels for the two groups were extracted, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF READING COMPREHENSION LEVELS FOR THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Reading Comprehension Level	Group	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Inferential	Control	3.95	1.64	4.35	1.84
	Experimental	3.65	1.69	6.20	1.01
	Total	3.80	1.65	5.28	1.74
Literal	Control	4.50	1.99	4.95	2.14
	Experimental	4.30	1.34	6.20	1.01
	Total	4.40	1.68	5.58	1.77
Critical	Control	1.00	1.08	1.35	1.46
	Experimental	.80	.95	4.00	1.52
	Total	.90	1.01	2.68	1.99

According to Table 4, differences were observed among the mean scores of post-test performance in levels of reading comprehension. The post-performance scores are higher in the experimental group than in the control group, as measured by the post-test of reading comprehension.

After accounting for the impact of the pre-test scores, a one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (one-way MANCOVA) with a multivariate test (Hotellings' trace) was conducted to evaluate the impact of the instructional way (i.e., POSSE strategy and conventional method) on the linear composite of reading comprehension levels. The results are illustrated in Table 5.

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF MULTIVARIATE TEST (HOTELLINGS' TRACE) FOR THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL WAY ON THE READING COMPREHENSION LEVELS

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Teaching strategy	1.425	15.671	3.000	33.000	.000	.588

Table 5 shows the important influence of the instructional way. That reveals that the linear composite of three comprehension levels between the two groups was different. 58.8% of the variance in the composite of comprehension levels, as shown by the partial eta square value of 0.588, could be attributed to the instructional strategy.

Because an instructional method has a significant effect on reading comprehension levels, a follow-up univariate analysis (tests of between-subject effects) was performed (see Table 6).

TABLE 6
THE EFFECT OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL WAY ON READING COMPREHENSION LEVELS AFTER CONTROLLING THE EFFECT OF PRE-TEST SCORES

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Pre-inferential	Inferential	.003	1	.003	.002	.966	.000	
	Literal	.888	1	.888	.453	.505	.013	
	Critical	2.605	1	2.605	1.519	.226	.042	
Pre-literal	Inferential	5.258	1	5.258	2.994	.092	.079	
	Literal	19.500	1	19.500	9.959	.003	.222	
	Critical	16.227	1	16.227	9.460	.004	.213	
Pre-critical	Inferential	7.860	1	7.860	4.477	.042	.113	
	Literal	6.217	1	6.217	3.175	.083	.083	
	Critical	2.900	1	2.900	1.691	.202	.046	
Teaching strategy	Inferential	39.443	1	39.443	22.463	.000	.391	
	Literal	19.418	1	19.418	9.918	.003	.221	
	Critical	74.263	1	74.263	43.293	.000	.553	
Error	Inferential	61.456	35	1.756				
	Literal	68.529	35	1.958				
	Critical	60.038	35	1.715				
Corrected total	Inferential	117.975	39					
	Literal	121.775	39					
	Critical	154.775	39					

Table 6 demonstrates that significant differences are statistically noticed among the participant students at each of the three levels, with participants preferring the experimental group. The partial eta squared values of inferential, literal, and critical were 39.1, 22.1, and 55.3, respectively. This means that the instructional method explained 39.1%, 22.1%, and 55.3% of the variance in reading comprehension levels (inferential, literal, and critical, respectively).

Three reading comprehension levels' adjusted and unadjusted means were also determined for the participants. Table 7 shows means, standard errors, and standard deviations for two groups at three levels of reading comprehension before and after controlling the levels' pre-test scores.

TABLE 7
ADJUSTED AND UNADJUSTED MEANS OF READING COMPREHENSION LEVELS

Dependent Variable	Group	Unadjusted Mean		Adjusted Mean	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.E
Inferential	Control	4.35	1.84	4.28	.297
	Experimental	6.20	1.01	6.28	.297
Literal	Control	4.95	2.14	4.87	.314
	Experimental	6.20	1.01	6.28	.314
Critical	Control	1.35	1.46	1.30	.294
	Experimental	4.00	1.52	4.05	.294

Table 7 reveals that differences are no longer still after they are controlled through pre-test scores between control and experimental groups at different levels (i.e., inferential, literal, and critical). As a result, the POSSE strategy assisted participants in performing better at the literal, inferential, and critical levels.

The standard deviations and means of pre-post scores in POSSE strategy steps (predict, organize, search, summarize, and evaluate) for the two groups were measured, as seen in Table 8.

TABLE 8
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF POSSE STRATEGY STEPS FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

POSSE Strategy Steps	Group	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Predict	Control	2.90	1.25	2.95	1.57
	Experimental	2.30	1.45	4.75	1.07
	Total	2.60	1.37	3.85	1.61
Organize	Control	1.05	.83	1.40	.68
	Experimental	1.35	.67	1.45	.60
	Total	1.20	.76	1.43	.64
Search	Control	3.80	1.36	4.10	1.48
	Experimental	4.10	1.21	4.95	.39
	Total	3.95	1.28	4.53	1.15
Summarize	Control	.70	.98	.85	.99
	Experimental	.20	.52	1.25	.85
	Total	.45	.81	1.05	.93
Evaluate	Control	1.00	1.08	1.35	1.46
	Experimental	.80	.95	4.00	1.52
	Total	.90	1.01	2.68	1.99

Table 8 exhibits observed differences among the present mean scores of two groups in post-test performance for POSSE strategy steps. The reading comprehension test was utilized to measure the POSSE strategy steps and conclude that the post-performance scores that an experimental group got were superior to those of a control group.

To assess the effect of instructional ways (i.e., POSSE strategy and conventional) on the linear combination of the POSSE strategy steps, a one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (one-way MANCOVA) with a multivariate test (Hotellings' trace) was carried out after considering the effect of pre-test scores. See the results shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9
RESULTS OF MULTIVARIATE TEST (HOTELLINGS' TRACE) FOR THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL WAY ON POSSE STRATEGY STEPS

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Teaching strategy	1.234	7.158	5.000	29.000	.000	.552

Table 9 shows the main effect of the instructional method was considerable and significant. This demonstrates that the linear composite of the POSSE strategy steps differs between the two groups. The partial eta square value of 55.2 demonstrates that the instructional way may contribute to 55.2% of the variance in the composite of the POSSE strategy steps.

Because the effect of the instructional method on the combination of the POSSE strategy steps is significant, further univariate analysis (tests of between-subject effects) was performed, as shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10
THE EFFECT OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL WAY ON THE POSSE STRATEGY STEPS AFTER CONTROLLING THE EFFECT OF PRE-TEST SCORES

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Pre- (covariate)	Predict	1.184	1	1.184	.754	.391	.022	
	Organize	.410	1	.410	1.142	.293	.033	
	Search	3.127	1	3.127	3.745	.062	.102	
	Summarize	.006	1	.006	.008	.931	.000	
	Evaluate	2.994	1	2.994	1.666	.206	.048	
Pre-organize (covariate)	Predict	4.100	1	4.100	2.611	.116	.073	
	Organize	.199	1	.199	.552	.463	.016	
	Search	.341	1	.341	.409	.527	.012	
	Summarize	.421	1	.421	.536	.469	.016	
	Evaluate	.000	1	.000	.000	.993	.000	
Pre-search (covariate)	Predict	.420	1	.420	.268	.608	.008	
	Organize	.044	1	.044	.123	.728	.004	
	Search	5.913	1	5.913	7.081	.012	.177	
	Summarize	.258	1	.258	.329	.570	.010	
	Evaluate	7.151	1	7.151	3.980	.054	.108	
Pre-summarize (covariate)	Predict	2.909	1	2.909	1.853	.183	.053	
	Organize	.374	1	.374	1.040	.315	.031	
	Search	.937	1	.937	1.122	.297	.033	
	Summarize	1.292	1	1.292	1.646	.208	.048	
	Evaluate	4.829	1	4.829	2.688	.111	.075	
Pre-evaluate (covariate)	Predict	1.298	1	1.298	.827	.370	.024	
	Organize	2.168	1	2.168	6.032	.019	.155	
	Search	1.990	1	1.990	2.383	.132	.067	
	Summarize	.955	1	.955	1.217	.278	.036	
	Evaluate	2.686	1	2.686	1.495	.230	.043	
Group	Predict	23.919	1	23.919	15.233	.000	.316	
	Organize	.524	1	.524	1.457	.236	.042	
	Search	3.903	1	3.903	4.674	.038	.124	
	Summarize	1.885	1	1.885	2.401	.131	.068	
	Evaluate	55.619	1	55.619	30.957	.000	.484	
Error	Predict	51.815	33	1.570				
	Organize	11.863	33	.359				
	Search	27.557	33	.835				
	Summarize	25.903	33	.785				
	Evaluate	59.290	33	1.797				
Corrected total	Predict	101.100	39					
	Organize	15.775	39					
	Search	51.975	39					
	Summarize	33.900	39					
	Evaluate	154.775	39					

Table 10 shows that statistical differences between the participant groups are significant in the three POSSE strategy steps (predict, search, and evaluate), with the experimental group benefiting. 31.6, 12.4, and 48.4 were partial eta squared values for *predict*, *search*, and *evaluate*, respectively. This means that the instructional way explained 31.6%,

12.4%, and 48.4% of the variance in *predict*, *search*, and *evaluate*, respectively. In contrast, the differences in *organizing* and *summarizing* between both groups were not significant.

Adjusted and unadjusted means of three POSSE strategy steps were obtained for the groups of the study. Table 11 clarifies groups' means, standard errors, and standard deviations in POSSE strategy steps before and after taking the effect of pre-test scores into account.

TABLE 11
ADJUSTED AND UNADJUSTED MEANS OF THE POSSE STRATEGY STEPS

Dependent Variable	Group	Unadjusted Mean		Adjusted Mean	
		Mean	SD	Mean	S.E
Predict	Control	2.95	1.57	2.97	.301
	Experimental	4.75	1.07	4.73	.301
Organize	Control	1.40	.68	1.29	.144
	Experimental	1.45	.60	1.56	.144
Search	Control	4.10	1.48	4.17	.219
	Experimental	4.95	.39	4.88	.219
Summarize	Control	.85	.99	.80	.213
	Experimental	1.25	.85	1.30	.213
Evaluate	Control	1.35	1.46	1.33	.322
	Experimental	4.00	1.52	4.02	.322

Table 11 shows the differences are still present between the two groups in *predict*, *search*, and *evaluate*, although the differences were considered in the pre-test scores. Therefore, the POSSE strategy positively changed students' performance in *predict*, *search*, and *evaluate* steps.

V. DISCUSSION

The study question sought to determine whether there would be any statistically significant differences in the post-test literal, inferential, and critical levels of Jordanian EFL tenth-grade students that could be attributed to the instructional method at $\alpha = 0.05$ (POSSE strategy vs. conventional method).

The findings of the study show that the significance values agree with the fact that the POSSE strategy had an efficient impact on each level of reading comprehension. As a consequence of this, participants who followed the POSSE strategy in their learning accomplished better in the post-test regarding their overall performance as well as their performance on the literal, inferential, and critical levels compared to those who utilized the conventional method. In addition, the findings indicate that the application of the POSSE strategy develops the students' level of reading comprehension.

These results are in line with those found in earlier studies, such as those conducted by Andani (2017), Aprilia (2015), Hajisamae (2020), Maha and Sibarani (2013), Setiadi (2019), and Sundari (2019). The findings are also consistent with previous research (e.g., Harisma & Karimah, 2020; Ichtiarti, 2020; Loca, 2016; Mertosono et al., 2020; Setyowati, 2017; Ulfa & Juliari, 2020). These studies demonstrated that the POSSE strategy is an appropriate teaching strategy for the purpose of enhancing students' abilities to comprehend what they read. The research's results indicated that the POSSE strategy influenced the reading comprehension of treatment group students. As a consequence of this, these findings may increase the generalizability of the role that the POSSE strategy plays in enhancing tenth graders' reading comprehension.

Several different factors may have contributed to the experimental group's advancement post-test. One of them could be attributed to the POSSE instructional program's structure, which was designed to be adaptable while still incorporating explicit steps. The interaction between students was significantly improved by this program. They were encouraged to make predictions about the texts that were taken from the student's book based on their background knowledge. Students were able to interact with one another and their teachers thanks to these activities. In addition, the teacher was able to identify areas of difficulty for each student, leading to more individualized instruction and improved academic performance. She was able to have a close interaction with her class when she guided and assisted the students in their discussions regarding the activities (e.g., activating their prior knowledge, using semantic mapping, pair work, and group work).

Additionally, the students' interest was piqued by the POSSE instructional program that was being conducted. For example, they endeavoured to comprehend the activities that comprised the instructional program. Instead of receiving information from their teacher, the students were able to be active and engage in the learning process thanks to this strategy. It was observed that they participated in the discussions, and compared to prior semesters, their level of participation was significantly higher. As a direct result of the increased involvement of the students in the learning process, they not only gained a deeper comprehension of the subject matter but also an improved command of the fundamental concepts.

In addition to this, the POSSE instructional program supplied each student with a POSSE strategy sheet, which was handed out during each individual lesson. The students have the opportunity to comprehend the material and derive needed information from the text, both of which were made possible by the provision of this sheet by a semantic map.

Moreover, it made it possible for them to evaluate the results of the text in light of their predictions, which ultimately led to the formation of a summary and a conclusion.

During classes, worksheets gave the students the opportunity to talk about the reading text that they were currently working on and to apply a series of reading strategies. These reading strategies included the following: predict (guess what the text will be about), organize (arrange their predictions into categories), search (read and determine the most important details of the text), summarize (summarize the text), and evaluate the text (ask questions, compare, clarify, and predict).

Worksheets given out to students as a take-home assignment at the end of each class session are one more factor that may have led to the improvement in reading comprehension seen in the experimental group. Working through these worksheets significantly improved their reading comprehension. They included many different types of reading activities. Reading comprehension questions, for example, covered the levels of reading comprehension on some worksheets (such as worksheets 1 and 3). These questions began at the literal level, moved on to the inferential level, and finally arrived at the more difficult critical level. Others instructed students in contrasting and comparing, matching, summarizing, paraphrasing, and filling out tables. Although the researcher used different kinds of reading activities that students should answer individually at home, many students who were interested in and eager to complete these worksheets completed them before the end of each lesson.

The researcher noticed, in relation to the post-test results, that the students were able to respond to questions about literal comprehension in a clear and precise manner. They did not need to read the entire passage in order to respond to these questions. In addition, the researcher noticed that the students became better at responding to inferential questions over the course of the study. Students were presented with a wide variety of opportunities throughout the POSSE instructional program to answer these questions by making use of their prior knowledge, which is the primary factor that contributed to this improvement. In addition, the researcher noticed a significant improvement in both the participants' level of achievement and their responses to challenging questions. This is because most students eventually learn how to make decisions, have discussions, make comparisons, evaluate the information they are given, and make connections between the text and what they already know.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The current study's goal was to explore how the POSSE strategy affected the Jordanian tenth-grade participants' reading comprehension. A POSSE-based instructional program was created and applied to achieve this purpose during the academic year 2022–2023. After applying the POSSE strategy, improvements were observed in the students' reading comprehension level. The findings were presented as follows: (1) Reading comprehension was boosted after a POSSE-based program was introduced. Students were able to practice the steps of the POSSE strategy, which include making predictions before reading a text, organizing those predictions, searching for the supporting and main idea of every paragraph of a text, summarizing what they read, and evaluating their understanding; (2) the literal, inferential, and critical levels all increased after implementing the POSSE-based instructional program; (3) students were more engaged in class after a POSSE-based program was implemented; (4) it was found that teaching reading comprehension using the POSSE strategy helped students do better on the post-test, which shows the program's worth. Depending on the current study's findings, the following recommendations are made:

- EFL textbook designers should integrate the POSSE strategy steps into the students' textbooks and the teacher's book in a clear way by presenting a number of different teaching and learning activities focusing on reading comprehension levels.
- EFL teachers should use the POSSE strategy, which enables their students to comprehend a text effectively and participate in the teaching and learning process.
- The Ministry of Education should think about the benefits of using the steps of the POSSE strategy to teach reading comprehension and train EFL teachers on how to use and activate these steps in their teaching so that they can be put into practice and change the routine of traditional teaching methods.
- Researchers should carry out various studies to determine how the POSSE strategy affects various language skills and how students feel about it, benefit from it, and replicate the findings of this study.

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A Model Framework for the Implementation of Gamification in Arabic Teaching in Malaysia

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Abstract—Arabic language education is one of the foreign languages that must be learned in most schools in Malaysia. It focuses on four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Several past studies found that students' Arabic language proficiency in Malaysia has not yet reached a satisfactory level. This is due to the learning atmosphere, students' attitudes, and teachers' teaching methods that have impacted students' motivation to learn. The gamification approach is a new initiative in technology-based Arabic education in Malaysia and based on the past researchers' findings, this approach has been proven to be effective. Therefore, this paper aims to build a framework for the implementation model of using gamification in Arabic teaching in Malaysia. Gamification is one of the methods dealing with the problem of Arabic language mastery based on the secondary sources. Past studies on gamification were about the problem of mastering the Arabic language among students in Malaysia, gamification approaches in the field of Arabic, the level of knowledge and acceptance of gamification among educators, and the factors driving the use of gamification. This paper will contribute to the knowledge of new innovative methods or approaches that are more effective and further give impact on pedagogical approach in teaching and learning Arabic to improve students' understanding, motivation, and performance.

Index Terms—model framework, gamification practices, teaching, Arabic language, Malaysian students

I. INTRODUCTION

Arabic language education in Malaysia is one of the foreign languages that must be learned in most schools apart from English and it has developed since the beginning of the 20th century (Nordin, 2005; Samah, 2012) until now. Arabic language education is also important in the Islamic and Moral Education Curriculum Division, Department of Islamic and Moral Education, Ministry of Education Malaysia (KPM). Arabic has been categorized into two, namely *Bahasa Arab Tinggi* (BAT-Advanced Arabic) and *Bahasa Arab Komunikasi* (BAK- Communicative Arabic) (Sardi & Majid, 2004) under the *Kurikulum Standard Sekolah Menengah* (KSSM-Secondary School Standard Curriculum) and *Kurikulum Bersepadu Dini* (KBD-Early Integrated Curriculum). Teaching and learning Arabic continues to develop by focusing on the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. To achieve this goal, the syllabus used in the KSSM and KBD curricula focuses more on the mastery of Arabic vocabulary and grammar.

However, what is worrying, is the findings of previous studies have found that Arabic language proficiency among students is still at low level (Awang et al., 2014; Karim & Husaini, 2016; Misnan & Ghazali, 2019; Baharum & Rahman, 2020; Mokhtar et al., 2020), especially in writing skills (Karim & Husaini, 2016; Sopian, 2019) and speaking (Fauzi et al., 2020). This weakness is increasing daily even though students have been provided with good textbooks, a more robust curriculum syllabus, and teachers who are trained and qualified in teaching Arabic.

The attitude and motivation to learn are essential and they drive students' interest in learning Arabic and contribute to students' success in mastering the Arabic language (Mat & Yunus, 2014). Among the main factors that contribute to the weakness of students' mastery of the Arabic language is lack of motivation to learn Arabic, which stems from an unfavorable learning environment (Abdullah et al., 2015), students' attitudes toward learning Arabic (Mat, 2013; Abdullah et al., 2015; Ariffin@Riffin & Taat, 2020) as well as the teaching methods used by teachers which demotivate students to learn (Ariffin@Riffin & Taat, 2020). This situation can have a negative impact on performance and achievement in learning Arabic. Students' motivation towards foreign language learning is influenced by several factors,

which are internal and external. Internal factors (intrinsic) involve interests, psychology, and direct beliefs. While external factors (extrinsic) are language structure, instructors, modules, and teaching design (Mat & Soon, 2010).

According to Jusuf (2016) and Zin et al. (2021), and Ismath et al. (2022), the gamification method is one of the educator's approaches which allow the use of games to motivate students in teaching and learning. However, based on the researcher's survey, the use of gamification in Arabic teaching and learning in Malaysia still needs to be improved. Arabic language teaching methods focus more on traditional methods (Ariffin@Riffin & Taat, 2020), which are considered to be less effective and bored (Dicheva et al., 2015). This situation has caused weak students to seek help in understanding the content presented by the teacher in class (Jasni et al., 2020). Abdullah and Razak (2021) stated that there are still teachers who prefer to use only old method which is the teacher centered approach. In addition, some teachers focus more on the lecture method (Zakaria et al., 2015) and memorization of facts. Teachers' teaching methods must be diversified by focusing on more than one-way teaching methods. The teacher's tendency to convey facts without paying attention to the student's abilities and interests makes the learning atmosphere slow and dull. This scenario makes teaching and learning less exciting and less effective. Efforts to facilitate the learning process through creative teaching strategies need to be enhanced with activities that can stimulate students' minds (Zulkifli et al., 2021).

Gamification is learning based on game design elements in non-game contexts (Deterding et al., 2011; Cespón & Lage, 2022). It is a game-based learning approach (GBL) that is student-centered (Simões et al., 2013). Using gamification in teaching and learning can attract students' interest and encourage them to be active in learning, including the language learning (Simões et al., 2013; Flores, 2015). It is also a method of applying the experience of active interaction between humans and computers (HCI), psychology, and the development of digital games to stimulate human involvement and motivation (Hanafiah et al., 2019). In addition, gamification can also be classified as an effort to create innovation in modern language education through creativity to improve students' performances in learning. This approach is used by teachers when teaching online using various free applications on the internet, such as Kahoot! Quizizz, Quizlet (Ismail & Kamal, 2019; Zainuddin et al., 2020), Wordwall and Qimkit. Gamification is not only using game elements in a non-game context, but its role is essential to increase fun and motivation in language teaching and learning (Flores, 2015).

The importance of the gamification approach in education cannot be denied any more when several studies have proven that the gamification approach in teaching and learning has positive effects on students' achievements (Jusuf, 2016; Yildirim, 2017; Iberahim & Noor, 2020; Cespón & Lage, 2022) as well as their behaviors towards learning (Yildirim, 2017). Gamification not only impacts students' engagement, and attitudes, but can also improve student learning. In addition, gamification can foster intrinsic motivation and make learning more enjoyable, thereby improving students' knowledge and skills (Dicheva et al., 2015; Khaleel et al., 2016). Therefore, gamification methods need to be practiced in teaching and learning sessions to help students understand something taught by the teacher more effectively.

II. A STUDY OF ARABIC LANGUAGE MASTERY AMONG STUDENTS IN MALAYSIA

In their study, Karim and Husaini (2016) have proven that school students have not yet mastered Arabic writing skills. It can be seen through the achievement of only 50% of students answering correctly for the three (3) questions composing sentences and 78.4% of poor students' achievement for questions that test the student's ability to connect stories. Karim and Husaini (2016) stated that although Arabic language learning has long existed in schools in Malaysia with various changes and improvements in the curriculum, students' proficiency in essay writing has yet to reach a satisfactory level. Among the causes of the decline in writing skills are poor vocabulary mastery (Azrin & Baharudin, 2020) and a weak mastery of Arabic grammar (Mokhtar et al., 2017).

A study by Khatib and Zainal (2018) on students' mastery of Arabic vocabulary from the aspect of using nouns and verbs has found that mastery of spelling nouns and verbs is still at a moderate level with a mean score of 10.57. At the same time, the level of mastery in understanding the meaning of words is also moderate, with a mean score of 10.96. Based on these findings, Khatib and Zainal (2018) suggest that Arabic teaching and learning methods must be improved. It is because vocabulary mastery is essential for a student because he needs to master the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Sopian (2019) has found that the main factor of students' weakness in Arabic language skills is the students have difficulties to understand and acquire grammar compared to vocabulary. This situation is caused by attitude and motivation factors as well as methods and approaches used by teachers. The findings of Sopian's (2019) study are also in line with the findings of a study carried out by Ariffin@Riffin and Taat (2020), who found that there is a significant relationship between students' attitudes ($r=0.210$, $p<0.05$) and also teacher's teaching ($r=0.229$, $p<0.05$) with Arabic proficiency. The results of this finding show that the teaching implemented by the teacher can influence the students' attitudes toward learning Arabic. This aspect of student's attitude and teacher's teaching is an important matter because it often links to student's success and achievement (Sopian, 2019).

Meanwhile, a study by Fauzi et al. (2020) on the mastery of Arabic speaking skills has also found the overall mean value for the Arabic speaking skill problem construct to be moderately low, only reaching a mean value of 2.93. This problem is caused by the failure of students to master Arabic grammar and pronunciation (Din & Seman, 2019). In addition, there are other factors that contribute to the failure such as the environment that is not conducive, teaching materials and teaching methods used by teachers as well as lack of time to practice speaking skills (Fauzi et al., 2020).

This problem can be overcome by diversifying exercises, materials, and teaching methods implemented by teachers so that the learning objectives can be highly achieved (Din & Seman, 2019; Fauzi et al., 2020).

III. A REVIEW OF PAST STUDIES ON GAMIFICATION IN ARABIC LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Gamification in Arabic language education in Malaysia is a new initiative to achieve the Malaysian government's desire to optimize the use of ICT in foreign language education as an additional language and create a society awareness of technical aspects in education. It is in line with the Malaysian Education Development Plan 2013-2025 (PPPM 2013-2015), which gives attention and encouragement to second and third languages or foreign languages as additional languages as well as ICT aspects in education as stipulated in the second and seventh shifts of the 2013 PPPM -2025. The transformation of the Malaysian education system has been created to achieve the country's aspiration to produce teachers and students who are knowledgeable, innovative, and able to improve their thinking skills (Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia, 2013). Therefore, the Malaysian Ministry of Education has provided 4G network internet access for all students in 10,000 schools under the Malaysian Ministry of Education to create a virtual education environment through 1BestariNet. This internet access is the basis for constructing a virtual learning platform that teachers and students can use to share teaching and learning resources, carry out interactive teaching and learning sessions, and communicate virtually.

Only a few past studies found the gamification approach in Arabic language education in Malaysia compared to other language areas, especially English. It is because the gamification method in Arabic language education is innovative, and its usage has yet to be widespread. Among the studies found is a study carried out by Mustari et al. (2012), who conducted a survey on the importance of language game methods in teaching and learning Arabic based on a literature review. Mustari et al. (2012) found that the language game method can strengthen students' understanding of Arabic and other impacts on the additional knowledge through creative teaching methods and stimulating students through repeated learning. The students were also found to show good interest in learning Arabic and were able to increase their self-confidence.

A study by Sukardi et al. (2016) on the gamification of the Arabic language also supports the study of Mustari et al. (2012), who found that the gamification method is suitable to be put into practice to help improve students' mastery. It can also reduce the problem of students' weaknesses in Arabic language mastery. It is in line with the rapid development of technology nowadays, which requires reformation in technology-based education.

Jasni et al. (2019) also surveyed the importance of the gamification approach in learning Arabic in Malaysia. His study also found that gamification methods can improve students' skills, especially the mastering of language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is because the learning process that uses the gamification method involves repetition activities which facilitate the acquisition of the Arabic language. This can be practiced during the learning session.

The study of Mohamad et al. (2019) reinforces the findings of Mustari et al. (2012), Sukardi et al. (2016), and Jasni et al. (2019), who discovered that the gamification approach in learning *al-'adad* (العدد) and *al-m'adūd* (المعدود) Arabic had a practical effect on students' performance. It is based on their survey of 60 students at Maahad Ahmadi Gemenchih Negeri Sembilan. The study's findings have proven that the experimental group that used the gamification approach in learning *al-'adad* and *al-ma'dūd* has shown a more significant improvement compared to the control group that did not use the gamification approach in learning *al-'adad* and *al-ma'dūd*.

Ismath et al. (2022) have shown that the gamification method increases students' knowledge in learning Arabic connecting words by reaching the highest mean score of 4.42. This situation can stimulate students' interest and motivation and further improve students' performance in learning Arabic. The findings of Ismath et al. (2022) on the effectiveness of gamification in learning Arabic connecting words also support the previous studies that found the gamification approach positively impacts students' Arabic language achievement.

The element of language games in the gamification approach gives a new perspective on technology-based learning. Based on several past studies, it is undeniable that the gamification approach in Arabic language education can positively impact learning. Therefore, the gamification approach needs to become a practice among educators in Malaysia as a solution to students' problems in mastering the Arabic language.

IV. A STUDY ON KNOWLEDGE AND ACCEPTANCE OF EDUCATORS AND FACTORS DRIVING THE USE OF GAMIFICATION AS A TECHNOLOGY APPROACH IN EDUCATION

Teachers' positive attitudes and responses to the use of ICT are essential in improving the technology usage in education (Mollaei & Riasati, 2013). Based on a study by Iberahim and Noor (2020), the gamification approach still needs to be implemented in schools. Teachers are not interested in using gamification in teaching due to the need for more skills and knowledge (Adukaite & Cantoni, 2016; An et al., 2020; Devendren & Nasri, 2022). Al-Furaydi (2013) stated that teachers' knowledge of using computers in online teaching and learning has a positive relationship with the acceptance of e-learning in the classroom. However, there are still teachers who need to gain knowledge about the ICT policy introduced by the government, which causes the acceptance of teachers in the use of online teaching and learning to still be at a low level (Al-Furaydi, 2013).

Among other external factors that give impact the use of gamification among teachers is the need for more skill in using technology, especially computers, which refers to those teachers who live in rural areas (Kleiman, 2000). This problem can be overcome by encouraging teachers to follow short courses and trainings (Gilakjani & Leong, 2012) or get guidance from gamification experts (An et al., 2020). To achieve the optimal use of gamification in schools, ICT courses, or trainings as well as the use of technology in education, need to be expanded so that teachers' knowledge of using technology in language education can be improved, thus, the objectives of language teaching and learning can be successfully achieved. Teachers' training through workshops and computer facilities provided and previous teaching experience with ICT can influence teachers' attitudes and tendencies towards using ICT (Park & Son, 2009). This is essential because it is significantly related to the success or failure of the implementation of ICT in teaching and learning. Egbert et al. (2002) found that teachers who have experience using ICT in education are more likely to accept e-learning in teaching. It is because the experience of using ICT in teaching and learning can attract students' interest and increase their confidence and motivation in language learning (Park & Son, 2009).

In addition, some teachers face difficulties using the internet to access information or data needed in the teaching and learning process (Adukaite & Cantoni, 2016). The problems are such as the instability of internet access, the constraints of school resource support and technology infrastructure (Adukaite & Cantoni, 2016; Zainuddin et al., 2020), time factors, and aging teachers (Mart íParre ño et al., 2016). Therefore, the role of stakeholders is essential in ensuring that technological infrastructure resources are continuously improved according to the current needs so that the problem of internet access can be overcome well (Gilakjani & Leong, 2012; Ismail et al., 2021). School support plays a vital role as a driving factor (Ismail et al., 2021) as technology usage in education can be used among teachers.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Based on the literature studies above, it was found that the gamification method needs to be implemented in Arabic teaching in Malaysia. This follows the findings of previous studies that have proven this method can positively and practically affect learning. The practice of using gamification among educators needs to be expanded to have a good impact on the performance of learning Arabic. Therefore, the researchers have built a model framework for the implementation of the practice of using gamification in the teaching of Arabic in Malaysia based on the previous studies, as shown in the following Figure 1:

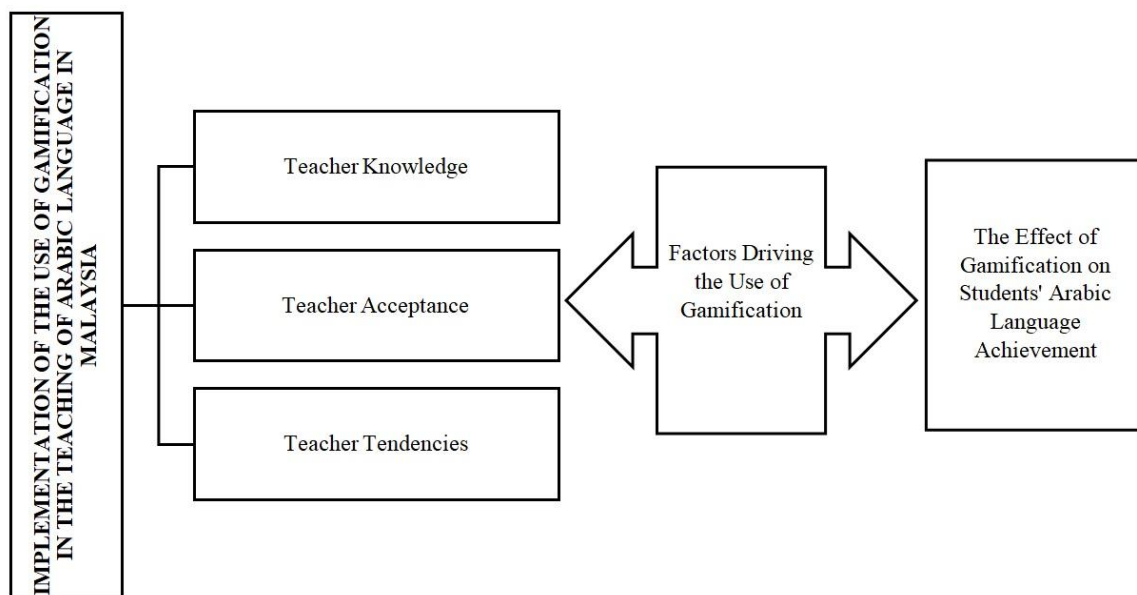


Figure 1. Framework for the Implementation Model of the Practice of Gamification in Teaching Arabic in Malaysia

Based on Figure 1 above, the use of gamification in Arabic language education in Malaysia can be implemented by identifying the level of readiness of teachers based on their knowledge. It is crucial because teachers' knowledge is closely related to acceptance (Al-Furaydi, 2013) and tendency (Egbert et al., 2002) of teachers to practice gamification. The practice of using gamification among educators can be realised by focusing on the driving factors that can encourage its wider use. Schools and the Malaysian Ministry of Education need to increase the number of courses and training in the form of technology and ICT services so that teachers can be exposed to a deeper understanding of the importance of gamification practices and subsequently have an optimal effect in teaching and learning. The level of proficiency in the use of ICT plays an essential role for teachers in implementing ICT because it can influence their motivation (Gobbo & Girardi, 2001) to apply technology-based teaching and learning methods.

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Semantics of Quantifiers in Mandarin Chinese: *Mei* (每) ‘Every’ and *Dou* (都) ‘All’

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Abstract—From a syntactic-semantic perspective, based on the number feature of subjects and predicates, we propose that: 1. *Dou*, it is radically a maximal operator, while it is also a dependent distributor (or called “partial distributive operator”), which has to occur with plural individuality including *mei*; 2. Compared to *dou*, *mei* is a near-independent distributive operator, in that with a quantity predicate, it can be an independent distributive operator, whereas with a property one, it requires other linguistic elements like *dou* to create together the distributive effect; 3. The distributive effect can be achieved in diverse ways: by the sole entry *mei*, by “*mei plus dou*”, and by the combination of *dou* with its scoped nominals that possess “plural individuality”; 4. From the various ways of yielding distributive effect, a generalized rule is obtained: the plural feature and the individual feature, they contribute together to yield distributive effect.

Index Terms—semantics, quantifiers, Chinese, *mei*, *dou*, quantification

I. INTRODUCTION

The quantifiers in Mandarin Chinese *mei* (每) ‘every’ and *dou* (都) ‘all’ have been extensively studied with significant accomplishments (e.g., Choe, 1987; Liu, 1990; Cheng, 1995; Lin, 1998; Huang & Shi, 2013; Niu & Pan, 2015; Shen, 2015; Ruan, 2018; Huang, 2022). However, two issues arise: 1. Irrespective of whether it is the study of *mei* or *dou*, contradictory viewpoints are drawn upon despite the same theoretical framework applied to the studies (e.g., formal semantics); 2. Surprisingly similar research findings have emerged concerning the semantic properties of *mei* and *dou*.

Previous research on the semantics of *mei* generally tends to three different viewpoints: universal quantifier (Huang, 1996, 2005), sum operator (Lin, 1998; Zhang & Pan, 2019), and distributive operator (Huang & Jiang, 2009; Luo, 2011).

A comparable threefold standpoint is also observed in the study of the semantics of *dou*: universal quantifier (Lee, 1986; Pan, 2006; Jiang & Pan, 2013; Feng & Pan, 2018), sum operator (Huang, 1996, 2005; Yuan, 2005b), and distributive operator (Lin, 1998; Pan, 2000, 2006; Cheng, 2009).

The aforementioned two problems existed in previous studies not only necessitate further investigation into *mei* and *dou*, but also demonstrate the inherent limitations of formal logic analysis in natural languages. Therefore, this paper will explore the semantic properties of *mei* and *dou* and their relationship by adopting an approach of natural languages.

This paper is organized as follows: we first explore semantic functions of *dou* in Section II, then we try to generalize the generative mechanism of distributive effect in Mandarin Chinese. In Section IV, we investigate semantics of *mei*. In the last section, we summarize all of the above discussions.

II. *DOU*, DISTRIBUTIVE OPERATOR VS. MAXIMAL OPERATOR

A. *Dou*, a Dependent Distributor

According to Cheng (2009), it functions as two operators: a distributive and a maximal one. See *dou* as a “distributive operator” in (1)¹ and (2).

- (1) a. 张三 和 马丽 明天 结婚。
Zhangsan he Mali mingtian jiehun.
 Zhangsan and Mali tomorrow marry
 ‘Zhangsan and Mali will get married tomorrow.’ Lee (1986, p. 58)
- b. 张三 和 马丽 明天 都 结婚。
Zhangsan he Mali mingtian dou jiehun.
 Zhangsan and Mali tomorrow DOU marry

¹ Abbreviations used in the Chinese examples: 1: first person; 2: second person; 3: third person; BA: causative marker; CL: classifier; CL-General: General Classifier; CL_{volume}: the classifier *ben* ‘volume’; CL_{bottle}: the classifier *ping* ‘bottle’; CL_{group}: the classifier *zu* ‘group’; DE: associative particle; DEM: demonstrative; PASS: passive; PL: plural; PRF: perfective aspect; SFP: sentence final particle; SG: singular.

- (2) a. ‘Zhangsan and Mali will both marry (someone else) tomorrow.’
 我们 合用 一 个 厨房。
Women heyong yi ge chufang.
 1PL share one CL-General kitchen
 ‘We share a kitchen.’
- b. 我们 都 合用 一 个 厨房。 Lee (1986, p. 177)
Women dou heyong yi ge chufang.
 1PL DOU share one CL-General kitchen
 ‘We each share a kitchen (with someone else).’

By means of symmetric predicates like *jiehun* ‘marry (each other)’, the distributive effect of *dou* is evidently demonstrated. In (1b), with *dou*, *Zhangsan* and *Mali* marry someone else, respectively. This contrasts with the husband-wife relationship between *Zhangsan* and *Mali* in (1a). The same is true of (2).

However, *dou* does not always play the role of distributor, as shown in (3), cited from Cheng (2009, p. 54).

- (3) a. 他们 都 一起 来。
Tamen dou yiqi lai.
 3PL DOU together come
 ‘All of them came together.’
- b. 这 座 桥 都 倒-下来-了。
Zheng zuo qiao dou dao-xialai-le.
 whole CL bridge DOU fall-down-SFP
 ‘The whole bridge collapsed.’

The co-occurrence of *dou* with *yiqi* ‘together’ implies that their meanings are not contrastive. This tells us that *dou* in (3a) cannot be a distributive operator, just as Cheng argued that the translation ‘Each of them came together’ is not grammatical.

On the other hand, in (3b), unlike Cheng’s explanation, we would like to emphasize that *dou* is not a credible plural marker. In other words, *dou* does not license only plurals, since it can also receive singularity, such as *zheng zuo qiao* in (3b). We think that this phrase is referred to a singular entity rather than a plural one, which is however translated by Cheng (2009) as ‘pieces of the bridge’.

To see *dou* is not a plural marker, we provide the following cases in (4).

- (4) a. 所有 的 爱 都 给 你。
Suoyou de ai dou gei ni.
 all DE love DOU give 2SG
 ‘All love is given to you.’
- b. 一切 都 很 好。
Yiqie dou hen hao.
 All DOU very good
 ‘All is good.’ or ‘All are good.’

In (4a), *ai* ‘love’ which is scoped by *dou* is massive, while the two possible translations of the sentence in (4b) tell that *dou* can occur with singular references as well.

B. *Dou*, a Radical Maximal Operator

Based on the fact that *dou* can scope nominal singulars, we can infer that *dou* in (3b) does not function as a distributor. More precisely, we think *dou* is a maximal operator that gives a total interpretation to the set ‘*zheng zuo qiao*’ and involves all members of the set. But what happens to *dou* in this extreme case is that there is only one member in the set.

To see *dou* is maximal, we provide the following cases in (5).

- (5) a. 学生-们 去 学校 了。
Xuesheng-men qu xuexiao le.
 student-PL go school SFP
 ‘The students have gone to school.’
- b. 学生-们 都 去 学校 了。
Xuesheng-men dou qu xuexiao le.

student-PL DOU go school SFP
 ‘The students all have gone to school.’

In (5a), the number of the students do not have to be strictly maximal, most of them have gone to school is enough, whereas in (5b), with the presence of *dou*, the event involves every student of the set ‘*Xuesheng-men*’. This semantic contrast demonstrates that *dou* has maximal function.

To sum up, we partially concur with Cheng (2009) in claiming that *dou* functions not only as a maximal operator, but also as a distributive operator. Furthermore, we propose that *dou*'s maximality is primary (radical) and obligatory, whereas its distributivity is secondary and optional. This is supported by our findings that *dou* is neither a sufficient nor a necessary condition for generating distributive effect. This point is further confirmed by the fact that the distributive effect can be achieved in diverse ways: 1. By the combination of *dou* with its scoped nominals that possess “plural individuality”²; 2. By applying “*mei* plus *dou*”, as proposed by Cheng (2009)³; 3. By the standalone use of *mei*. The first two ways above demonstrate that *dou* needs other linguistic elements to generate the distributive effect. Therefore, *dou* is not an independent distributive operator, i.e. it is a dependent distributor (or called “partial distributive operator”).

III. GENERATIVE MECHANISM OF DISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT

In this section, we will analyze the three aforementioned ways to achieve distributive effect, with the intention of: 1. Demonstrating that the fundamental semantics of *dou* is not distributive; 2. Exploring the correlation between *mei* and *dou*. Initially, we investigate “plural and individual nominal+*dou*”, then *mei*, and in the end “*mei* plus *dou*”.

A. “Plural and Individual Nominal + Dou” & “Mei”

See the examples in (6) and (7) for “plural and individual nominal+*dou*” and *mei*, respectively.

- (6) a. 他们 有 三 本 书。
Tamen you san ben shu.
 3PL have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘They have three books.’
- b. 他们 都 有 三 本 书。
Tamen dou you san ben shu.
 3PL DOU have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘Each of them has three books.’
- c. 这 三 个 人 喝 了 五 瓶 水。
Zhe san ge ren he le wu ping shui.
 DEM three CL-General person drink PRF five CL_{bottle} water
 ‘These three people have drunk five bottles of water.’
- d. 这 三 个 人 都 喝 了 五 瓶 水。
Zhe san ge ren dou he le wu ping shui.
 DEM three CL-General person DOU drink PRF five CL_{bottle} water
 ‘Each of these three people has drunk five bottles of water.’
- (7) a. 每 个 学 生 有 三 本 书。
Mei ge xuesheng you san ben shu.
 MEI CL-General student have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘Every student has three books.’
- b. 每 个 学 生 都 有 三 本 书。
Mei ge xuesheng dou you san ben shu.
 MEI CL-General student DOU have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘Every student has three books.’

In (6), the nominals *tamen* ‘they’ and *zhe san ge ren* ‘these three persons’ both refer to plural entities, i.e. objects with individuality and plurality. However, the minimal pair (6a) and (6b) offer different quantificational information. This is due to whether *dou* occurs. With the presence of *dou*, *tamen* ‘they’ is distributed, so every person among them has his own three books. The same account can cover the contrast between (6c) and (6d).

In brief, a nominal with plural individuality can produce distributive effect if it occurs with *dou*.

In (7) where *mei* occurs, there is no interpretative contrast, regardless of whether *dou* occurs. In both cases, the

² With respect to “plural individuality”, it means referents that have not only the feature of semantic individuality but also that of semantic plurality. This rules out referents like: 1. *scissors* in English, having [-semantic plurality, +semantic individuality]; 2. *water* in English, having [-semantic plurality, -semantic individuality].

³ Cheng (2009) proposed that the distributive effect does not attribute to a single-handed *dou*, instead, it is created by *mei* and *dou* together.

members of *xuesheng* ‘student’ set are distributed. This fact shows that *mei* can be a distributor without *dou*. In this sense, *mei* is an independent distributive operator. In addition, the contrast between (7a) and (7b), that is, *dou* is present or absent, demonstrates that *dou* is not a necessary element to produce distributivity.

Generally speaking, the sole entry *mei* can yield the distributive effect.

B. “*Mei + Dou*”

Now let’s focus on “*mei plus dou*”, as seen in (8).

- (8) a. * 每个 学生 笑了。
 * *Mei ge xuesheng xiao le.*
 MEI CL-General student laugh PRF
 Intended: ‘Every student laughed.’
- b. 每个 学生 都 笑了。
Mei ge xuesheng dou xiao le.
 MEI CL-General student DOU laugh PRF
 ‘Every student laughed’ or ‘Every one of the students laughed.’

In (8), the illegal status of (8a) is caused by the absence of *dou*. It seems that *mei* must co-occur with *dou*, this appears to be contradictory to the fact shown in (7) where *mei* does not need to occur with *dou* together.

For this contradiction, we propose the following reason: it is correlated to the diverse nature of predicates. The predicate in (7) is quantificational, while the one in (8) is qualificational (it regards some property, not quantity).

This quantity-property contrast between predicates is clearly seen in cases like (9).

- (9) a. 他们 笑了。
Tamen xiao le.
 3PL laugh PRF
 ‘They laughed.’
- b. 他们 都 笑了。
Tamen dou xiao le.
 3PL DOU laugh PRF
 ‘They all laughed.’
- c. 他们 有 三 本 书。
Tamen you san ben shu.
 3PL have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘They have three books.’
- d. 他们 都 有 三 本 书。
Tamen dou you san ben shu.
 3PL DOU have three CL_{volume} book
 ‘Each of them has three books.’

In (9), the predicates of (9a) and (9b) are both a property *xiao* ‘laugh’, while those of (9c) and (9d) both regard a quantity *you san ben shu* ‘have three books’. With the quantity predicate there is a different interpretation between (9c) and (9d), whereas with the property predicate (9a) and (9b) almost have the same meaning.

More precisely, for (9d), *tamen* ‘they’ and *dou* product together the distributive effect. The nominal *tamen* ‘they’ is distributed, each member that belongs to the set *tamen* has three books. If the set has two members, they have six books in total. The accumulation is visible due to the quantificational predicate. However, for (9b), following the same way, the accumulation is not directly sensed, since the relevant predicate is qualificational: *xiao* ‘laugh’ plus *xiao* ‘laugh’ is still *xiao* ‘laugh’.

Returning to the previous “*mei plus dou*” question, i.e. why there is a contrast of grammaticality between (7a) and (8a), our explanation is that the distributive function of *mei* is weakened by a property predicate. For cases like (8) where there is a property predicate, *mei*’s distributive function is weakened, and it needs the help of *dou*, which can contribute to add distributive effect.

As for cases like (7), the optional presence of *dou* attributes to the nature of its predicate: a quantity one, which makes the distributive effect visible. In this situation, a sole *mei* is enough to finish the distributive operation. To justify our proposal above, we present a selection of examples in (10) drawn from Cheng (2009, pp. 60-62).

- (10) a. 每 (一) 个 学生 * (都) 来了。
*Mei (yi) ge xuesheng *(dou) lai le.*
 MEI one CL student DOU come PRF

- ‘Every student came.’
- b. 每 (一) 个 学生 * (都) 看 了 那 本 书。
*Mei (yi) ge xuesheng *(dou) kan le nei ben shu.*
 MEI one CL student DOU read PRF that CL book
 ‘Every student read that book.’
- c. 每 (一) 个 厨 师 (都) 做 一 道 菜。
Mei (yi) ge chushi (dou) zuo yi dao cai.
 MEI one CL chef DOU make one CL dish
 ‘Every chef makes a dish.’
- d. 每 (一) 个 厨 师 * (都) 做 那 道 菜。
*Mei (yi) ge chushi *(dou) zuo nei dao cai.*
 MEI one CL chef DOU make one CL dish
 ‘Every chef makes that dish.’

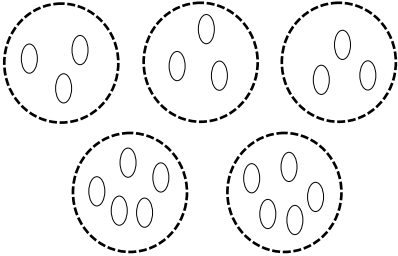
As shown in (10), *lai* ‘come’ in (10a) is a standard property predicate, while *kan nei ben shu* ‘read that book’ in (10b) and *zuo nei dao cai* ‘make that dish’ in (10d), seem, at first glance, a quantity one. But if we think carefully, we will discover that they both regard a definite referent. Therefore, this type of predicate indicates a property as well, just like predicates such as *kan shu* ‘read books’ does. On the other hand, *zuo yi dao cai* ‘make a dish’ in (10c) belongs to quantity predicates.

To sum up, we argue that there are three ways to yield distributive effect. One is using only a word *mei* (*dou* is optional), if the predicate of a clause is a quantity one. Another is combining *mei* and *dou*, if the predicate of a clause is a property one. The last one is through the pattern “plural and individual nominal+*dou*”.

IV. *MEI*, A NEAR-INDEPENDENT DISTRIBUTOR

As we mentioned before, *mei* can be an autonomous distributor if the predicate of a clause is a quantity one. Now let’s explain why it is so.

First, we argue that *mei* is an individualizing operator. This proposal is different from the standpoint in Cheng (2009) where *mei* is thought of as universal force. The individualizing function of *mei* is due to facts illustrated in (11).

- (11) a. 每 三 本 书
mei san ben shu
 MEI three CL_{volume} book
 ‘every three books’
- b. 每 五 瓶 水
mei wu ping shui
 MEI five CL_{bottle} water
 ‘every five bottles of water’
- 

From (11a), we can see that, *mei* scopes over the whole numeral expression *san ben shu* ‘three books’. In this expression, the CL *ben* ‘volume’ modifies only the noun *shu* ‘book’, and it individualizes this noun. In addition, the whole phrase *mei san ben shu* ‘every three books’ has an individualizing meaning.

These two points imply that it is not the CL *ben* ‘volume’ that contributes to the individuality of the whole phrase *mei san ben shu* ‘every three books’, but the sole *mei* does, as shown by the dotted circles in (11). As a consequence, we can say that *mei* is an individual operator. The same is true of (11b).

Second, we claim that *mei* is a pluralizing operator. This is supported by Lin’s (1998) viewpoint that nouns phrases with *mei* is a plurality, as shown in (12) and (13).

- (12) a. 我们 每 个 人
women mei ge ren
 1PL MEI CL-General person
 ‘all of us’
- b. * 我 每 个 人
 * *wo mei ge ren*
 1SG MEI CL-General person

(12b) is illegal in that the first and singular personal pronoun *wo* ‘I’ cannot be co-indexed with *mei ge ren* ‘everyone’, whereas (12a) is acceptable due to the plural referent of *women* ‘we’, which regards two persons at least.

- (13) a. 我 有 三 本 书, 每 本 都 很 好。
Wo you san ben shu, mei ben dou hen hao.
 1SG have three CL_{volume} book MEI CL_{volume} DOU very good
 ‘I have three books, each of them is good.’
- b. * 我 有 一 本 书, 每 本 都 很 好。
 * *Wo you yi ben shu, mei ben dou hen hao.*
 1SG have one CL_{volume} book MEI CL_{volume} DOU very good
 ‘I have one book, each of them is good.’
- c. * 我 吃-了 冰淇淋, 每 个 人 都 很 开 心。
 * *Wo chi-le bingqilin, mei ge ren dou hen kaixin.*
 1SG eat-PRF ice-cream MEI CL-General person DOU very good
 ‘I have eaten ice-cream, everyone is happy.’
- d. 我 们 吃-了 冰淇淋, 每 个 人 都 很 开 心。
Women chi-le bingqilin, mei ge ren dou hen kaixin.
 1PL eat-PRF ice-cream MEI CL-General person DOU very good
 ‘We have eaten ice-cream, everyone is happy.’

The contrast between (13a) and (13b) is caused by the opposite number of the quantifying expressions: in (13a) *san* ‘three’ explicitly indicates the plural state of *shu* ‘book’, so *mei* is legal; whereas in (13b) *yi* ‘one’ expresses the nominal singularity, thereby, *mei* is illegal.

Furthermore, the contrast between (13c) and (13d) is provoked by the contrary number of pronoun: in these two examples, we presume that pronouns *wo* ‘I’ and *women* ‘we’ in the first clause are co-indexed with *mei ge ren* in the second clause, respectively. Under this premise, the ungrammatical status of (13c), i.e. *wo* ‘I’ and *mei ge ren* ‘every person’ fail to have an anaphoric relationship, tells us that *mei* has to be a plural marker.

In brief, we propose that *mei* has pluralizing function. This is further supported by the following minimal pair, offered by Lin (1998, p. 236).

- (14) a. 每 一 组 小孩 都 画 了 一 张 画。
Mei yi zu xiaohai dou hua le yi zhang hua.
 MEI one CL child DOU draw PRF one CL picture
 ‘Every group of children drew one picture.’
- b. 那 一 组 小孩 都 画 了 一 张 画。
Nei yi zu xiaohai dou hua le yi zhang hua.
 that one CL child DOU draw PRF one CL picture
 ‘That group of children all drew a picture’

In (14a) *zu* ‘group’ is distributed, whereas in (14b) *xiaohai* ‘child(ren)’ is distributed. This contrast results from the absence of *mei* in (14b). As mentioned before, *mei* gives plural feature to its local (nearest) elements. In (14a), it gives this feature to the Cl *zu* ‘group’, instead of the nominal *xiaohai* ‘child(ren)’.

In contrast, in (14b), *mei* is not present, so *zu* ‘group’ does not get the opportunity to demonstrate plural feature. In addition, *nei yi zu* ‘that group’ denotes a singular referent. As a consequence, *dou* is forced to turn to other possible plural individuality, that is, *xiaohai* ‘child(ren)’, a bare noun with RB (referential boundary)⁴ that can offer the feature required by *dou*, i.e. plurality.

In order to explore *mei* in a deeper way, it needs to generalize the conditions of distributive operation.

If we change the number of the expression that *dou* scopes in (14b), *dou* will help to distribute *zu* ‘group’ again, instead of *xiao hai* ‘child(ren)’, as illustrated in (15). The contrast between (14b) and (15) implies that to finish the distributive operation, the object to be distributed must have plurality feature.

- (15) 那 三 组 小孩 都 画 了 一 张 画。
Nei san zu xiaohai dou hua le yi zhang hua.
 that three CL_{group} child DOU draw PRF one CL picture
 ‘These three groups of children all drew a picture’

Based on the above conclusion that plural feature is indispensable to realize distributive operation, we wonder

⁴ The RB notion has been proposed by Ruan (2018, p. 79).

whether individuality feature is also indispensable. To seek the answer, we would like to analyze examples in (16).

- (16) a. 桌子-上 全部 的 水 都 被 擦干-了。
Zhuozi-shang quanbu de shui dou bei cagan-le.
 table-on all DE water DOU PASS wipe-up-PRF
 ‘All the water on the table was wiped up.’
- b. 我 买-了 三 瓶 水, 我 把 全部 的 水 都 喝-了。
Wo mai-le san ping shui, wo ba quanbu de shui dou he-le.
 1SG buy-PRF three CL_{bottle} water 1SG BA all DE water DOU drink-PRF
 ‘I bought three bottles of water, all of them were drunk by me.’

From the contrast between (16a) and (16b) in terms of translations, we can say that *quanbu de shui* ‘all the water’ in (16a) is not distributed, whereas that in (16b) is. This is because this expression in (16b) refers to three bottles of water, which are three individual entities; while that in (16a) does not refer to individualized objects.

Hence, we argue that like plural feature, individual feature is also necessary to realize distributive operation. In addition, we argue that these two features contribute together to yield distributive effect.

To sum up, we propose that occurred with a quantity predicate, *mei* can be an independent distributive operator, whereas with a property one, it requires other linguistic elements like *dou* to create together the distributive effect. In this sense, *mei* can be seen as a near-independent distributive operator, in comparison to *dou*.

V. CONCLUSION

Starting from natural language facts, we explored semantic properties of *mei* and *dou* from a syntactic-semantic perspective. We found that: 1. *Dou*, it is radically a maximal operator, while it is also a dependent distributor (or called “partial distributive operator”), which has to occur with plural individuality including *mei*; 2. Compared to *dou*, *mei* is a near-independent distributive operator, in that with a quantity predicate, *mei* can be an independent distributive operator, whereas with a property one, it requires other linguistic elements like *dou* to create together the distributive effect; 3. The distributive effect can be achieved in diverse ways: by the sole entry *mei*, by “*mei* plus *dou*”, and by the combination of *dou* with its scoped nominals that possess “plural individuality”. These diverse ways of yielding distributive effect can be reduced to a generalized rule: the plural feature and the individual feature, they contribute together to yield distributive effect.

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Male Versus Female Understanding of the Endangered Lexicon of *Tabuh Rah* Ritual

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Abstract—This study aims to identify differences in the level of understanding of the community in the village of Menyali, Bali, Indonesia, towards the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual in terms of gender. Specifically, this study identified the different levels of understanding between men and women in the village regarding the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Besides, it also proved whether the difference is significant or not. This research was conducted by involving 364 respondents who were selected using stratified random sampling. The study data were collected using objective tests. The test results were then analyzed quantitatively using descriptive statistical analysis and non-parametric inferential statistics by Mann Whitney U test. This study found that the results of descriptive statistics confirmed that men have a higher understanding of the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual than women. Based on the results of the inferential test using Mann Whitney U, it was found that the difference in the level of understanding was significant. So, it was concluded that men in the village of Menyali generally proved to have a better level of understanding than women about the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Further discussion of the research results is provided in the article.

Index Terms—feminism, gender, lexicon, patriarchy

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the Language Agency, Ministry of Education and Culture, Indonesia has 718 regional languages (Kemdikbud, 2021). However, hundreds of these languages are vulnerable and dying (Anderbeck, 2015; Collins, 2019; Ravindranath & Cohn, 2014; van Engelenhoven, 2003). This condition is mostly caused by the shift of regional languages to Indonesian (Setyabudi, 2017; Steinhauer, 2013). Today, the dominant language has spread continuously, while the language of the minority group is extinct (Majzub & Rais, 2011). In Indonesia, Indonesian is the dominant language used by the Indonesian people as their first language. Most parents in Indonesia do not teach local languages to their children, but they immediately teach Indonesian as their first language (Budasi et al., 2021; Oktariyanti et al., 2021). The Balinese regional language is stated as one of the many regional languages in Indonesia that is experiencing this problem, namely the shift of language to Indonesian.

Because Balinese people carry out many cultural and religious activities, the Balinese language has many special lexicons that are only used in certain cultural and religious activities. One ritual activity with many special lexicons is *Tabuh Rah*. *Tabuh Rah* ritual is identical to cockfighting gambling, and cockfighting is against the Criminal Code, namely article 303. Cockfighting games cannot be carried out even for ritual purposes since gambling is prohibited based on national law. The problem is that language and culture are intertwined (Abdalla & Mohammed, 2020; Mikhaleva & Régnier, 2014; Rabiah, 2018). This means we can maintain language through cultural activities (Kim, 2020). Therefore, if a part of the culture is lost, it is possible that part of the language is lost. Thus, in the case of *Tabuh Rah* and Balinese, many special lexicons in *Tabuh Rah* are no longer used by Balinese people.

The situation mentioned above makes certain lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual potentially terminated. Therefore, efforts to avoid the lexicon from extinction are necessary, considering that more and more regional languages are threatened with extinction. Several studies have been carried out related to *Tabuh Rah* found that *Tabuh Rah* was often misused by the community and turned into Judi Tajen, giving rise to a negative impression because it violated the law (Dewi, 2016; Gunarta, 2019; Putra et al., 2021; Widayanti & Suardana, 2020). From the linguistic side, Sutarna (2011) has identified the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual that may be experiencing extinction. Forty-six lexicons were identified in this study, and the lexicon was limited to the same lexicon used in Tajen gambling. Furthermore, Kusuma (2020) studied the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual in Menyali Village and identified 76 commonly used lexicons.

Then Budasi et al. (2021) conducted research using 76 lexicons found by Kusuma (2019) and found that the lexicon is indeed endangered, and the general public no longer understands 29.58% of the lexicon.

Furthermore, research conducted by Indriani and Budasi (2021) also confirmed that people's understanding of the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual is differentiated by age. The higher the age of the community, the higher their understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. To complement previous studies, this study aims to further examine the level of understanding of the community in the village of Menyali towards the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual regarding gender. The results of this study will provide information about the level of understanding of the Mengali village community regarding the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. In addition, the results of this study will show whether there are differences in the level of public understanding in terms of gender, considering that the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual has similarities with the lexicon used in Cockfighting Gambling. In cockfighting gambling, it is generally dominated by men. By knowing the level of public understanding in terms of gender, it will add information about the existence of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual so that further actions in language preservation efforts can be carried out more precisely.

II. METHOD

From the data and data analysis conducted in this study, this research is classified as quantitative research. This study was conducted in Menyali Village, Sawan District, Buleleng Regency, Bali. The subject of this research is the community in Menyali Village, Sawan District, Buleleng Regency, Bali. The population in this study amounted to 3483 people. The number of samples was determined using the Slovin formula, and the number of samples corresponding to a significance level of 0.5% was 359. Following the purpose of the study, which is to see the differences in understanding of the villagers' understanding of the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual based on gender, the appropriate research technique in this study is to use stratified random sampling. The researchers divided the samples based on the age group categories of children, adolescents, adults, and the elderly into gender categories.

In this study, data were collected through tests. The test determines whether the villagers know the meaning of the 76 lexicons in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Thus, the test was developed based on the 76 lexicons in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual identified in Kusuma's (2020) research. The test results were tabulated using the Microsoft Excel 2013 application. Furthermore, the tabulated data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and non-parametric inferential statistics using the Mann Whitney U test with the help of SPSS 20.0 for windows.

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

To get a clearer picture of the level of understanding of the Menyali village community regarding the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual in terms of gender, this section presents the results of descriptive statistics and the frequency of the level of understanding of each gender. The following is the explanation of the results of descriptive statistics and the frequency and level of understanding of each gender.

A. Descriptive Statistics Results

From the results of descriptive statistics, it was found that from the average score, men had a higher understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual than women. From the data obtained, the average value of male understanding is 48.4, while the value of female understanding is 46.2. The same was also found in the median value, which showed that men had a higher median value than women, namely 42 for men and 40.5 for women. Likewise, the maximum and minimum values of each gender also show the same results, namely that men have higher minimum and maximum values than women. The minimum value for men is 23, while for women is 18. The maximum value for men is 70, while for women, it is 69. The difference in understanding of men and women on the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual can also be seen from the range, which shows that the range for understanding men is smaller than that of women. The data shows that men have a better understanding than women. This is also shown in terms of the standard deviation, which indicates that the standard deviation of men is lower than that of women, with the average value indicating that men have a higher average value than women. The standard deviation value also confirms that Men have a better understanding than women. Descriptive statistical data regarding the understanding of village communities regarding the *Tabuh Rah* ritual lexicon can be seen in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS

		Male	Female
N	Valid	182	182
	Missing	0	0
Mean		48.4341	46.1758
Median		42.0000	40.5000
Mode		24.00	35.00
Std. Deviation		1.60	1.67
Variance		258.048	280.311
Range		47.00	51.00
Minimum		23.00	18.00
Maximum		70.00	69.00
Sum		8815.00	8404.00

When displayed in graphic form, the comparison of descriptive statistics on the understanding of male and female respondents regarding the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual will be shown in Figure 1 below.

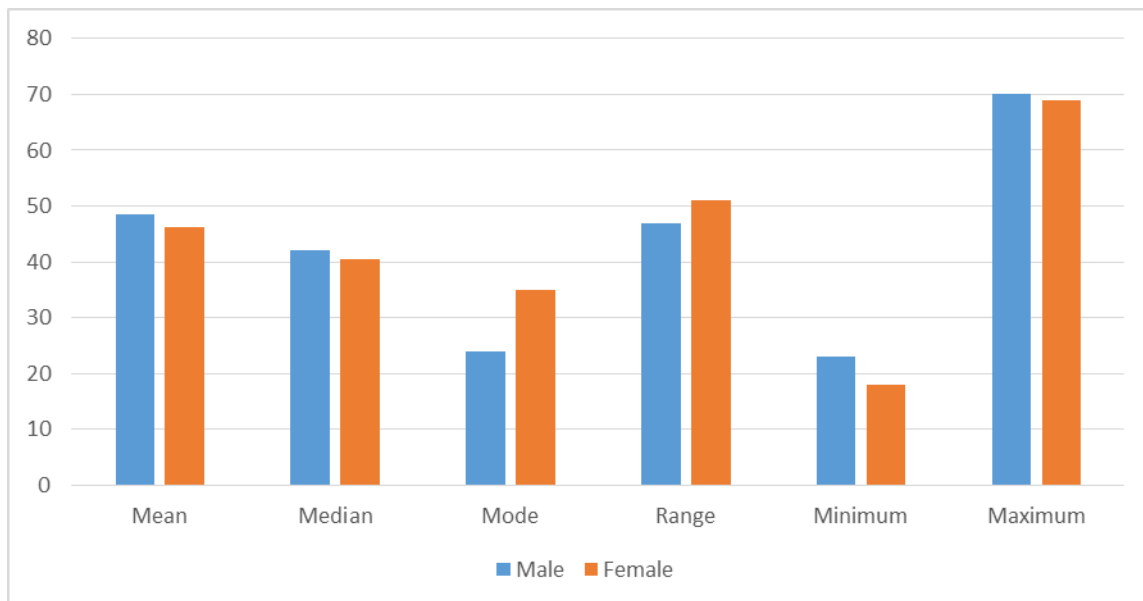


Figure 1. Comparison of Descriptive Statistics Results of Men's and Women's Understanding of the Lexicon Used in the *Tabuh Rah* Ritual

B. Comprehension Level Frequency Results

To see in more detail the differences in the level of understanding of men and women regarding the lexicon in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual, the researchers compared their understanding in terms of frequency. For this reason, researchers categorize their level of understanding into categories compiled using theoretical ideal reference assessment theory (see Table 2). This theory obtains the categorization criteria, as seen in Table 3.

TABLE 2
THEORETICAL IDEAL REFERENCE ASSESSMENT

No	Interval	Category
1	$(MI + 1.5 SDI) < X$	Very High
2	$(MI + 0.5 SDI) \leq X < (MI + 1.5 SDI)$	High
3	$(MI - 0.5 SDI) < X < (MI + 0.5 SDI)$	Moderate
4	$(MI - 1.5 SDI) \leq X < (MI - 0.5 SDI)$	Low
5	$X < (MI - 1.5 SDI)$	Very Low

Notes:

$MI = \frac{1}{2}$ (ideal maximum score + ideal minimum score)

$SDI = \frac{1}{6}$ (ideal maximum score - ideal minimum score)

TABLE 3
CRITERIA FOR CATEGORIZING PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING OF THE LEXICON IN THE *TABUH RAH* RITUAL

No	Interval	Category
1	$54 < X$	Very High
2	$42 \leq X < 54$	High
3	$30 \leq X < 42$	Moderate
4	$19 \leq X < 30$	Low
5	$X < 19$	Very Low

Based on these categories and the results of data analysis, the male and female understanding of the lexicon used by the *Tabuh Rah* ritual was classified. The frequencies for each classification based on the classification in Table 3 are found as shown in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4
CRITERIA FOR CATEGORIZING PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING OF THE LEXICON IN THE *TABUH RAH* RITUAL

Category	Percentage	
	Male	Female
Very Low	0%	1.1%
Low	13.2%	13.1%
Moderate	31.3%	42.9%
High	12.6%	8.6%
Very High	42.9%	34.3%

From the data shown in Table 4, it can be seen that there are no men who have a very low understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Meanwhile, there were 1.1% of women had a very low understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. From these data, it can also be seen that the majority (42.9%) of the men in Menyali village have a very high understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Meanwhile, the majority of women (42.9%) had a moderate understanding. The data confirms that there are differences in the level of understanding between men and women in the village of Menyali regarding the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Where men have a higher understanding than women. However, to prove whether the difference in the level of understanding is significant, further analysis is needed using inferential statistics tests.

C. Inferential Statistics Results

From the results of descriptive statistical analysis, it can be seen that there are differences in the level of understanding between male and female respondents regarding the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. However, to be able to determine whether the difference is significant or not, further analysis is necessary. In this study, the researcher initially wanted to do a test using an independent t-test. However, considering that the data regarding the understanding of male and female respondents were not normally distributed, the test was carried out using Mann-Whitney U non-parametric statistics. The following are the results of the analysis carried out, starting with the normality and homogeneity tests and continuing with the Mann-Whitney U test.

Normality test

Based on the data obtained, the researchers conducted a normality test to ascertain whether the data on the understanding of male and female respondents collected were normally distributed. The normality test of the data was carried out using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 20 for windows. The results of the normality test can be seen in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5
NORMALITY TEST RESULTS

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Male	.224	182	.000	.862	182	.000
Female	.207	182	.000	.869	182	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Table 5 shows that the value of sig. from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests is 0.00, which means it is smaller than the alpha of 0.05. If the value of sig. < 0.05 , then it means that the data is not normal. So, from the results in Table 5, it can be concluded that the understanding data of both men and women are not normally distributed.

Homogeneity Test

In addition to the normality test, the researchers also conducted a homogeneity test. The test was conducted using Levene statistics using SPSS ver 20 for windows. The results of the homogeneity test can be seen in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
HOMOGENEITY TEST RESULTS

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.681	1	362	.410

From the results of the analysis shown in Table 6 above, it was found that the value of sig. $0.41 > 0.05$. This means that the data is homogeneous because the data is declared homogeneous if the value of sig. > 0.05 .

Mann-Whitney U Test

Even though the data proved to be homogeneous, because the data were not normally distributed, the data did not meet the requirements to be tested using the t-test. So, in the next stage, the researchers conducted a test using Mann-Whitney U non-parametric statistics. Mann Whitney U non-parametric statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS ver 20 for Windows. The test results can be seen in Table 7 below.

TABLE 7
TEST RESULTS USING THE MANN-WHITNEY U TEST

	Understanding
Mann-Whitney U	13723.000
Wilcoxon W	30376.000
Z	-2.831
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.005
a. Grouping Variable: Gender	

From the analysis results shown in Table 7 above, it can be seen that the value of sig. $0.005 < 0.05$. This means that the difference in understanding between men and women is significant. In other words, in general, men are shown to have a better understanding than women.

The data analysis found that men's understanding of the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual is better than women's. This can be seen from descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. The descriptive statistics result found that the average value of understanding for men was higher than for women. Likewise, the results of the inferential test confirm that there is a significant difference in understanding. The results of this study support the results of research conducted by Budasi et al. (2021), who found that the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual was related to cockfighting gambling.

Cockfighting gambling is considered a male activity by Balinese people and Indonesian people (Aryanata, 2017; Fatimah, 2020). Even keeping chickens and stroking chickens while chatting with other men was considered the hallmark of ancient Balinese men (Widodo & Sudrajat, 2016). In other words, Balinese people consider cockfighting gambling as a masculine activity. Thus, the lexicon used in cockfighting gambling is also considered a lexicon that shows the masculinity.

In general, Balinese people expect Balinese women to act feminine and to distance themselves from activities that are categorized as masculine activities. Therefore, if there are women who gamble in cockfighting, it will be something strange in Balinese culture. These conditions make Balinese women feel embarrassed if they come and are involved in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual procession when cockfights are held.

The women will be more involved when preparing the offerings and prayers at the beginning of the *Tabuh Rah* ritual, and they will withdraw when the cockfights begin as a continuation of the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. This also makes Balinese women not really understand the lexicons used when cockfights are held. These findings are supported by the results of Budasi et al. (2021), who found that lexicons related to cockfighting are considered taboo for Balinese women because these lexicons represent masculinity. Furthermore, the study also found that because the government banned cockfighting gambling, many parents did not want to teach their children the lexicon, especially girls.

Apart from that, it can be said that these findings are related to the concept of patriarchy that applies in Bali as described in the Novels "Cockfighting" and "The Last Cockfighting" that in the world of cockfighting, Balinese men have absolute power over women (Artika, 2017). Men have special rights to gamble and have fun, while Balinese women have to take care of the family and take care of everything related to religious activities. Taking care of the family and making offerings are mandatory activities that show the femininity of Balinese women (Bukian et al., 2020; Indriani, 2019). This also makes Balinese men very rarely able to make offerings, even embarrassed to make offerings because it will connote gender issues (Giri et al., 2021). In other words, Balinese men who like and are good at making offerings will be considered feminine men. Therefore, where matters related to ceremonies, namely making offerings, are considered feminine, they become women's responsibilities (Agus et al., 2022; Ariyanti & Ardhana, 2020; Firdaus, 2021).

The existence of the concepts of patriarchy and feminism has resulted in the classification of gender for various activities in the life of the Balinese people. This also results in different understandings of the lexicon used by the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. In this ritual, there is a prayer procession that uses various types of offerings, and there is a cockfighting procession. Because most of the lexicons in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual are the same as in cockfighting gambling, men generally understand the lexicon in more numbers than women. Although men generally have a better

understanding of the lexicon, this study confirmed that women have a better understanding of the lexicons related to rituals.

IV. CONCLUSION

Following the research objectives presented previously, two main things can be conveyed in this research. First, the level of understanding of men is higher than that of women regarding the lexicon used in the *Tabuh Rah* ritual. Second, the differences in the understanding of men and women proved significant. This proves that men have a better understanding than women. However, women have a better understanding of the ritual-related lexicon. As for the lexicon related to cockfighting gambling, men have a better understanding. Based on the research results presented above, it is necessary to increase public understanding of the differences between the *Tabuh Rah* Ritual and Cockfighting Gambling. In addition, considering that this research is only limited to understanding the *Tabuh Rah* lexicon in terms of gender in general, it is necessary to carry out further research that examines understanding from the perspective of gender and age simultaneously.

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religious institutions (Widya Pasraman).

Cognate Object Constructions in Najdi Arabic: An HPSG Approach

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Abstract—Cognate object constructions (COCs) are known for their idiosyncratic properties in that they consist of an intransitive verb that takes an NP whose head is a verbal noun that is semantically and morphologically cognate to the verb. In Arabic literature, this topic is considered one of the understudied linguistic phenomena. Therefore, this paper attempts to contribute to the ongoing linguistic research by exploring COCs in one of the Arabic varieties, namely Najdi Arabic (NA). This paper illustrates the main properties that are shared by all COCs in NA. It also provides a theory-neutral description of the syntactico-semantic properties of one of the COC types, namely the particular event COC. In addition, it offers an analysis of the common core properties of all COCs and the syntactico-semantic properties of particular event COCs using the approach of Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG).

Index Terms—cognate object constructions, particular event COC, Najdi Arabic, non-transformational, HPSG

I. INTRODUCTION

Cognate object constructions (COCs) have received considerable attention among various linguists (e.g., Alqurashi, 2020; Al-Sammak, 2012; Farkas, 2020; Madkhali, 2017; Melloni & Maisini, 2017; Pereltsvaig, 1999; Pereltsvaig, 2002; Willson, 2019).

Generally, COCs can be described as constructions in which a verb and a postverbal noun have the property of being semantically and morphologically cognate (Macferland, 1995; Madkhali, 2017), as in (1) from Najdi Arabic (NA). In this example, it can be noticed that the cognate object (CO) *ḍʿeħk* ‘laugh’ is morphologically and semantically related to the verb *ḍʿħakan* ‘laughed’.

1. *l-bana:t* *ḍʿħakan* *ḍʿiħk* *ħa:li* *b-s²-s²af*
DEF-girls laughed laugh loud in-DEF-class
‘The girls laughed a loud laugh in the class.’

To the best of researchers’ knowledge, little attention has been paid to this construction in Arabic, more specifically, to the local varieties of Arabic. Consequently, it remains rather unclear what the nature of COCs is in such varieties. This paper attempts to fill this gap and contributes to current linguistic research by describing and providing a syntactic analysis of COCs in NA using the framework of Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG).

However, it should be kept in mind that this study focuses on the syntactico-semantic properties of all COCs in general and the COCs that have particular event readings in particular. Therefore, a full discussion of the other types of COCs lies beyond the scope of this paper.

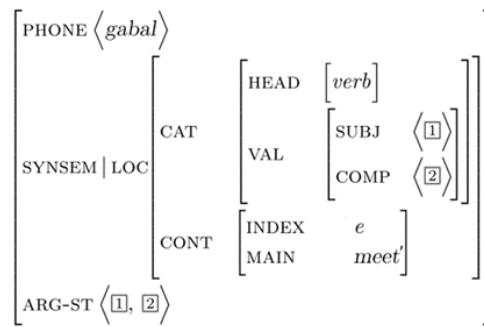
The remaining part of the paper proceeds as follows: section [II] presents an overview of the theoretical framework, section [III] and its subsections describe COCs in NA, section [IV] provides an analysis of COCs in NA, and section [V] concludes this paper.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

HPSG is a theory of non-transformational generative grammar developed by Sag and Pollard in 1987. It aims to provide a precise analysis of grammatical phenomena (Abeillé & Brosley, 2021; Müller, 2015). Grammar in HPSG is seen as a system that contains linguistic types, constraints that set restrictions on these types, and features that identify the basic properties of the types (Müller, 2020).

Linguistic objects and constraints in HPSG are described by feature descriptions, which are known as Attribute-Value-Matrices (AVMs) (Müller, 2015). For a better understanding of how HPSG describes linguistic objects by using AVM, a partial lexical entry of the verb *gabal* ‘met’ from NA has been provided.

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2. *gabal* (met.3ms) lexical entry:

In HPSG, the lexical entry in (2) provides the following information. The value of the feature PHON (OLOGY) provides a list of the sign's (i.e., linguistic object) phonemes. The syntactic and semantic properties of the sign are encoded in the feature SYNSEM, which has two sub-features: CAT (EGORY), which illustrates the syntactic properties of the sign, and CONT (ENT), which demonstrates the sign's semantic properties. The ARG (UMENT)-ST (RUCTURE) feature shows the basic combinatorial information, which is usually the concatenation of the SUBJ (ECT) and COMP (LEMENT) values. Tags in the lexical entry show a fundamental property in HPSG called structure-sharing, which refers to token-identity. For example, the subject's value <[1]NP> and the first element in the ARG-ST <[1]> are identical (Abeillé & Brosley, 2021; Ginzburg & Sag, 2000).

Concerning the analysis of the semantic properties of the sign, the framework of Lexical Resource Semantics (LRS) (Richter & Sailer, 2003) has been one of the competent and informative semantic frameworks used in HPSG. In LRS, the feature CONT has two sub-features: INDEX, which corresponds to the semantic variable of the sign, and MAIN, which indicates the main semantic contribution of the sign. To illustrate this more, (2) shows that the INDEX value of the verb *gabal* 'meet' is the event variable *e*, and the main lexical meaning is the constant *meet'*. The reason for choosing this framework is that LRS provides features that can be used to capture the cognateness between the verb and the CO (Sailer, 2010; Richter & Sailer, 2003).

Having introduced the frameworks that are used in this paper, the next section describes the main syntactico-semantic properties of COCs in NA.

III. COGNATE OBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS IN NA: DESCRIPTION

This section describes the main properties of COCs in NA. The following subsection [A] delimits the concept of COCs in NA and illustrates the main properties shared by all COCs in NA. Then, the subsection [B] demonstrates the types of COCs in NA. After that, the subsection [C] provides a description of the main syntactico-semantic properties of particular event COCs in NA.

A. *Delimitation of the Concept of COCs in NA*

It has been widely argued in the literature that a COC is characterized by comprising an unergative verb followed, canonically, by a postverbal noun that is semantically and morphologically cognate to the verb. Sentences (3) and (4) are examples of typical COCs.

3. *ḍʔaḥak-t* *ḍʔehkah* *ʕaljeh*
laughed.1s laugh loud
'I laughed a loud laugh.'

4. *nama-t* *ʔum-i* *nomah* *χafjifah*
sleep.3fs mother-POSS.1s sleep light
Literally: 'My mother slept a light sleep.'

It is worth noting that each COC that has the aforementioned characteristics does not select a non-cognate noun as its object. This is shown by the ill-formedness of (5) and (6) in which the verbs *nam* 'sleep' and *ebtasm* 'smile' are followed by the non-cognate nouns *yafuah* 'nap' and *ḍʔehkah* 'laugh', respectively.

5. **nam* *l-walad* *yafuah* *χafefeh*
slept-3ms DEF-boy nap little
Literally: '*The boy slept a little nap.'

6. **ebtasm-at* *l-bent* *ḍʔehkah* *helwah*
smiled.3fs DEF-girl laugh beautiful
Literally: '*The girl smiled a beautiful laugh.'

The question raised here is whether or not cognate nouns (CNs) occurring with optionally transitive verbs, as in (7), with monotransitive verbs, as in (8), and with unaccusative verbs, as in (9), should be considered COCs.

7. *yana-u* *ʔayani* *gadimah*
sung.3pm songs old
'They sung old songs.'

8. *gal* *l-razel* *gulen* *yareb*
 said.3ms DEF-man saying strange

Literally: 'The man said a strange saying'

9. *t'ah* *l-walad* *t'ehah* *guwejah*
 fell.3ms DEF-boy fall strong

Literally: 'The boy fell a strong fall.'

Concerning sentences (7) and (8), Massam (1990) argued that these sentences should be distinguished from COCs because verbs, such as *yana* 'sing' and *gal* 'say', can take non-cognate nouns as their objects, as in (10) and (11). On the other hand, unaccusative verbs, as in (9), do not select non-cognate nouns as their objects. This can be seen by the ungrammaticality of (12) in which the verb *t'ah* 'fell' is followed by the non-cognate noun *bazxah* 'fall'.

10. *yana* *r-razel* *θalaθ* *gas'aed* *la-f-faʕer* *l-maʕruf*
 sung.3sm DEF-man three poems for-DEF-poet famous
 'The man sang three poems by the famous poet.'

11. *gal* *kalamen* *yareb*
 said.3ms saying strange
 Literally: 'He said a strange saying.'

12. **t'ah* *l-walad* *bazxten* *guwejah*
 fell.3ms DEF-boy fall strong
 Literally: 'The boy fell a strong fall.'

Taken together, it could be argued that the CNs in (7) and (8) are ordinary direct objects that happen to be morphologically cognate to the verb. On the other hand, there is no sufficient evidence for excluding CNs with unaccusative verbs, as in (9), from being COCs.

Therefore, it seems plausible that COC in NA is restricted to be an intransitive verb, whether it is unergative or unaccusative, followed by an NP whose head is semantically and morphologically cognate to the verb. Therefore, no further discussion will be provided in this paper about the constructions in which the verb is either monotransitive or optionally transitive since they lie beyond the scope of this paper.

Given this, the essential properties that all COCs in NA must share can be summarized as follows:

- The verb in the COC is an intransitive verb.
- The verb and the CO must be semantically cognate.
- The verb and the CO must be morphologically cognate.
- The verb in the COC does not select non-cognate NPs.

This section has demonstrated the properties that are shared by all COCs in NA. The subsequent section concerns how COCs in NA can be classified into different types based on their semantic readings.

B. COCs Types in NA

Based on the semantic readings of COCs in NA and following Sailer's (2010) classification, COCs in NA have been classified into four types: particular event COCs, concrete resultant COCs, generic event COCs, and abstract resultant COCs. The motivation for adapting this classification is that each semantic reading of the COCs seems to correlate with specific syntactic properties in NA. The following are examples of each type of COC.

13. *nama-t* *ʔumi* *nomah* *zainah* (particular event COC)
 sleep-3fs mother-POSS.1s sleep good
 'My mother slept a good sleep.'

14. *l-bent* *s'araxa-t* *s'arxah* *ʕaljah* (concrete resultant COC)
 DEF-girl screamed-3fs scream loud
 'The girl screamed a loud scream.'

15. *namna* *nomat* *ʔahl* *l-kahf* *b-l-ʕed* (generic event COC)
 slept-1p sleep companions DEF-cave in-DEF-Eid
 Literally: 'We slept the sleep of the companions of the cave in the Eid.'

16. *s'ah-at* *l-bent* *s'jah* *gahar* (abstract resultant COC)
 cried.3fs DEF-girl cry oppression
 'The girl cried an oppression cry.'

This paper focuses on the first type of COC, namely particular event COC. Thus, the subsequent section describes the syntactico-semantic properties of particular event COCs.

C. Particular Event COC in NA

For the particular event COC, the CO refers to the same action denoted by the verb. For instance, the CO *rakδʔ* 'running' in (17) refers to the same action denoted by the verb *rkδʔa-t* 'ran.3fs'. According to Mittwoch (1998) and Sailer (2010), the semantic representation of sentence (17) is shown in (18).

17. *rkδʔa-t* *l-bent* *rakδʔ* *sereʕ*
 run.3fs DEF-girl running fast
 Literally: 'The girl ran a fast running.'

18. $\exists e(\text{reka}\delta^? \text{ 'run' } (e) \text{ Arg1}(e, l\text{-bent 'the girl'}) \wedge \text{sere}\zeta \text{ 'fast' } (e))$

In (18), the event reading of COCs in NA has been modeled using the event variable e (Parsons, 1990). The semantic representation in (18) states that there is an event e that is a $\text{rak}\delta^?$ 'running' event in which $l\text{-bent}$ 'the girl' is the participant, and this event has the property of being $\text{sere}\zeta$ 'fast'.

According to Sailer (2010), one of the empirical tests for this reading is the possibility of a manner paraphrase. It can be observed that (17) is semantically equivalent to (19), which has an intransitive verb followed by an adverbial. Hence, sentence (19) has the semantic representation shown in (18).

19. $\text{rk}\delta^?a\text{-}t$ $l\text{-bent}$ $b\text{-ser}\zeta\text{ah}$
 ran.3fs DEF-girl in-fast

Literally: 'The girl ran in a fast way.'

A COC that has an event reading follows the description of COCs presented in Mittwoch (1988) in which it is neither an argument nor an adjunct but a realization of the Davidsonian event argument of the verb (i.e., it represents the event itself).

One of the noticeable syntactic properties of particular event COCs in NA is that they are, in most cases, modified by an adjective. This property is one of the fundamental properties that distinguish COCs from other similar cognate constructions, namely cognate infinitive constructions (CICs). Particular event CO and cognate infinitive (CI) are both postverbal nouns that are semantically and morphologically cognate to the verb and denote the same event as the verb (Madkhali, 2017; D éz, 2021). What distinguishes particular event COs from CIs is that CIs occur unmodified and unqualified, whereas particular event COs should be modified (Alawadh, 2023; D éz, 2021). Consider the CIC example in (20).

20. $\text{reka}\delta^?$ $Khalid$ $\text{rak}\delta^?$
 run.3ms Khalid running

'Khalid ran.'

(Alawadh, 2023, p. 70)

Another point regarding the modification of particular event COs is that, without being modified, particular event COs would be considered semantically tautological and would not serve any apparent purpose (Kuno & Takami, 2006). To illustrate more, sentence (21), which does not have a CO, has the semantic representation shown in (22). When a CO has been added with no modification, as in (23), it will have the same semantic representation as in (22).

21. nam $l\text{-walad}$
 slept-3ms DEF-boy
 'The boy slept.'

22. $\exists e(\text{nam 'sleep' } (e) \text{ Arg1}(e, l\text{-walad 'the boy'}))$

23. $??nam$ $l\text{-walad}$ $nomah$
 slept-3ms DEF-boy sleep
 '??The boy slept a sleep.'

Sometimes particular event COs may be used without being modified in cases where the sentence has an implied meaning. This is illustrated by (24) in which the sentence here has the implied meaning that the running event was fast.

24. Wa $Allah$ $yahu$ $\text{reka}\delta^?$ $\text{rak}\delta^?ah$
 and Allah he run.3ms running

Literally: 'I swear to Allah he ran a running.'

The implied meaning: 'I swear to Allah he ran a fast running'

It is plausible to argue that a particular event COC cannot occur without specifying how the action took place, either explicitly or implicitly. Consequently, particular event COCs, as in (23), are likely to be ungrammatical or at least syntactically odd (with the assumption that the CO here has no implied meaning). Taken together, the typical structural pattern for particular event COCs in NA is V + ADJ + CO.

Particular event COs in NA also seem to be similar to the eventive COs in English, where they tend to be indefinite (Kim & Lim, 2012; Sailer, 2010). This explains why sentence (25) is ungrammatical.

25. $*nama\text{-}t$ $\text{?um}\text{-}i$ $n\text{-nomah}$ $z\text{-zainah}$
 sleep-3fs mother-POSS.1s DEF-sleep DEF-good

'*My mother slept the good sleep.'

Regarding pronominalization, it seems that this type of CO is non-referential. Therefore, it cannot be pronominalized, as illustrated by (26). In this example, the CO is underlined, and the clitic pronoun is marked in bold.

26. $*nama\text{-}t$ $\text{?um}\text{-}i$ $nometin$ $zainah$ wa ?ugbah $b\text{-sa}\zeta\text{ah}$ $namet\text{-}ah$ $a\text{?}t\text{-}i$
 sleep-3fs mother-POSS.1s sleep good and after in-hour sleep-it sister-POSS.1s

'*My mother slept a good sleep then after an hour my sister slept it.'

However, pronominalization is possible in cases where the pronouns refer to the whole event (Real-Puigdollers, 2008). This is demonstrated in (27) where the clitic pronoun in the word $mn\text{-}ah$ 'from it' refers to the entire sleeping event rather than the CO $nomah\ zainah$ 'good sleeping' alone.

27. $nama\text{-}t$?umi $nomah$ $zainah$ wa ma $gama\text{-}t$ $mn\text{-}ah$ $ella$ $l\text{-}\zeta\text{as}^?er$
 sleep-3fs mother-POSS.1s sleep good and NEG awake.3fs from-it except DEF-evening

'My mother slept a deep sleep and did not awake from it until the evening.'

However, finding some counterexamples for the properties mentioned above is possible since there is a chance to make these COs referential (Massam, 1990; Real-Puigdollers, 2008). However, they will denote a resultant object rather than an event in this case. This is shown in (28) in which the CO *nomah* ‘sleep’ refers to a specific sleeping that exists as a result of the action denoted by the verb rather than to the event itself. In addition, the manner paraphrase, which is considered an empirical test for particular event COCs, is not available because the CO does not modify the event adverbially. This explains why the CO in (28) is referential and definite. It is also not modified by an adjective.

28. *Paʻeran nemt n-nomah alii kent ʔatamana-h*
 finally, slept.1s DEF-sleep that was.1s hope.1s-it
 Literally: ‘Finally, I slept the sleep that I was hoping for’

To sum up, the syntactic properties of the particular event COCs that have been discussed so far seem to go in line with the properties of COCs mentioned in Jones (1988), Mittwoch (1998), and Real-Puigdollers (2008). Typically, they are indefinite NPs that must be modified by an adjective. In addition, they can be paraphrased into adverbials but cannot be pronominalized.

IV. COGNATE OBJECT CONSTRUCTION IN NA: ANALYSIS

This section attempts to provide a suitable analysis of COC in NA using the framework of HPSG. Subsection [A] offers an analysis of the common core properties that all COCs must have. Then, subsection [B] provides an analysis of the syntactico-semantic properties of particular event COCs in NA.

A. The Overall Analysis of COC in NA

This section seeks to provide a general constraint that contains the essential properties that all COCs in NA must have. A proper analysis should account for the following properties:

- The verb in COCs must be intransitive.
- The verb cannot select non-cognate NPs.
- The verb and the CO must be morphologically cognate.
- The verb and the CO must be semantically cognate.

Concerning the status of COs in NA, some linguists treat COs as typical arguments (e.g., Macfarland, 1995), and some as adjuncts (e.g., Jones, 1988). Another possibility is that COs can be treated as a special kind of complement. In this section, we attempt to figure out which analysis is suitable for COs in NA.

Sailer (2010) proposes an HPSG analysis for COC in English. He analyzes COCs using lexical rules because valence alternations are best to be analyzed using them (Abeille' & Brosley, 2021; Müller, 2006). To explain more, in COCs, the valence of intransitive verbs changes to require two arguments instead of one. Hence, lexical rules are used to generate COCs, which require two arguments, from intransitive verb constructions.

(29) presents the lexical rule formulated by Sailer for COC in English. The input in this lexical rule is an intransitive verb that has one argument. The output is a verb with two arguments in which the second argument is semantically cognate to the verb, as indicated by the identical values of the MAIN features of the verb in the input and the CO in the output.

29. *cognate-object-construction-lexical-rule (coc-lr)* (Sailer, 2010, p. 204)

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{SYNS LOC} \\ \text{ARG-ST} \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CAT} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{HEAD } \textit{verb} \\ \text{INDEX } e \\ \text{MAIN } \boxed{1} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{CONT} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{INDEX } e \\ \text{MAIN } \boxed{1} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \mapsto \left[\text{ARG-ST} \left\langle \boxed{2}, \text{NP} \left[\text{LOC} \left[\text{CONT} \left[\text{MAIN } \boxed{1} \right] \right] \right] \right\rangle \right]$$

The account proposed by Sailer seems convincing and reasonable. However, morphological cognateness should be included in the analysis because, as discussed above, it is a fundamental criterion for considering a specific construction a COC. Thus, although this paper focuses on the syntactico-semantic properties of COCs, the morphological cognateness should be accounted for in the proposed lexical rule.

To catch the morphological cognateness, the feature CHARS, introduced in Bhuyan (2008), is used. The CHARS feature, which is a sub-feature of MORPH(OLOGY), displays the letters of the sign's root (i.e., the letters of the root of the word). In a NA COC, the value of the CHARS feature of the CO and the value of the CHARS feature of the verb must be identical. Given this, the updated lexical rule that covers the morphological cognateness is presented in (30).

30. *cognate-object-construction-lexical-rule (coc-lr)* in NA

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{MORPH} \mid \text{ROOT} \mid \text{CHARS } \boxed{1} \\ \text{SYNSEM} \mid \text{LOC} \\ \text{ARG-ST} \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CAT} \left[\begin{array}{l} \textit{verb} \\ \text{INDEX } e \\ \text{MAIN } \boxed{2} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{CONT} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{INDEX } e \\ \text{MAIN } \boxed{2} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \mapsto \left[\text{ARG-ST} \left\langle \boxed{3}, \text{NP} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{MORPH} \mid \text{ROOT} \mid \text{CHARS } \boxed{1} \\ \text{SYNSEM} \mid \text{LOC} \left[\text{CONT} \left[\text{MAIN } \boxed{2} \right] \right] \end{array} \right] \right\rangle \right]$$

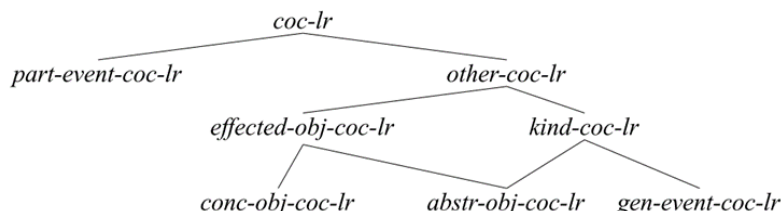
(30) now includes all the essential properties of COCs in NA. The verb in the construction is intransitive because the input requires only one argument (i.e., the subject). By means of lexical rules, intransitive verbs are used to generate a class of verbs that have two arguments in which the second argument is always a CO. This condition is guaranteed by

the constraint that the verb and the CO have identical values of CHARS features and identical values of MAIN features (i.e., they are semantically and morphologically cognate). (30) also successfully excludes CNs occurring with transitive and optionally transitive verbs from being COs.

Concerning the status of COs, we argue that a CO in NA is not the typical argument (i.e., direct object) of the verb but rather a special kind of complement. To differentiate it from the direct object, CO in NA is better analyzed as a non-canonical argument of the verb that is analyzed in HPSG as a member of the ARG-ST of the verb but not as a member of the COMP list. This analysis was initially proposed by Miller and Sag (1997) to account for Romance pronominal affixes. Borsley (2010) also uses the same account for the structure of clitics in Arabic.

The analysis discussed so far covers the similarities or the properties shared by the different types of COCs in NA. As for the differences among the types of COCs, Sailer (2010) proposes a hierarchical classification of COCs in English, as shown in (31), which can be used as a means of distinguishing between the types of COCs.

31. Type hierarchy of COCs (Sailer, 2010, p. 204)



In brief, the supertype of the hierarchy in (31) is the type *coc-lr* (*cognate-object-construction-lexical-rule*), which has the constraint given earlier in (30). The hierarchy also shows that COCs can be classified into two broad types. The first is the type of particular event COCs, while the second includes the other types of COCs. As discussed earlier, the paper here concentrates on the first type of COCs, whose analysis will be the concern of the subsequent section.

B. The Analysis of Particular Event COCs

For particular event COCs, a proper analysis should account for the properties that can be summarized as follows:

- Particular event CO represents the same event as the verb.
- It is always indefinite.
- It is obligatorily modified by an adjective.

Sailer's (2010) account for particular event COCs is shown in (32). The shared tag [4] of the INDEX value of the verb and the INDEX value of the CO indicates that the verb and the CO denote the same event. By the value (-) of the Boolean feature DEF(INITE), the CO is specified to be an indefinite NP.

32. *particular-event-coc lexical rule (part-event-coc-lr)* (Sailer, 2010, p. 205)

$$\left[\text{SYNS LOC [CONT [INDEX [4]]]} \right] \mapsto \left[\text{ARG-ST} \left\langle \dots, \left[\text{LOC} \left[\text{CAT|HEAD} \left[\text{PRED } + \right] \right] \right] \right\rangle \right]$$

In addition, Sailer considers this type of CO a predicative complement, as seen by the value (+) of the feature PRED (ICATIVE). It seems plausible to argue that COs of this type in NA are also predicative complements for the following reasons. The CO here shares the same argument (i.e., the subject) with the verb, which is a property of predicative NPs (Madkhali, 2017). To illustrate more, particular event COs denote events, and events are carried out by participants. In particular event COCs, the subject and the unexpressed subject of the CO are identical. Another reason for treating particular event COs as predicative NP is that they involve restrictions on determiners (Mittwoch, 1998). As discussed in section III, particular event COCs are restricted to constructions having the form of a verb + ADJ + CO, which means that this type of COC does not typically occur with determiners, such as demonstratives.

Having specified particular event COs to be predicative NPs, which are considered non-referential, the unavailability of being pronominalized has been accounted for since non-referential NPs cannot be pronominalized.

The aforementioned discussion on Sailer's lexical rule of particular event COCs suggests that this analysis is applicable to particular event COCs in NA. However, the CO in this type is always modified by an adjective. Such a property is an important one that needs to be involved in this analysis¹

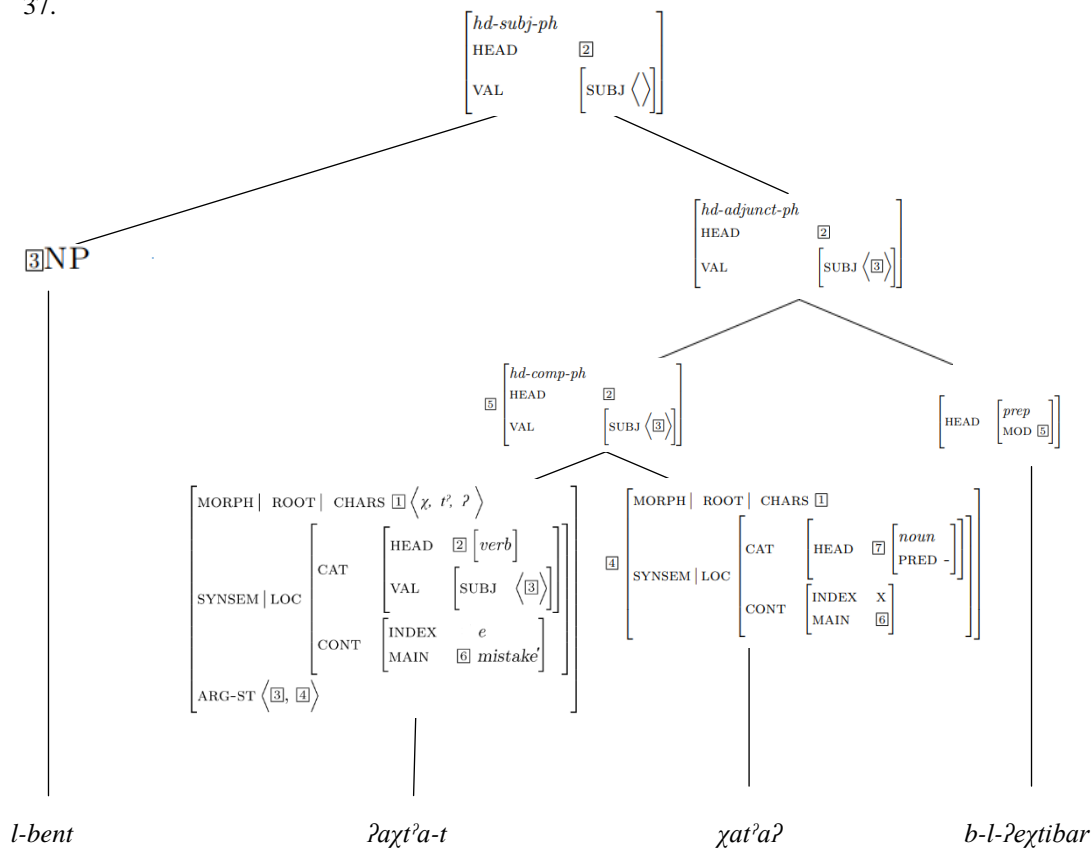
To accommodate this, the analysis of adjuncts proposed by Sato and Tam (2008) will be employed here to stipulate the condition that a particular event CO in NA must be modified by an adjective. This analysis introduces the feature

ADJ (UNCT)S, which specifies the adjunct that modifies the HD-DTR (i.e., head daughter), into the VALENCE feature of the HD-DTR. Given this, the modified lexical rule of particular event COCs in NA will be as presented in (33).

33. *part-event-coc-lr* in NA

¹ Sailer (2010) solved this problem using an independent principle, namely the Semantic Discernibility Principle, in which he stated that the semantic contributions of the daughters in a specific phrase must not be identical.

37.



The structure in (37) shows that the concrete resultant COC is more flexible than the particular event CO in that it can occur unmodified². In addition, the concrete resultant CO does not refer to an event but rather an object, as indicated by the value (x) of the INDEX feature. Another distinguishable property of concrete resultant CO is that it is a referential NP. Hence, the value of the PRED feature here is (-).

It appears plausible to argue that HPSG provides a useful analysis for COCs in NA. It allows us to catch the semantic and morphological cognateness between the verb and the CO by means of the structure-sharing feature. It also accounts for the fact that CO is a special kind of complement that is different from the ordinary direct object by specifying that the CO is a non-canonical complement that is a member of the ARG-ST but not a member of the COMP list.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper explores the syntactico-semantic properties of COCs in NA in general and the particular event COCs in particular. First, it illustrates the main properties that all COCs in NA share. Then, it offers a theory-neutral description of particular event COCs in NA. It also attempts to theoretically account for the main syntactico-semantic properties of COCs and particular event COCs using the framework of HPSG. We argue that COC consists of an intransitive verb that takes a non-canonical complement that is semantically and morphologically cognate to the verb. For the particular event COC, the paper shows that this kind of COC exhibits similar syntactico-semantic properties to those reported for COs that have event reading in the literature. This paper contributes to the topic of COs cross-linguistically and to the literature of Arabic in particular.

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² It should be noted that in this structure, the PP *b-l-?ex?ibar* 'in the exam' is an optional element that modified the whole VP rather than the CO alone, as is the case with the obligated modification in particular event COCs.

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Jordanian Arabic Language Teachers' Self-Assessment of Their Language Teaching Approach Practices

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Abstract—The present study measured the Arabic teachers' evaluation degree of their language teaching approaches to reveal any statistically significant differences in the degree of their practices resulting from the variables of gender, educational qualification, and years of experience. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers developed a questionnaire of 30 items equally distributed to three approach groups: Integrative Approach Practice, Functional Approach Practice, and Communicative Approach Practice. The study sample consisted of 204 female and male Arabic teachers who were selected following the simple random method. The results of the study revealed that the Arabic teachers' evaluation degree of their language teaching approach practices was high; with the Integrative Approach Practice at the top, followed by the Functional Approach Practice, and finally by the Communicative Approach Practice. However, no statistically significant differences were found in terms of teachers' educational qualification, gender, or years of experience. The results are pedagogically analyzed, and a number of recommendations were set forth for teaching language and future directions of research.

Index Terms—Arabic language teachers, language teaching approaches: integrative, functional, and communicative

I. INTRODUCTION

The Arabic language is often perceived as an identity marker of the Arab nation and the repository of its thought and culture. It is an existential value through which an individual Arab learns the principles of faith, derives values, receives the foundations and types of knowledge, and practices multiple thought patterns. It is the mean for performing rituals of worship and a way of self-expression and communication. The Arabic language is seen as the repository of the Arab nation's repertoires and heritage; thus, it is cherished as a tool that bridges the gap between past and present, connecting the Arab nation's present with its future and defining the nation's traits, identity, and the inclinations, tendencies, and objectives of its individuals (Ashour & Hawamdeh, 2012).

Educators, among others, often believe that teaching the Arabic language should aim at helping learners master its skills as one of the important pillars and objectives. To achieve this objective, it was necessary to seek to find and adopt modern approaches to teach Arabic so that the learner can master the language skills and employ them and be successfully and effectively capable of linguistic performance in the communicative situations. For educators, the goal is to teach Arabic according to accurate and precise planning, taking into consideration the need to keep pace with modern approaches for teaching and learning languages and to choose the approach that best suits the particular nature of Arabic, its teaching and learning characteristics, and its learners and their needs, tendencies and societies' demands (Awad et al., 2019).

There have been many definitions of the concept of language approach. Some scholars defined it as a set of assumptions that have mutual relationships with each other. These assumptions are closely related to the nature of the language in addition to the nature of its teaching and learning processes (Al-Asadi & Al-Musawi, 2014). Richards and Rodgers (1995) define it as the assumptions, foundations, beliefs, and theories that relate to the nature of language and the nature of its learning, which establishes a reference; as it presents the theoretical and intellectual foundations of what is required to be done by both the language teachers and learners in classes, and it accurately defines the relationship between linguistic theory and learning, which forms the function and role of the educational subjects and activities in the educational sessions, and this is the second level of the approach. As for the third approach, it determines all classroom methods and language practices ensuing from the approach.

In short, the approach is to define the assumptions, foundations and beliefs that are related to the nature and learning of the language, and teaching methods in addition to defining specific language skills to be taught. It includes defining the content to be taught, organizing that content to be presented to learners, and class actions through which that language content will be taught (Awad et al., 2019). The approach is the orbit in which the philosophy of language

teaching and learning materializes, and through which the foundations for building the language curriculum and organizing its content are determined, as well as choosing the best teaching methods, the most successful teaching methods and the most effective evaluation methods; thus providing the appropriate environment for the success of the language teaching process (Arif & Bojemlin, 2015). The approach is a system and a theoretical vision of the essence of the language, and the way it can be taught and learned that includes fundamental components related to the learner's role, the teacher's role, and the learning content, nature, types and functions.

The pedagogical literature has mentioned several approaches to teach the Arabic language that are consistent with the nature of the Arabic language, and the processes of teaching and learning it, but three approaches emerged from them. These three approaches became the focus of attention of many researchers, as they were considered the main and most appropriate approaches to teach the languages, including the Arabic language. These three approaches are the integrative approach, the communicative approach, and the functional approach. Based on these approaches, the curricula are built, their content is organized, the teaching methods used are determined, and the means, methods and tools of evaluation are defined. Accordingly, all of them are important in teaching the Arabic language to its native speakers and others.

The integrative approach is one of the important approaches in building and developing the curricula, and one of the approaches to teaching, as it is a lively image of effective interactive teaching that highlights the close communication between the branches of language on the one hand, to ensure the unity of language and the integration of its skills in natural situations, and the learner's capability to use them in understanding and explaining on the other hand (Ibrahim & Al-Dulaimi, 2013). The Arabic language is an integrated unit, in which its skills aim to achieve the learner's capability to correctly read, understand what he/she reads, absorb what he/she listens, and express himself/herself orally and in writing.

Therefore, Language teaching and learning should be based on integration, which seeks to organize and teach the elements of linguistic experience provided to learners in a way that achieves their correlation and unification in a way that enables them to understand the relationships between them, and employ them in their linguistic performance through an integrated linguistic content, in which practice directions, language practices and syntax are linked to language skills and the type of performance required through an integrated linguistic text that is processed in a way whose procedures are based on integration, linguistic training and practice, and evaluation of the learner's performance in an integrated manner, so as to achieve integration between the aspects of linguistic experience cognitively, emotionally and skillfully (Awad, 2000).

This requires that all branches and systems of the Arabic language be taught in one curriculum, in one book, and are subjected to a common evaluation. The main objectives of learning the eloquent Arabic language are to acquire the linguistic skill that enables understanding the eloquent Arabic language when it is listened, which is the listening skill, and "listening here" is a term that means understanding the audible language, acquiring the skill that enables understanding the subjects written in eloquent Arabic, which is the reading skill, and acquiring the skills of expression in eloquent Arabic both orally and in writing (Al-Hawamdeh, 2011).

This requires the books of the Arabic language and its teachers to help students to feel the organic unity that links the branches of the language, so that it can be seen as an integrated structure, as well as highlighting the relationship between each linguistic art, and clarifying the practical situations in which language skills are used in an integrated functional manner, through which the unified objective and primary task emerge in the linguistic performance in human life in general, as this ensures faster learning and is more capable of developing the learner's awareness of the function of each linguistic art (Taima, 1998).

As for the Communicative Approach, which focuses on the learner, the core of the educational process, it is considered one of the modern educational approaches that aim to improve language learning, and raise the level of contact and communication skills among students on the one hand, and between students and their teacher on the other hand (Ying, 2010). The tool of contact and communication is the language along with its written or spoken words; the meanings of the words represent the stimulus; the reaction of the recipient represents the response; and all of these are resulted from mental and performance processes between the two parties of the communication process (Attia, 2008).

Education in the light of the communicative approach means making the communicative competence as the main objective of language learning and teaching, as well as embodying the desire to make language learning based on natural communication in real situations and contexts. This requires providing appropriate teaching procedures for teaching the four language skills in light of the codependent relationship between language and communication, in which learners (individually or collectively) employ the appropriate language resources in performing the tasks assigned to them, and engage them in oral and written conversation, in which they interact (Madkour et al., 2010).

Savignon (2002) thinks that the most important foundations for the communicative approach is to concentrate on the learner, and to take into consideration his/her needs and linguistic and mental abilities by defining (what the learner wants to learn, what must be learned in the language, what society requires from the scientific, practical, social and cultural sides). This is what the results of Swill's (2008) study showed that one of the most important roles of the learner in the communicative approach is: the critical thinker who interacts with all students, expresses what suits the situation, and comments on the phrases put forward.

In addition to paying attention to the role of the teacher, the teacher is the catalyst in the learning process, as he/she organizes and plans the activities according to the learner's need, participates in the communicative activity as a member in the group, creates the educational situation that suits the learner's need, and advises and guides the learner in the communication process (Al-Hawamdeh & Sawalha, 2018).

Therefore, we can say that the communicative approach provides the foundations to help in teaching the language in its natural and realistic way so as to enable learners to acquire and master the language skills, with the need to pay attention to maintaining integration among the language skills (Al-Hawamdeh & Sawalha, 2018; Richards, 2006).

The functional approach in teaching a language is based on the function of language in life, as it is a mean of contact and communication among individuals in different life affairs, and since language plays this role, it must meet the individual's need to use it in real life situations (Attia, 2008). According to the functional approach, teaching the language aims to achieve the linguistic capabilities of learners so that they can correctly practice it in its natural practical functions. The best form of language learning is that which goes beyond the limits of absorbing and keeping information to developing the ability to apply and use it, as linguistic skill should be tried and tested in real life where students practice what they have learned, and this requires creating opportunities for practice of language in a correct manner.

Therefore, teaching language is not done through teaching a set of rules to learners at different levels of study, making them memorize these rules, and retrieving them in various tests; as this does not qualify the learner to use the language and practice it in the various situations in which he/she lives. Hence, teaching grammar is therefore a mean and not an end in itself. The purpose of teaching grammar is to link the language with different life situations, so that the individual can express in a proper manner, while realizing the function of the sound in the word, the function of the word in the sentence, the function of the sentence in the subject, and then the function of the language in expressing his/her various concerns and needs (Al-Sulaiti, 2002; Al-Nuaimi, 2004).

It must be emphasized, in the functional approach, that the learner is the focus of the educational-learning process. In order to determine the appropriate linguistic content, we should know the learners, their characteristics, and their learning styles so as to be taken into consideration during selection of learning content and selection of appropriate teaching strategies that take into consideration the diversity of learning styles.

Here, the selection of the educational content presents itself as a basic element in the language teaching and learning process. The educational content should be built on scientific and functional foundations because the process of selecting the educational content is influenced by many factors, some of which are related to the content, and others to the learner, as well as to external factors represented in the educational outcomes, the level of the curriculum, and the time specified for it. Learning and teaching the Arabic language according to the functional approach makes the learning environment more realistic and better motivates the learners to learn, making them more interested in the language because they can appreciate the associated value and recognize the benefit it serves them in their life, because it is the best way that enables them to face the various situations in which these learners need the language (Arif & Bojemlin, 2015).

Examining the approaches used by teachers for teaching and learning the language has attracted the attention of researchers at the international and Arab levels. Abdul-hameed (2013) conducted a study that aimed at identifying the extent to which the English language in secondary stage applied the integrative approach in teaching writing skills in the schools of Damascus. The study sample consisted of (104) male and female teachers in the secondary schools in Damascus. The researcher used a questionnaire developed by her, which included (38) phrases, each of which represents a description of a procedure related to the integrative approach and the mechanisms of applying it in teaching the English language. The results showed an average application of the integrative approach in teaching writing skill by teachers.

Al-Jaafra (2016) conducted a study that aimed at knowing the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice in the Second Zarqa Education Directorate of modern trends in teaching the Arabic language from their point of view. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher developed a questionnaire consisting of (40) paragraphs, which were applied to a random sample of (120) male and female teachers of the Arabic language from the basic education stage. The results of the study showed the degree of teachers' practice of modern trends in teaching the Arabic language, which came in an average degree and the integrative approach came at the first level. There are statistically significant differences that are attributable to the gender variable that were in favor of the female teachers, but there were no statistically significant differences that are attributable to years of experience variable.

The study of Bani Yaseen (2016) aimed to know the degree to which the faculty members in Jordanian universities practice strategies for teaching Arabic. In order to achieve this, the researcher designed a questionnaire that he distributed to 100 faculty members, which consisted of three areas: theories, approaches, and strategies. The results of the study in the area of linguistic approaches showed that the traditional approach came first, followed by the whole and integrative approach, then the communicative approach, then the functional approach, while the synthetic and skillful approach came last.

As for the study of Muhammad (2018), it aimed at measuring the integrative approach skills availability among teachers of the Arabic language in the primary education stage from the point of view of educational leaders and supervisors of the Arabic language in the primary stage in the light of the guides of the developed curriculum document,

applied in Saudi Arabia. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher designed a questionnaire consisting of (83) skills distributed in five areas, including the skills of the integrative approach. He chose a random sample consisting of (50) individuals representing the leaders of the primary stage and supervisors of the Arabic language. The results of the study showed that the degree of Arabic language teachers' mastering of the integrative approach skills in their teaching came at low level.

Li (2018) conducted a study that aimed at employing the functional approach to raise the efficiency of Chinese students' learning of the English language by identifying the students' previous experiences that related to their mother tongue learning strategies. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a questionnaire was used to collect data. The study sample consisted of (20) Chinese students studying English as a second language in the United States. The study indicated that the functional approach can be used to learn English as a foreign language through identifying students' previous experiences in their mother tongue learning strategies.

Swierzbin and Reimer (2019) conducted a study that aimed at identifying teachers' perceptions of using the functional approach in teaching syntax in the United States. The study sample consisted of (40) in-service English language teachers at a private university in the United States, and the results indicated substantial changes in the trainee teachers' perceptions of using the functional approach in teaching syntax.

It is clear from the previous studies that they aimed to reveal the approaches that teachers employ in language teaching in various countries. All of these studies addressed male and female teachers except for the study of Bani Yaseen (2016), which addressed faculty members in universities. The results of the previous studies showed a variance about the most or least employed or preferred approaches by teachers. The current study converges with the previous studies in the objective for which it was conducted, which is represented in revealing the approaches that are employed by teachers in teaching the language so as to improve the approaches to teaching the Arabic language. Nevertheless, it differed from the previous studies in revealing the approaches employed by teachers of the Arabic language in Jordan as well as their practices of it.

Consequently, the importance of the approach in the processes of teaching and learning the language is apparent, so the need for modern approaches to teaching the Arabic language has emerged along with a set of general challenges, and the successive variables that face the process of preparing teachers and learners as well as teaching the Arabic language. In contrast, some teachers still use traditional methods in teaching Arabic language subjects. The results of some studies have shown that they use teaching methods that do not develop the level of linguistic performance of learners, make teacher as the axis of the educational process, and marginalize the role of the learner (Li, 2018); which reflected negatively on the learners and their enthusiasm to participate in the lessons of the Arabic language in addition to achieving success in learning it.

II. PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

The study problem stems from the manifestations of weakness among students in Arabic language skills, which has also been observed by the authors through their work in teaching at various educational levels. The results of some studies (e.g., Al-Jaafra, 2016; Bani Yaseen, 2016; Telfah & Al-Hawamdah, 2023) have attributed the deterioration in Arabic teaching outcomes to the lack of a well-defined teaching approach or an appropriate teaching perspective. From such observations comes the call for adopting language teaching approaches that are authentic, contemporary, and consistent with the nature of the language, and through which the foundations for building the language curriculum are determined, organizing its content, as well as choosing the best teaching methods, the most successful teaching means, the most effective evaluation methods, in addition to what provides the appropriate environment for the success of the process of language teaching and learning.

Previous studies recommended that it is necessary to reconsider the design and construct of Arabic language books according to modern approaches to teaching languages, train Arabic language teachers to use these approaches for teaching the Arabic language, and educate the supervisors of Arabic language specialization on the importance of employing them in teaching the Arabic language and ensure to raise their awareness and skills in employing them (Bani Yaseen, 2016; Al-Jubouri et al., 2017; Muhammad, 2018). Therefore, this study came to reveal the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of approaches to teaching the Arabic language in Jordan.

Objectives and questions of the study

- 1- To what degree do Arabic language teachers follow and practice Arabic language teaching approaches?
- 2- Are there statistically significant differences in the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of language teaching approaches that can be attributable to a teacher's gender, educational qualification, teaching experience?

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study derives its importance from the importance of the topic it addresses. It is hoped that this study would provide indications on the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of language teaching approaches, offering insightful results and practical recommendations that would help Arabic language teachers replace usual teaching approaches with modern approaches to improve language teaching and learning among students. This may also open new horizons for researchers investigating the topic.

Besides, this study is also important because it keeps pace with the modern educational tendencies of the Ministry of Education in Jordan and with modern approaches and strategies in language teaching in general. The results of this study are expected to benefit teachers, educational supervisors, developers and planners of the Arabic language curricula in the Ministry of Education, as well as students and researchers in the following ways:

- Presenting theoretical literature and a tool that can be used in conducting other studies that address variables other than the ones addressed in this study.
- Enhancing the awareness of the Arabic language teachers of the importance of language teaching approaches.
- Drawing the attention of the Arabic language supervisors to the need to train the Arabic language teachers to practice the approaches to language teaching in the teaching and learning processes.
- Drawing the attention of postgraduate researchers and specialists in the Arabic language curricula to conduct more researches and studies that are related to the results of this study.

The Procedural Definitions

Approaches to language teaching: a system and a vision of the nature of language, and the way it can be taught and learned, which include fundamental components related to the role of the learner, the role of the teacher and the learning content including its nature, types, and functions that are represented in the current study by three modern approaches to language teaching, namely: the integrative approach, the communicative approach, and the functional approach, under which a set of teaching practices is included.

- **Arabic language teachers:** are the Arabic language teachers who teach in the primary and secondary stages in schools affiliated to the Directorate of Education in Kasbah Mafraq District in the academic year 2022/2023.

The Study Limitations

The dissemination of the study results is determined by its being limited to a sample of male and female teachers of the Arabic language in the public schools affiliated to the Directorate of Education in Kasbah Mafraq in the first semester of the academic year 2022/2023, and is also determined by the study tool, and the validity and reliability indicators achieved for it.

IV. METHOD AND PROCEDURES

A. Study Approach

The descriptive survey approach, which depends on monitoring, describing and analyzing data related to the opinions of the target sample was used.

B. The Study Population and Sample

The study population consisted of all male and female teachers of the Arabic language in the public schools in the Directorate of Education of Kasbah Mafraq District, who counted (413) male and female teachers, including (206) male and teachers and (207) female teachers, according to the statistics available in the Directorate for the academic year 2022/2023. The study tool was applied using the simple random method on (204) male and female teachers. Table 1 shows the distribution of the study sample individuals as per the variables: gender, educational qualification and experience.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY SAMPLE INDIVIDUALS ACCORDING TO THE VARIABLES OF GENDER, EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION, AND EXPERIENCE

Variable	level	Count	Percentage
Gender	Males	102	50.0
	Females	102	50.0
	Total	204	100.0
Educational qualification	Bachelor's degree or less	50	24.5
	Postgraduate	154	75.5
	Total	204	100.0
Experience	Less than 10 years	113	55.4
	10 years and more	91	44.6
	Total	158	100.0

C. The Study Tool

A scale of the practice of language teaching approaches in the teaching and learning processes.

The two researchers prepared a scale of the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of language teaching approaches, benefiting from studies of (Khudair, 2013; Al-Jaafra, 2016; Al-Jubouri et al., 2017). The scale, in its final form, consisted of (30) paragraphs distributed equally into three approaches, namely: the practice of the integrative approach, represented by paragraphs (1-10), the practice of the functional approach, represented by paragraphs (11-20), and the practice of the communicative approach, represented by paragraphs (21 – 30).

The paragraphs of the scale were answered according to a five-point scale: "very high" (5) degrees, "high" (4) degrees, "intermediate" (3) degrees, "low" (2) degrees, and "very low" (1) degree. To interpret the responses of the

study sample individuals, the statistical standard was used: from 1.00 - less than 2.34 refers to low practice, from 2.34 - less than 3.67 refers to medium practice, and from 3.67 - 5.00 refers to high practice.

D. Face Validity

To verify the validity of the study tool; it was presented in its initial form to a group of arbitrators, who were experienced and specialized to express an opinion on its suitability to measure what it was designed for, in terms of the clarity of the paragraphs, their suitability and relevance to their area, and any other observations they find appropriate, such as adding, deleting, or amending the paragraphs of the questionnaire, which were modified depending on their suggestions.

E. Construct Validity (Internal Consistency)

The construct validity of the study tool was confirmed by applying it to a survey sample of (30) male and female teachers from the study population and outside its sample, in order to estimate the Pearson correlation coefficient between the paragraph score and the total score for its area, the Pearson correlation coefficient between the paragraph score and the total score of the scale, and the corrected correlation coefficient between the paragraph score and the total score for its area. The results showed that the Pearson correlation coefficients between the paragraph score and the total score for its area ranged between (0.63-0.90) for the area of the integrative approach practice, between (0.66-0.87) for the area of the practice of the functional approach and between (0.54-0.87) for the area of the practice of the communicative approach, and the Pearson correlation coefficients ranged between the paragraph score and the total score of the scale between (0.33-0.86). This indicates the construct validity of the scale (Bryman & Cramer, 1997). The corrected correlation coefficients ranged between the paragraph score and the total score for its area between (0.55-0.87) for the integrative approach practice area, between (0.56-0.82) for the functional approach practice area and between (0.43-0.83) for the communicative approach practice area. This indicates the validity of the scale construct (Leech et al., 2011).

F. Tool Reliability

To verify the homogeneity of the study sample's performance on the scale, the internal homogeneity reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha) and the repetition reliability coefficients (Pearson) were calculated by re-applying the scale on a survey sample consisting of (30) male and female teachers from the study population and from outside its sample. The results showed the internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha) ranged between (0.88-0.93) for the areas of the scale and (0.96) for the total scale. The repetition reliability coefficients ranged between (0.88-0.91) for the areas, and (0.91) for the total scale. This indicates that the scale has a high degree of reliability (Brown, 1983).

G. The Study Variables

First - the dependent variable: the grades of the Arabic language teachers of the study sample for their practices of the language teaching approaches.

H. Second - Categorized Variables

- Gender: males, females.
- Educational qualification: Bachelor's degree or less, postgraduate studies.
- Teaching experience: less than 10 years, 10 years or more.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *The results of the first question*, which states: "What is the degree of Arabic teachers' practice of Arabic language teaching approaches?" in order to answer this question, the arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated for the degree of Arabic teachers' practice of Arabic language teaching approaches, and Table 2 shows this.

TABLE 2
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES

Area	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Rank	Practice Degree
Integrative approach practice	3.968	.737	1	high
Functional approach practice	3.958	.816	2	high
Communicative approach practice	3.685	.711	3	high
Total	3.870	.680		high

It is clear from Table 2 that the arithmetic mean of the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the approaches to teaching the Arabic language combined amounted to (3.870), and the standard deviation to (.680), with a high degree of use, and the arithmetic means in the three areas of the scale ranged between (3.685-3.968) and to a high degree. The "integrative approach practice" area came first with an arithmetic mean of (3.968) and a standard deviation of (.737), and to a high degree, and the "functional approach practice" area came second, with an arithmetic mean of (3.958) and a

standard deviation of (.816) and to a high degree, and finally the area of “communicative approach practice” came third, with an arithmetic mean of (3.685), and a standard deviation of (.711), and to a high degree.

The arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated for the degree of Arabic language teachers’ practice of the approaches to teaching the Arabic language for each area separately. Tables 3-5 show this.

First: The area of "Integrative Approach Practice"

TABLE 3
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF THE INTEGRATIVE APPROACH

No.	Paragraph	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	rank	Degree of importance
1	I take into consideration the integration of language skills when formulating the outcomes.	4.09	.90	1	high
4	I make use of reading texts to achieve integration among Arabic language skills and its branches.	4.02	.90	2	high
5	I help learners to link new experiences to previous experiences.	4.02	.88	2	high
2	I choose a variety of activities that take into consideration the integrative approach to language learning and teaching.	3.98	.89	4	high
7	I employ integrated linguistic experiences in achieving linguistic communication.	3.96	.88	5	high
8	I use different types of evaluation (pre, constructive, final) according to the presented content.	3.96	.96	5	high
3	I choose teaching strategies that take into consideration the integrative approach to language learning and teaching.	3.95	.90	7	high
6	I assign learners to practice oral and written language activities that enhance language integration.	3.93	.91	8	high
10	In the evaluation, I take into consideration the different aspects of linguistic development.	3.90	.89	9	high
9	I use alternative evaluation strategies in evaluating language learning outcomes.	3.86	.95	10	high
Total		3.97	.74		high

It is noted from Table 3 that the arithmetic means of the estimation degree of Arabic language teachers’ practice of the integrative approach ranged between (3.86-4.09), and with a high degree, and the grades for all paragraphs of the area of the integrative approach were with a high degree.

Second: "Functional Approach Practice"

TABLE 4
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF THE FUNCTIONAL APPROACH

No.	Paragraph	Arithmetic Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank	Degree of Importance
11	I focus on the practical side of the syntax rule.	4.08	.96	1	high
12	I use language structures that are clearly and easily formulated, and are free of confusion and ambiguity.	4.01	.95	2	high
17	I try to enable learners to employ the word within the linguistic structure.	4.01	1.00	2	high
20	I choose the teaching strategy that is suitable for the nature of the linguistic situation.	3.99	.94	4	high
16	I use oral language activities such as listening and speaking, and written activities such as writing and reading in real life situations.	3.97	1.00	5	high
13	I help learners to use the read material in daily life practices.	3.93	.96	6	high
14	I take into consideration making linguistic comparisons between true and false expressions.	3.93	1.01	6	high
15	I define linguistic concepts and put them in the form of a question or issue.	3.92	.91	8	high
18	When preparing learning outcomes, I take into consideration the use of language skills to reflect the learners' daily lives.	3.87	1.01	9	high
19	I employ modern educational methods; as they make linguistic concepts easier for students' minds.	3.87	.99	9	high
Total		3.96	.82		high

It is noted from Table 4 that the arithmetic means of the estimation degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the functional approach practice ranged between (3.87-4.08), and with a high degree, and the grades for all paragraphs of the functional approach area were with a high degree.

Third: the area of "Communicative Approach Practice"

TABLE 5
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

No.	Paragraph	Arithmetic Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank	Degree of Importance
30	I urge the learners to employ the Arabic language in all their daily lives.	4.13	1.02	1	high
27	I facilitate linguistic knowledge through activities such as explaining, illustrating, writing and giving examples.	4.12	.88	2	high
21	I use teamwork; as it allows learners to explore problems on their own and adjust their language learning.	3.93	.93	3	high
29	I explain that teaching Arabic encourages responsibility and self-discipline, and allows the learner to develop his/her potential energy.	3.93	.98	3	high
28	I enrich the textbook with other language materials and tasks; so as to suit the learners' linguistic needs.	3.86	.97	5	high
22	I make many small groups for teamwork because they are useful in changing the class routine.	3.83	.96	6	high
24	I teach syntax rules as a mean to an end, not an end in itself.	3.51	1.09	7	average
26	I focus more on linguistic fluency than linguistic accuracy.	3.51	1.05	7	average
23	I do not pay attention to grammatical correctness in evaluating the learner's linguistic performance.	3.10	1.26	9	average
25	I ignore grammar mistakes made by learners.	2.94	1.33	10	average
Total		3.69	.71		high

It is noted from Table 5 that the arithmetic means of the estimation degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the communicative approach ranged between (2.94-4.13), with a medium to a high degree. The grades for the paragraphs with numbers (21, 22, 27, 27, 28, 29, 30) were with a high degree. The grades for the paragraphs with numbers (23, 24, 25, 26) were medium.

The results showed that the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the combined language teaching approaches were with a high degree. The degree of practicing the integrative approach came first with a high degree, and the degree of practicing the functional approach came second with a high degree, and the degree of practicing the communicative approach came third with a high degree. The high degree of practice by male and female teachers of the language teaching approaches is greatly attributable to the awareness of the male and female teachers of the study sample and their familiarity with the objectives to be achieved and the experiences and language skills required to be acquired by students, and the importance of applying these approaches in teaching the Arabic language curricula to achieve this. This can be considered a clear indication of the extent to which teachers are aware of the nature of the relationship between language skills on the one hand and its branches on the other hand. These indicators show the effectiveness of the teacher and his/her ability to bring about quantitative and qualitative changes in the language learning of his/her students.

This is in line with what was shown by the results of Khudair's (2012) study. This result is also in line with what was shown by the results of Al-Jaafra's (2016) study, which showed that the degree of teachers' practice of modern trends in teaching the Arabic language was with a medium degree, and the integrative approach came first, and it differs with the results of Muhammad's (2018) study, which showed a low degree of Arabic language teachers' mastery of the skills of the integrative approach in their teaching. This difference is probably attributable to some reasons, including: the study tool, the methodology used, the study place, the study sample and characteristics of the study.

This result can also be attributable to the existence of a mature and clear perception among teachers of the Arabic language about the philosophy of language teaching approaches, their principles and their dimensions at the theoretical and applied levels. This may be due to a set of reasons, perhaps the most prominent of them is the sufficient training experience of those teachers to acquire theoretical knowledge and applied practices related to the language teaching approaches.

This may also be attributable to the adoption of some positive trends and correct beliefs by many Arabic language teachers about the effects of practicing the language teaching approaches, including achieving balanced linguistic growth in language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), and changing the role of the teacher from a prompter to a role model in addition to making the learner the focus of the educational process. This result is in line with the study

of Swierzbinska and Reimer (2019), whose results indicated that there are positive trends among teachers about the use of the functional approach in teaching syntax.

B. The results of the second question, which states: "Are there statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of language teaching approaches that are attributable to the variables of (gender, educational qualification, experience)?" To answer this question, the arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated for the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of approaches to teaching the Arabic language according to the variables: gender, educational qualification, and years of experience. Table 6 shows this:

TABLE 6
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF APPROACHES TO TEACHING THE ARABIC LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO THE VARIABLES: GENDER, EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Combined Areas	Variable	Level	Arithmetic Mean	Standard Deviation
Practice of Arabic language teaching approaches	gender	males	3.88	.68
		females	3.86	.69
		Total	3.87	.68
	educational qualification	Bachelor's degree or less	3.92	.48
		Postgraduate studies	3.85	.73
		Total	3.87	.68
	experience	Less than 10 years	3.88	.71
		10 years and more	3.86	.64
		Total	3.87	.68

It is noted from Table 6 that there are obvious differences between the arithmetic mean of the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the three Arabic language teaching approaches combined, according to the variables: gender, educational qualification, and years of experience. To determine the statistical significance of the apparent differences, a Three-way ANOVA analysis was used, and Table 7 shows that.

TABLE 7
RESULTS OF THREE-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS TO COMPARE BETWEEN THE ARITHMETIC MEANS OF THE DEGREE OF ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICE OF THE THREE ARABIC LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES COMBINED, ACCORDING TO THE VARIABLES: GENDER, EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Variance source	Total sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Average sum of squares	F Statistic	Statistical Significance
Gender	.040	1	.040	.086	.769
Educational qualification	.170	1	.170	.362	.548
Experience	.010	1	.010	.022	.882
Error	93.689	200			
Adjusted Total	95.553	203			

Table 7 shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the two-arithmetic means of the degree of Arabic language teachers' practice of the three Arabic language teaching approaches combined, according to the variables: gender, educational qualification, and years of experience.

This result can be attributed to the fact that the Ministry of Education in Jordan includes all teachers, regardless of their years of experience, in professional development programs and various training courses, according to each specialization, such as the new teachers training course, the developed curricula training course, the specialization networks, and others, which may give the teacher sufficient experience to teach the subject in which he/she is specialized, armed with sufficient knowledge and experience about the subject and how to teach it. These results are in line with the results of Al-Jaafra's (2016) study, which showed that there were no statistically significant differences that are attributable to the variable of years of experience.

This result can also be attributed to the fact that the conditions of male and female teachers are similar in terms of financial facilities and available educational means. Both undergo the same training sessions and study the same Arabic language courses. The cultural, social and economic conditions of teacher of both genders are similar, especially since the study population is recruited from the same geographical area. They also received the same directions from the educational supervisors and educational administrations at all levels, which indicates that they may share a common homogeneous culture; and this may have contributed to the lack of differences among the sample population.

VI. CONCLUSION

Overall, The results of the study revealed that the Arabic teachers' evaluation degree of their language teaching approach practices was high; with the Integrative Approach Practice at the top, followed by the Functional Approach Practice, and finally by the Communicative Approach Practice. However, no statistically significant differences were

found in terms of teachers' educational qualification, gender, or years of experience. Therefore, Arabic language teachers are encouraged to reinforce their practices in Communicative Approach. There is an urgent need to ensure that the momentum is maintained so that the efforts can result in the development of language-teaching strategies in Jordan.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

- Calling for Arabic language teachers to take into consideration speaking the eloquent Arabic language and encourage their students to do so.
- Calling for the Ministry of Education to prepare Arabic language textbooks according to the approaches to teaching the Modern Standard Arabic, and to include models for lessons based on the approaches to teaching Arabic in the Arabic language curricula and textbooks so that teachers can benefit from them in their teaching.
- Calling for researchers to carry out more studies to investigate the impact of Arabic language teaching approaches on learning different language skills and teaching them at different educational stages.

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Diversity of Sundanese Forms of Address Usage in Family

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Abstract—This study aims to describe the diversity of Sundanese forms of address in families. The use of Sundanese forms of address in Sundanese ethnic families is currently mixed with Indonesian addresses, especially in urban families. The problems studied are related to the types of forms of address and the influence of social variables on the choice of forms of address. The method used is descriptive. Data collection is actualized by using a survey distribution method through an open-ended questionnaire. The selected respondents are the students of Sundanese Literature of the Faculty of Cultural Sciences of Universitas Padjadjaran, who come from and live on the border of Bandung City. The theoretical basis used in this study is a sociolinguistic approach. The results of the analysis show that the types of Sundanese forms of address used in the family include proper names, kinship terms, terms of endearment, personal pronouns, and combinations of forms of address. Social variable factors in the form of situations that influence a change of a selection of types forms of address are happy, sad, and angry situations. This study contributes to the viewpoint that language attitudes are also determining factors in the use of the address.

Index Terms—forms of address, sociolinguistics, Sundanese, family, city border

I. INTRODUCTION

Many things are considered by speakers when addressing other speakers. It can be age, gender, social status, family relationship, situation, sociocultural background, familiarity and speakers' social distance which can indicate how the relationship is established between the speakers and addressees (Mardiha, 2012; Özcan, 2016). Other matters relating to identity such as perceptions of local and global contexts, language attitudes and language ideology, and patterns of socialization are also things that must be considered in addressing speakers (Afful, 2010; Liebscher et al., 2022; Rahardi, 2022). The choice of forms of address (proper names, kinship terms, professional terms, affectionate nicknames, epithet), whether it is the desired choice or not, is a potential signal that shows how the speakers imagine their relationship with the addressees. When the roles of the speech participants change in relation to one another, this can be indicated by how they address one another (Fasold, 2003; Yang, 2010). For example, one and the same person can be addressed by different speakers such as Sue, Susan or Ms. Smith. This reveals different levels of familiarity and affinity with the speakers. Likewise, to get someone's attention by saying Hey, You or Excuse me, Madam is likely to be interpreted very differently in terms of politeness and formality (Norrby & Camilla, 2015). The relationship that exists between speakers and addressees can be symmetrical and asymmetrical. A symmetrical relationship is an equal relationship between speakers and addressees, while an asymmetrical relationship is a power relationship between speakers and addressees. That means a speaker who has authority or power can use a familiar address term to the addressee, but the addressee will answer with a respectful address term (Brown & Gilman, 1960; Norrby & Warren, 2012). Family is a unity that allows asymmetrical relationships to occur. Study of Farghal and Abdullah (1994) focuses on kin terms and titles terms correlated with distant and affectionate honorifics. Other study related to forms of address of the husband-wife relationship was conducted by Esmaeli (2011). The study found that to show respect, wives use respectful names for their husbands when in the presence of the husband/wife's parents. In another study, it was also found that in informal family situations, age is more significant than gender and social class in determining forms of address (Keshavarz, 2001). Studies of the use of forms of address in five different contexts: family, neighbor, workplace, school, and stranger as well as the relationship of social factors was carried out by Alenizi (2019). Although there are

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many studies about forms of address in a family context and in relation to addressing rules, as well as the factors that influence them, study on variations of Sundanese forms of address in suburbs family of Bandung is particularly limited. This study focuses on the diversity of forms of address that are still used in daily communication by Sundanese families who live on the border of Bandung City. Bandung is one of the big cities in Indonesia. The city is inhabited by residents of various ethnicities with the Sundanese as the original inhabitants. This ethnic heterogeneity causes the Sundanese people in Bandung City to become bilingual and even multilingual. What types of Sundanese forms of address that are still used in families on the border of Bandung City dominantly and the situational factors playing an important role in the selection of the types of forms of address of speakers towards addressees are the concerns of this study.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Types of Forms of Address

There are factors that govern the selection of speakers in addressing addressees so that a speaker addresses an addressee using certain forms of address, such as titles, first names, last names, nicknames, and some of these combinations, or not at all, on purpose to avoid addressing mistakes. As illustrated in the asymmetric addressing process: if I address you, Mr. Jones, do you address me, John? Or symmetrical, so that Mr. Jones leads to Mr. Smith and John to Fred. All these types of combinations are possible in English: Dr. Smith, John Smith, Smith, John, Johnnie, Doc, Sir, Mack, and so on. A patient might be addressed by using a title like Dr. Smith, his son would address him with the related term *dad*, his brother would address him with the proper name John, his wife would address him with the affectionate address *dear*, and a police officer who stops him if he drives too fast would address him with the form of address *sir*, and perhaps it would be somewhat surprising if *sir* address is replaced with another form of address, for example in the utterance, 'Excuse me, dear, can I see your driver's license?' says police officers (Chaika, 1985; Swann et al., 2004; Wardhaugh & Janet, 2015).

B. Sundanese People and Their Language

A country sometimes only knows one or two languages, but many countries are linguistically divided so it is not impossible for every child to be bilingual or multilingual. Indonesia can be an example of that country (Sudaryat et al., 2007). Sundanese is one of the hundreds of regional languages that still exist in Indonesia. Sundanese is used by Sundanese people who live in West Java Province, Banten Province, and the western part of Central Java Province (Bahasa dan Peta Bahasa di Indonesia: Bahasa Sunda Provinsi Jawa Barat, 2023) (downloaded on January 10, 2023). Bandung is the capital city of West Java Province, one of the provinces on the island of Java, Indonesia. Besides Sundanese language, Sundanese people in Bandung City use Indonesian in their daily communication. The use of Indonesian is more dominant than Sundanese, especially among children and adolescents, including university students. This domination occurs due to the assumption of parents who think that having good proficiency in Indonesian will open up a bright future for their children (see Moriyama, 2010). Another cause is because urban society is more heterogeneous compared to people who live in suburbs and villages. Currently, Bandung is increasingly visited by other ethnicities, such as Javanese, Padang, Madurese, Batak, Balinese, and East Nusa Tenggara. The presence of other ethnicities to Bandung City led to the birth of various languages. The variety of languages currently used in Bandung City include Sundanese, Indonesian, other regional languages (Javanese, Padang, Madurese, Batak, Balinese, and East Nusa Tenggara), English, and youth language, that is Sundanese for teenagers (Maisah, 2018).

In Sundanese, there is a speech level known as *undak-usuk*. The term *undak-usuk* refers to the idea that Sundanese recognizes the social level of the addressees and the social level spoken. This system tends to influence the Indonesian vocabulary (consider the word *beliau* and *berkenan* that are used or are related to the persona who has higher social status). This system results in a coarser or refined diction according to the social level of the addressees or the person being discussed. From a pragmatic point of view, in terms of the speech of the addressees being discussed, this speech level has coarse vocabulary for the speaker (person one), the addressee (person two), and the person being spoken to (person three) (Djajasudarma, 2013). For example, in Sundanese the use of the second personal pronoun *anjeun* 'You', and *saderek* 'You' belongs to the level of refined Sundanese speech, while *maneh* 'You' belongs to the coarse or intimate Sundanese speech level.

C. Address in Sundanese

Writings and studies that specifically discuss the types of Sundanese forms of address are still limited. There are several names that generally discuss the Sundanese forms of address referring to books on Sundanese grammar and reports on the results of previous studies, including the works of Coolsma (1904), Ardiwinata (1917), Wirakusumah (1982), Kats and Soeridiradja (1927), Adiwidjaja (1951), Sumardi et al. (1992), Sudaryat (2007), and Djajasudarma (2013). Based on these literary sources, forms of address can be divided into two categories, that are personal nouns and pronouns. The types of nouns used to address in Sundanese are proper names, such as *Juariah*, *Dahlan*, *Umar*; kin terms, such as *bapa*, *ema*, *aki*; honorary titles, such as *raden*, *juag*, *aom*; rank/profession, such as *guru*, *lurah*, *ajengan*; affectionate nicknames, such as *ujang*, *nyai*; and other nouns (1), such as *nu narongton* 'audience', *Si Jangkung* 'the Tall', *Si Manis* 'the Sweet', and *Si Medit* 'the Miser'. These forms of address can be combined, such as *Raden Tisna*, *Pa Aslim*, *Ambu Ekob*, and *Kang Wira*. The pronouns used as address in Sundanese are second personal pronouns, both singular

and plural, and demonstrative pronouns. Singular personal pronouns, such as *silaing*, *maneh*, *anjeun*, *saderek*, and *salira* 'you/you/brother'; plural personal pronouns, such as *silalaing*, *maraneh*, *saderek sadayana*, *anjeun sadayana/aranjeun* 'all of you/all of you/brothers'; and demonstrative pronouns, as *di dinya* 'you'. A study of addressing or self-nickname in Sundanese which function as vocative is carried out by Wahya et al. (2021). This study produces six vocative characteristics in terms of category, form, position, existence, function and in terms of written and spoken language.

Sundanese people do not distinguish kinship terms, both for male and female kinship. The difference is seen in the use of forms of address, such as father is addressed with *bapa*, *apa*, *pa*, *mama*, *ama*, *abah*; mother is addressed with *ema*, *ma*, *mimi*, *embi*, *embu*. The inclusion of foreign language elements such as Dutch, English and Arabic also influence the address to father and mother, so that it brings out terms of address, such as *mamah-papah*, *mamih-papih*, *abah-umi*, *abuya-umi*. Older brother is addressed with *kakang*, *kaka*, *aang*, *kang*, *aa*; elder sister is addressed with *ceuceu*, *euceu*, *ceu*; father's or mother's older brother is addressed as *uwa* or *wa*; father's or mother's younger brother is addressed with *mamang*, *emang* or *mang*; father's or mother's younger sister is addressed with *bibi*, *ibi*, *embi* or *bi*. Husband addresses his wife in the terms of address *manehna*, wife addresses her husband in the terms of address *anjeuna*. Thus, the forms of address for kinship between men and women in Sundanese is not different (see also Rosidi, 2006; Sobarna, 1993).

D. Social Factors Influencing Forms of Address Choice

In some of the examples he discussed, Holmes (2013) suggests that certain social factors are appropriate in calculating the particular variety used. Some relate to participant-language users; other relates to its utility—the social setting and interaction function. Who the speaker is with whom the addressee (e.g., wife-husband, customer-shopkeeper, boss-worker) is an important factor. Social setting (e.g., home, work, school) is also a relevant factor. The purpose of the interaction (informative, social) according to Holmes (2013) may also be important because in some cases, the topic has proven to influence language choice, including forms of address choice.

In every speech community, the use of a particular language produces a very specific type of social effects, such as an indication of the speaker's relationship with the addressee or with the person spoken of, or self-presentation as part of a social group. Social effects mediated in general by utterances are highly context-bound or indexical in nature. Both are evaluated in relation to the context or situation at hand, including the aspects of the situation created by what was said or done. The utterances can be what the speaker feels fits the situation he has understood or changing the context in a recognizable way, turning it into a completely different situation. Speakers can speak particularly about social indexicality when the contextual features indexed by utterances and the accompanying signs are understood as attributes of or relations between social persons. The use of polite pronouns, terms of address, greetings, the use of manipulation to convey politeness are examples of more stereotyped uses of 'social' language. This usage depends on a fundamental way of a widely shared ideological model of language usage that ascribes particular social significance to deictic usage patterns (Agha, 2007).

III. METHODS

The method used in this study is the descriptive method. Data collection is actualized using a survey distribution method through an open-ended questionnaire. The form of the questions related to the use of address refers to the type A of *discourse completion test* (DCT) model put forward by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) in realizing the intended speech act, an utterance can be divided based on its sequence into segments (A) *address term (s)*, (B) *head act*, and (C) *adjuncts to head act*. Respondents composed utterances in Sundanese which contained addresses in the family. Addresses are addressed to the nuclear family and extended family: father, mother, younger siblings, older siblings, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins. The utterances that are arranged are utterances that they usually speak in daily life in a family. The utterances are in a normal situation, happy, sad, and angry.

Respondents selected to fill out the questionnaire are 30 undergraduate students (Bachelor's degree) of the Sundanese Literature Study Program, Universitas Padjadjaran, who come from and live in the border of Bandung City. The selection of respondents is based on the consideration that students who live in the border of Bandung City are better at maintaining local languages in family so that the language used is original, while students who live in the city center are more susceptible to being influenced by Indonesian and foreign languages in daily communication, both within the family and the outside one. After the data are collected and classified, the next step is to analyze the data. In this stage, the data are analyzed based on the formulation of the problem. Analysis of Sundanese utterance data containing address is divided into two parts, which are an analysis of the types of forms of address in the nuclear family and the extended one. The grouping of types of forms of address is based on the concept of types of forms of address put forward by Chaika (1985). In formulating and explaining each type of form of address, a description of the relationship between the utterance participants, the location of the utterance, and the atmosphere of the utterance with the forms of address chosen by the speakers is carried out. Analysis in the formulation of social variable factors that influence the choice of forms of address is carried out by comparing and describing the differences in the forms of address chosen by speakers in normal situations with happy, sad, and angry situations.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Classification of Types of Sundanese Forms of Address in Family

Based on the category, the types of Sundanese forms of address used by speakers in Sundanese ethnic families include proper names, kinship terms, and terms of endearment. Sundanese forms of address, both nouns, and pronouns, or combinations of these forms of address are found in normal situations. The situation in question is an informal situation and comes both inside and outside the house.

(a). First Name

In this study, the data for the types of forms of personal address found are first names in full form and first names in partial form. The use of this address comes in an asymmetrical relationship. The location of the utterance is in the house. The use of the form of address in the form of a proper name for the utterance is presented in the data below.

1. father – Nibah : *“Nibah, geuning can mangkat? Bisi kaburangan, ngk é mah hujan.”*
‘Nibah, why haven't you left yet? It's late and it's raining.’
2. Erik – Aghni : *“Aghni, kin sonten jajap si bungsu ka madrasah nya.”*
‘Aghni, accompany your youngest to the madrasa this afternoon.’
3. grandfather 1 - Ridwan : *“Ridwan, pangnyapuankeun bumi aki, nya?”*
‘Ridwan, please sweep Grandpa's house, okay?’

The relationship between speakers and addressees in (1) is father and son. In (1) the father asks 'Nibah' the child why he hasn't gone to college yet. The relationship between the speaker and addressee in data (2) is siblings. In (2) the older brother orders 'Aghni', his younger sibling to take their little brother to the madrasa in the afternoon. The relationship between the speaker and the addressee in data (3) is the relationship between the grandfather from the father's side of the family and his grandson. In (3) Grandfather orders his grandson 'Ridwan' to sweep the grandfather's house. The use of first names in data (1) – (3) is intended to attract the speakers' attention.

In addition to personal addresses in the form of full first names, in this study, there are also short forms as follows.

4. Father – Desta : *“Des, pangmareumankeun motor keur dipanahan.”*
‘Des, please turn off the motor that is being warmed up.’
5. Uncle 1 – Nisa : *“Nis, ku amang dijajakkeun nam.”*
‘Come on, uncle will take you.’
6. Aunt 1 – Najmi : *“Sok Mi, kadé nya di jalan.”*
‘Please Mi, be careful on the road.’

The forms of address in data (4) and (5) are short forms of the first two syllables of a word, while data (6) is a short form of proper names in the form of the perpetuation of the last syllable of a word. The forms of address *Des* (data (4)), *Nis* (data (5)), and *Mi* (data (6)) occur in informal or relaxed situations that show proximity. The relationship between speakers and speakers in data (4) is asymmetric. The relationship between the speaker and addressee is father and son in data (4). In data (4) a father instructs his son 'Desta' to turn off the warmed-up motorbike engine. The relationship between the speaker and the addressee in data (5) is an uncle from the father's side of the family and a nephew. In data (5) an uncle offered to help accompany his niece 'Nisa'. The relationship between the speaker and the addressee in data (6) is an aunt from the father's side of the family and a nephew. In data (6) an aunt prays for safety for her nephew 'Najmi' to be safe while on the way.

(b). Kinship Terms

Addressees in the form of kinship terms that are found in this study are complete and short forms. The use of these forms of address in the form of utterances includes the following.

7. Taufik – Father : *“Bapa, punten ieu aya serat ti Pa Maman kanggo rapat wengi ayeuna.”*
‘Excuse me father, there is a letter from Mr. Maman for tonight's meeting.’
8. Sarah – Grandmother 1 : *“Ema, ka marana ieu geuning teu araya?”*
‘Grandma, where are the people, how come there's no one?’
9. Listiani- Older Brother : *“Aa, meni kamana wa é? panggih t   lebaran w   hungkul.”*
‘Older brother, where have you been? (We) meet only during Eid.’
10. Mother – Listiani : *“T t h, lainna geura mandi atuh ceunah aya kuliah zoom.”*
‘My daughter, take a shower right away, there's a zoom lecture.’

These complete forms of kinship terms of address data are used in informal or casual situations. The relationship between the speaker and addressee is father and son in data (7). In data (7) a son tells 'bapa', his father and also gives an invitation letter to his father for the event tonight. The relationship between the speaker and addressee in data (8) is granddaughter and grandmother. In data (8) a granddaughter asks 'ema', her grandmother why there is no one at home. The relationship between the speaker and addressee in data (9) is younger sister and older brother. In (9) a younger sister asks 'Aa', her older brother why they don't see each other often. The relationship between the speaker and addressee in data (10) is mother and daughter. In data (10) a mother instructs her daughter 'Listiani' to take a quick shower so she won't be left behind in online class lectures. Listiani is addressed by the kinship term *tete* (address for older sister) because she is the first child. Addressing *tete* by parents to the first daughter who has a younger sibling is common in Sundanese. The aim of addressing *tete* is that the younger sister of the girl who is called *tete* also addresses her with the kinship term *tete* as a form of respect.

Furthermore, addresses of kinship terms in the form of one-syllable fragments in the form of utterances are presented in the data below.

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------|---|--|
| 11. | Desta – Mother | : | “Mah, Endes rék mésér pulsa heula ka konter.”
‘Mom, Endes will go to buy credit first at the credit shop.’ |
| 12. | Older Brother - Listiani | : | “Sibuk atuh Dé ayeuna mah.”
‘Now i'm busy, sister/brother.’ |
| 13. | Irfan – Younger sibling | : | “Yi, kumaha keluarga di dinya sarehat?”
‘Sist, how is your family? Good?’ |

The forms of address in data (11), (12), and (13) are short forms of kinship terms in the form of the perpetuation of the last syllable. Forms of address *mah* (data (11)), *de* (data (12)), and *yi* (data (13)) used in informal or casual situations that show intimacy. The relationship between speakers and addressees in data (11) to (13) are asymmetric. The relationship between speakers and addressees in data (11) is son and mother, in data (12) is older brother and younger sister, and in data (13) is older brother and younger brother. Referential utterance is in the data (11), (12), and (13). In (11) son tells 'mah' the short from *mamah* (mother) that he will go to the credit shop to buy telephone credit, whereas in data (12) an older brother states that at the time he is busy so he does not help *de* the form of *ade* (younger sister/brother). The data (13) is referential utterance. In data (13) an older brother asks about the health of his younger sibling's family who is addressed with *yi*, a short form of *ayi* or *rai* (younger sister/brother). From the seven data of kinship terms analyzed in this discussion, six of them are kinship terms in Sundanese, while one other data, *mah*, a short form of *mamah* 'mother' is a kinship term in Indonesian.

(c). Terms of Endearment

The forms of terms of endearment addresses found in this study are the complete forms and short forms. This type of address is found in informal situations and takes place in the house (data (14) and (15)). The use of terms of endearment in the form of utterance is presented in the data below.

- | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------|---|---|
| 14. | Grandfather 2 - Anggi | : | “Nyai pangmeseurkeun bako kangge Bi Minar.”
‘Darling, please buy cigarettes for aunty Minar.’ |
| 15. | Grandmother 1 – Alfi | : | “Engkang, geura makan!”
‘Buddy, go eat immediately!’ |

The forms of terms of endearment in data (14) and (15) come to be intimate and relaxed situations. The relationship between speaker and addressee in data (14) is between a grandfather from the mother's side of the family and a granddaughter. In (14) a grandfather tells his granddaughter who is called *nyai* to go buy cigarettes. *Nyai* is a nickname for girls. The relationship between speakers and addressees in data (15) and is between grandmothers from the father's side of the family and grandsons. In data (15) a grandmother asks her grandson who is called *engkang* 'older brother' to eat immediately. *Engkang* is a variation of the kinship term *akang* 'older brother'. Compared to *akang*, the address *engkang* has a more affectionate feel (Danadibrata, 2015). Like addressing *tete*, addressing *akang* or *engkang* by parents as well as grandparents to grandsons is common in Sundanese society. Addressing *akang* or *engkang* is intended to the younger sibling of the older brother who is called *Akang* or *Engkang* and also addresses him with the kinship term *akang/engkang* as a form of respect. The forms of terms of endearment addresses found in this study all come from Sundanese.

The forms of terms of endearment addresses in the short forms found in this study can be observed from the following data.

- | | | | |
|-----|----------------------|---|---|
| 16. | Grandmother 1 – Jeni | : | “Cu, buru Éma pangmésérkeun bako ka hareup.”
‘Kid, please quickly buy grandma cigarettes at the street.’ |
| 17. | Father – Nurul | : | “Yang, bapa pangmésérkeun obat batuk jug.”
‘Dear, please hurry up and buy me cough medicine.’ |
| 18. | Uncle 1 – Nurdin | : | “Ari Asép ayeuna di mana? Kuliah atawa gawé?”
‘What is this handsome guy currently busy with? Study or work?’ |

19. Older Sister - Endang : “*Nok, kumaha kuliah teh lancar?*”
‘Sweetheart, how is (your) college going?’

The forms of terms of endearment addresses in data (16), (17), and (19) are short forms of the perpetuation of the last syllable, while data (18) is a short form of the second and third syllables of a word. The use of forms of address in data (16) to (19) occurs in informal or relaxed situations that indicate intimacy. The relationship between speakers and addressees in data (16) to (19) is an asymmetrical one, specifically between the grandmother from the father's side of the family and grandson (data (16)), father and daughter (data (17)), uncle from the father's side of the family and niece (data (18)), older sister and younger sister (data (19)). Imperative utterances are in data (16) and (17). Interrogative utterances are in data (18) and (19). In data (16) a grandmother orders her grandson who is called *cu* as a short form of *incu* (grandson) to buy her cigarettes. In data (17) a father instructs his daughter who is addressed *yang* as a short form of *sayang* (darling) to buy him cough medicines. In data (18) an uncle asks his nephew who is addressed *asep* as a short form of *kasep* ‘handsome’ regarding his nephew's residence and college. In Sundanese, the address *asep* is also usually used as a proper name (see Sobarna, 1994). In data (19) an older sister asks her younger sister who is addressed with *nok*, a short form of *enok*, ‘nickname for girls’. Besides *nyai*, the Sundanese also use the address *enok* for girls.

Besides complete and short forms of terms of endearment address, this study also has one combined form of data as follows.

20. Grandmother 1 – Najmi : “*Cép Najmi, kadieu Cu ema aya piobroleun.*”
‘My dear Najmi, come here... there's something I
(grandma) want to talk about.’

The form of address in data (20) is a combination of an terms of endearment address and a proper name. Address *Cep Najmi* (20) is used in informal situations. The relationship between the speaker and the addressee relationship which is the grandmother from the father's side of the family and the grandson is asymmetrical. In data (20) a grandmother asks her grandson, who is addressed *Cep Najmi*, to approach her grandmother because she has something she wants to talk about.

From the data of the forms of address discussed in this study, most of them come from Sundanese. The forms that appear also vary. There is only one form of terms of endearment address in Indonesian, namely *yang* which is a short form of *sayang*.

(d). Pronouns

Deixis is a technical term (derives from Greek) for one of the basic things we do in utterances (Djajasudarma, 2013; Yule, 1998). Deixis can be in the form of location (place), identification of people, objects, social events, processes, or activities that are being discussed or referred from the relationship between the dimensions of space and time when it is spoken by speakers and addressees (Cruse, 2000; Djajasudarma, 2013). Of the five types of deixis, social deixis is the most closely related type of address because social deixis is a category that involves the speaker's social status which is symbolized by personal pronouns (Rahyono, 2012). Thus, social deixis has an important role in the use of forms of address by speakers towards addressees. In Sundanese, the demonstrative pronoun *di dinya* ‘there’ is sometimes interpreted as ‘you’ as shown in the following data.

21. Alfi – Younger Brother : “*Teuh, di dinya, geura hudang geus azan geura ka masjid.*”
‘Hey you, get up quickly, it's already the call to prayer,
go to the mosque immediately.’

The pronouns in data (21) occur in informal situations. The relationship between speaker and addressee is asymmetrical, that is, the relationship between older brother and younger one. In data (21) an older brother instructs his younger one, who is addressed *di dinya* ‘you’, to get up and go to the mosque to pray.

B. Social Factors Influencing the Forms of Address Choice in Sundanese Among Adolescents

In this study, the social variable factors that influence the forms of address choice are found in happy, sad, and angry situations. Here's the description.

(a). Social Factor: Happy Situation

Data (22) describes a grandmother who feels happy because she gets food from her grandson. The utterance of happiness can be seen in the data below.

	Utterance in Normal Situation	Utterance in Happy Situation
22. Grandmother – Jeni	“ <i>Jéni, Umi hoyong seureuh, pangalakeun di kebonnya.</i> ” ‘Jeni, Umi wants betel nut, please get it in the garden.’	“ <i>Si Ujang meni bageur masihan lauk jang beuleumeun. Menang ti mana ieu t^h, Jang?</i> ” ‘Grandma’s prince is really kind to give fish to be grilled. Where do you get the fish, prince?’

In a normal situation, the speaker (data 22) uses the form of address *Jeni* to the addressee, while in a happy situation, the speaker chooses a combination of forms of address *si ujang* to the addressee. The relationship between speaker and addressee is intimate. The combination of forms of address *si ujang* is classified to the affectionate address for boys. The speaker chooses the form of terms of endearment address *si ujang* to the addressee because the speaker feels happy to receive the fish given by the addressee who is her grandson.

Data (23) describes the participant's relationship between an older sister who is happy to see her younger brother achieve. The older sister expresses his joy with the following utterance.

	Utterance in Normal Situation	Utterance in Happy Situation
23. Ilma – Younger Brother	<p>“<i>Geura diajar De, meh jadi jelema pinter.</i>” ‘Study immediately bro, so that you become a smart person.’</p>	<p>“<i>Alhamdulillah, si kasep rengking hiji oge.</i>” ‘Alhamdulillah, my little boy wins first place again.’</p>

The speaker (in data (23)) uses the form of address *de* which is a short form of *dede/ade* ‘younger sister/brother’ to the addressee in a normal situation, whereas, in a happy situation, the speaker chooses to use a combination of forms of address *si kasep* ‘the handsome’ to the addressee. The combined form of address *si kasep* is an affectionate form addressed to men, both children and adults. In data (23), the speaker chooses the combination of forms of address *si kasep* to the addressee to show affection and pride from the older sister because her younger brother has maintained the achievement as the first winner in his class.

(b). Social Factor: Sad Situation

The next social variable found in this study is the sad situation. This situation comes in a state of grief, difficulty, or sadness. The following is an example of data analysis.

Data (40) depicts a father strengthening his depressed daughter to stay strong. The utterance appears in the following data.

	Utterance in Normal Situation	Utterance in Sad Situation
24. Father – Dede Ilma	<p>“<i>Nyai cing pangmawakeun sangu ka dieu bapa r & madang.</i>” ‘My daughter please bring rice here, I (father) want to eat.’</p>	<p>“<i>Cing sabar geulis anaking, keun meureun lain milik nyai.</i>” ‘Be patient my beautiful princess, maybe it's not your good luck.’</p>

Speaker (data 24) uses the form of address *nyai* in normal situation, whereas in a sad situation, speaker chooses a combination of forms of address *geulis anaking* ‘beautiful daughter’ to the addressee. The relationship between speaker and addressee in data (24) is father and daughter. *Geulis anaking* is an affectionate address addressed to girls, both children and adults. The choice of forms of address *geulis anaking* is a form of the affection of a father (speaker) to his daughter (addressee). The father tries to calm his daughter who is sad because she failed to get something she dreamed of.

Furthermore, in data (25) a father is depicted comforting his son who is in a state of concern. The following utterance describes the situation.

	Utterance in Normal Situation	Utterance in Sad Situation
25. Father – Wawan	<p>“<i>Wan, buru geura indit ka masigit, geus adan tah.</i>” ‘Wan, hurry up and go to the mosque, it's already the call to prayer.’</p>	<p>“<i>Wayahna Jang, hirup jauh ti kolot, jauh ti sasaha.</i>” ‘Be patient dear, your live is away from parents and other people.’</p>

The speaker in data (25) uses the form of address *Wan* to the addressee in normal situation, whereas in a sad situation, the speaker chooses the form of address *jang* to the addressee. The form of address *Wan* is a short form of the name *Wawan*. The relationship between speaker and addressee is intimate. Form of address *jang* is a short form of *ujang*. An address *jang* used for boys, both adults and children. The use of a form of address is a manifestation of the speaker's empathy for the addressee whose fate is now to be far from his parents.

(c). Social Factor: Angry Situation

Besides the social variables of happy and sad situations, another variable found in this study is angry situations. In English, the difference in choosing addresses in neutral and angry situations can be found in an example situation like a mother who usually addresses her child *John Smith* with the first name *Johnny* or addressing *Honey*, but when she is annoyed or angry, she would use the address *John Matthew Smith*. The use of the full name form of address indicates a reduced intimacy and as a result shows a sign of anger or rebuke (Wardhaugh & Janet, 2015). In the case of Sundanese,

the change of choice of forms of address from a normal situation to angry situation utterance can be observed in data (26). This data describes a mother who is angry with her daughter.

26. Mother – Daughter	<p>Utterance in Normal Situation <i>“Tétéh, lainna geura mandi atuh ceunah aya kuliah zoom.”</i> ‘Daughter, take a shower right away, there’s a zoom lecture.’</p>	<p>Utterance in Angry Situation <i>“LISTIANI! Kaluar! Ulah nyoo hap éwa é Moyan, moyan!”</i> ‘LISTIANI! Go out! Don’t use the cellphone all the time! Sunbathe, sunbathe!’</p>
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Speaker in data (26) use the form of address *tete* in normal situation, whereas in an angry situation, speaker chooses the form of address *Listiani*. The form of address *tete* is an address to women. The speaker addresses the addressee with the form of address *tete* because the addressee is the first child of the speaker. The use of the address *tete* aims to give an example for the younger addressee (the speaker's second child) so that the younger addressee also addresses the addressee with the same address as a form of respect for the younger to the older sibling. The use of the form of address *Listiani* to the addressee in an angry situation is a manifestation of the mother's displeasure because the child is too engrossed in using the cellphone and does not follow her mother's orders.

According to Crystal (2008), the arrangements for using addresses, such as the pronouns *tu* and *vous* (T-form and V-form) in French are distinguished. T is used to address whose position is considered lower than the speaker, such as angry or intimate expressions, while V is used to address whose position is considered higher than the speaker, such as respect. In Sundanese, the use of addresses in the form of personal pronouns that show respect, solidarity, and also emotion cannot be separated from the speech levels of the language ‘*undak-usuk basa*’ as shown in data (27) This data describes a father who is angry with his daughter. The utterance in this angry situation can be seen below.

27. Father – Daughter	<p>Utterance in Normal Situation <i>“Yang, bapa pangm és érkeun obat batuk jug.”</i> ‘My dear, please hurry up and buy me (father) cough medicine.’</p>	<p>Utterance in Angry Situation <i>“Ari ditanya ku kolot téh tong sok api-api teu ngad éng étuman, angger man di mah.”</i> ‘If your parents ask, don’t pretend you don’t hear, your habits haven’t changed.’</p>
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The speaker in data (27) uses the form of address *yang* which is addressed to the addressee in a normal situation, whereas in an angry situation, the speaker chooses to use the form of address *maneh* ‘you’ to the addressee. The relationship between speaker and speaker is intimate. *Yang* is a short form of *sayang* ‘darling’. The form of address *yang* is the parents’ affectionate nickname at home for their daughter, considering that the addressee is the only child of the speaker. *Maneh* ‘you’ is categorized as a coarse speech level in Sundanese. The use of the form of address *maneh* aims to show the angry outburst of the speaker because the addressee as a child is indifferent to the questions asked by the speaker.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the study in this paper, it can be concluded as follows: (1) the diversity of forms of address in Sundanese in family includes: proper names, kinship terms, terms of endearment, and pronouns. Forms of proper names, kinship terms, and terms of endearment are found in complete and short forms, and the pronouns found are demonstrative pronouns. Social variable factors of a situation that influence the choice of forms of address by speakers to addressees in a family are happy, sad, and angry situations. The change from a normal situation to a happy one between the speaker and the addressee causes changes in the choice of the form of address by the speaker to the addressee from proper names and other nouns (or nominals) to terms of endearment and changes short forms of the full name to terms of endearment. The change from a normal situation to a sad situation between the speaker and the addressee causes changes in the choice of the forms of address by the speaker to the addressee from kinship terms to terms of endearment, changes from proper names to terms of endearment. The change from a normal situation to an angry situation between the speakers and the addressees causes changes in the choice of forms of address by the speakers to the addressees from kinship terms to proper names, changes of terms of endearment to second personal pronouns for the coarse speech level in Sundanese. The forms of address found in this study are almost entirely Sundanese. Thus, this study shows that the Sundanese people in the urban border areas still prefer to use Sundanese addresses in the family. This also shows that the maintenance of regional languages in the border areas is still effective.

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Translating Political Discourse: A Critical Review of Studies in Western and Chinese Contexts

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Abstract—The translation of political discourse serves as a linchpin in promoting intercultural dialogue, strengthening diplomatic relations, and advancing international cooperation. This study offers a critical analysis of the translation of political discourse within Western and Chinese paradigms. It commences with a brief introduction to the subject under investigation, succeeded by a discussion on the intercultural salience of political discourse. Subsequently, the paper engages in a comprehensive review of seminal research in the field, elucidating pivotal findings and adopted methodologies. Building upon this analytical framework, the paper delineates prominent lacunae in existing knowledge. This endeavor seeks to galvanize focused research efforts, invigorating the domain of political discourse translation studies and encouraging a global exploration of untapped territories and cross-cultural communication strategies.

Index Terms—political discourse, translation, Western context, Chinese context, research gaps

I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of political discourse is indispensable for lucid communication across diverse sociopolitical landscapes. Serving as a conduit, it surmounts cultural impediments, engendering mutual comprehension amongst nations and entities spanning varied political architectures and linguistic heritages. This research undertakes an exhaustive exploration of the intricacies of political discourse translation, scrutinizing its nuances within both Western and Chinese milieus.

The rationale for encompassing both Western and Chinese contexts is multifaceted. Historically, politically, economically, and culturally, the Western domain has been a linchpin in steering global political dialogue. Deciphering its translational intricacies unfurls profound implications. Concurrently, as China's global stature ascends, a meticulous probe into its political discourse translation becomes imperative for deciphering evolving international communicative dynamics. The divergences in cultural imprints and historical trajectories across regions mandate bespoke translation strategies, underscoring the primacy of a comparative lens. Moreover, the geopolitical confluence between Western polities and China accentuates the need to delve into the translation of political discourse. The copious extant literature in these domains corroborates this focus, facilitating an in-depth appraisal to bridge research voids. By amalgamating these scenarios, this investigation augments our nuanced grasp of cross-cultural political dialogue, fortifying international diplomatic bonds and broadening cognizance of global politico-linguistic dynamics.

Post an elucidation of the research's methodological framework and underpinning logic, the ensuing section furnishes a panoramic perspective on political discourse and its translational realm, underscoring their cardinal roles in cross-cultural exchanges. This is succeeded by a rigorous scrutiny of seminal works on the translation of political rhetoric within Western and Chinese terrains, spotlighting salient discoveries and methodologies. The subsequent segment critiques extant scholarship's lacunae, pinpointing arenas warranting deeper inquiry. The conclusion accentuates the gravitas of the undertaken evaluation and flags domains beckoning intensified exploration.

Political discourse and its translation

The profound impact of political discourse on shaping societies and political landscapes has led to its substantial consideration as a subject of academic inquiry. Emerging from historical and cultural underpinnings, political discourse is bound by the contours of history and culture (An & Wang, 2019, p. 5). Nevertheless, despite its significance, the absence of a universally agreed-upon definition for political discourse persists, stemming from diverse interpretations across disciplines such as social science, politics, economics, and linguistics. As articulated by van Dijk (1997), "The majority of studies concerning political discourse center around the textual and spoken expressions of professional politicians or political institutions, spanning across local, national, and international levels" (p. 12). In a broader context, this concept is frequently elucidated through its symbiotic relationship with language. Conversely, within a narrower framework, political discourse can be construed as "a communicative act employed in formal or informal political

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settings, encompassing discussions of political events, entities, or agents" (Bánhegyi, 2014, p. 140). Van Dijk (1997) defines political discourse as functional political action within the political process. To avoid an excessively broad scope and ensure precision in the study, the researcher's definition of political discourse centers on the discourse of political figures during political occasions. This eliminates instances in which non-political figures participate in political events such as student marches and worker strikes, as well as instances in which political figures participate in non-political events such as ordinary talks.

In our increasingly interconnected world, the translation of political discourse plays a vital role in facilitating diplomatic relations and fostering international cooperation. It serves to convey political ideologies, policies, and opinions with cultural sensitivity, enabling meaningful engagement and informed decision-making on the global stage. However, the translation of political discourse sets itself apart from other forms of translation due to its potential impact on global peace and security. It is intrinsically tied to institutionalized political practices, heavily influenced by institutional policies and ideologies.

In this study, translation of political discourse specifically pertains to the translation of diverse political text types, including speeches, interviews, party declarations, directives, editorials, government press conference releases, news reports, white papers, and columns, among others. These texts are initiated by political leaders, political organizations, societies, and institutions and disseminated to international audiences through various mediums such as books, newspapers, television, radio, conferences, and the internet (Huang, 2015).

II. COMPARATIVE INSIGHTS: POLITICAL DISCOURSE TRANSLATION IN WESTERN AND CHINESE RESEARCH

This section presents a comprehensive examination of notable scholarly investigations pertaining to the translation of political discourse in both Western and Chinese settings. It outlines significant discoveries and approaches employed in these studies.

A. *Western Perspectives: Evolving Dynamics in Political Discourse Translation*

Understanding the ramifications of discourse translation is necessary given the historical, political, economic, and cultural dominance of the Western environment on the world. Political discourse translation is critical in the Western setting because it serves as the foundation for effectively communicating ideologies, policies, and socio-political goals among linguistically different people. This section investigates the many facets of translating political discourse in Western societies.

The pioneering work of Schäffner (2004), *Political Discourse Analysis from the Point of View of Translation Studies*, marks an important beginning. It is believed that exploring political discourse from the perspective of translation can provide a new perspective for understanding politics. She (2004) suggests interpreting political writings from a utilitarian standpoint and opposes the requirement to abide by the text type conventions of the target group as political texts rarely show the characteristics of high tradition. "The most important factor determining the particular textual make-up of the target text (henceforth, TT) is its function in the target language community" (Schäffner, 1997, p. 138). As each political text type has unique text-typological and contextual features, different translation strategies are required for its desired functions in the target language community and such functions are often distinct from those of the ST.

Monday's (2007) contribution fills some gaps by studying the basic problems of language form and ideology from the perspective of translation studies. He credits van Dijk's notion of ideology that is not limited to an exclusively political context to "encompass the knowledge, beliefs and value systems of the individual and the society in which he or she operates" (p. 196). Despite that he purposely steers clear of the typology of 'overt' or 'covert' translation (House, 1997, 2008), this phenomenon has attracted people's attention because some texts are typically read as if they were produced in the target language and presented as "an unmediated work" (Munday, 2007, p. 197).

Kang (2007) discusses ways to reconstruct the representation of North Korea in translation by doing a comparative examination of the Newsweek articles and their Korean translation. Despite the fact that his work is about a different genre, it has many similarities with the present study in terms of the sophisticated set of constraints and exigence in political discourse and the appeals for persuasion on the rhetorical audiences.

Political translation analysis in recent years has diverted to power and ideological relations. Bánhegyi's (2008) work benefits from a comprehensive approach to translation of Canadian political texts, including propositional analysis, social cognitive analysis and critical discourse analysis. It shows that the complication of the translation and the choice of translators are ideology-driven. Similarly, Gagnon (2010) focuses on the relationship between ideological considerations and translation shifts by the translator.

Inspirations behind political translation today involve "informing the target culture readership about a foreign country's political event and the personality of its leader" (Romagnuolo, 2009, p. 23). This statement brings insights to the process of translation in terms of communicative purposes. Focusing on the loss and the compensation of information during translation, Shamaileh (2022) presents another attempt to the translated parallelism which is used frequently as a figure of speech by Arabic political leaders in their discourse in order to persuade, assure and impress the recipients. It concludes that the recurrence of certain sentence structure in the TT is a deliberate operation by the translator for reproducing the desired stylistic and rhetorical effect of the original text.

Upon the role of the translator, Bánhegyi (2014) reviews and classifies the critical-discourse-analysis-based studies into six categories, one of which is the studies on the translator who plays a role as mediator in conditions of political conflict. Doerr (2018) posits political translation as a twofold model of radical democracy that transcends the conventional understanding of linguistic interpretation and counters the traditional notion of a “neutral” facilitator role of translators (p. 4). Also, Ghessimi (2019) discusses the role of the translator as producer of new knowledge by subverting the traditional allegiance of translation or interjecting his own world view of politics into the translation and it helps facilitate political changes in Iran of the 1970s.

Through a comprehensive examination of significant studies on political discourse translation in the Western context, the researcher has identified several noteworthy advancements. Among these, the prominence of critical discourse analysis and functionalist techniques stands out, shedding light on power dynamics and effective translation strategies. Additionally, progress in corpus linguistics and technology enables data-driven research, while reception studies explore audience interpretations. Ethical considerations, such as cultural sensitivity and neutrality, also play a crucial role in this evolving field. These collective developments contribute significantly to our understanding of the intricate interplay between language, politics, and culture in the translation of political discourse within Western cultures.

However, China's growing worldwide political and economic influence necessitates an examination of political discourse translation in this setting in order to get insights into international communication and power dynamics. Furthermore, the different cultural foundations and historical antecedents in both locations can lead to diverse translation processes, necessitating a comparative investigation. Based on that, the subsequent section of this study undertakes a thorough review of prior research focusing on the political translation practices within the Chinese context.

B. Chinese Perspectives: Evolving Dynamics in Political Discourse Translation

China's political discourse constitutes a vibrant system that elucidates the nation's developmental path, novel concepts, and emerging expressions (Huang, 2015). It stands as a comprehensive discourse system, reflecting the guiding principles and policies of the Communist Party of China. The translation of Chinese political discourse serves the purpose of disseminating China's accomplishments in politics, economy, culture, military, science, and technology. Moreover, it articulates the views and positions of the Party and the government on international matters, while also promoting China's rich traditional culture (Si & Zeng, 2021, p. 12). Understanding the current state of political discourse translation in the Chinese scholarly context is paramount for obtaining a well-rounded comprehension of this field.

In China, research on political discourse translation primarily revolves around two distinct approaches: the practically-oriented and the theoretically-oriented. The practical dimension of this inquiry is spearheaded by professional and official Chinese translators, drawing from their expertise and institutional knowledge of political translation operations

Many practically-oriented studies in this field have centered on delineating criteria and methods for political translation (Huang, 2004; Yuan, 2013, 2017; Zhao, 2018). Notably, early exploration derived insights from translating Mao Tse-Tung's Selected Works, acclaimed in English-speaking circles and lauded as a domestic Chinese political translation masterpiece. A pivotal principle highlighted in these studies is the paramount significance of precision in political translation. This entails faithfully representing source text political terms, customized to diverse political contexts (Azhari, 2017; Qiu, 2018a; Yuan, 2013). Consequently, prior research on translating political discourse has esteemed accuracy as the "dominant institutional norm governing political text translation" (Lu, 2013, p. 27).

However, translators of political texts, no matter which country's political system it concerns, must have a firm grasp of the political interests in the original. The need for worldwide communication has necessitated a change in the agenda of political discourse translation wherein greater emphasis is placed on a goal-oriented research approach so as to foster cross-national and cross-cultural understanding (Chen, 2021; He & Geng, 2020; Huang, 2004; Li & Li, 2015; Liang, 2019; Qiu, 2018a). In this regard, a novel concept of “Three Adherence” is promulgated as guidance to translation practice, and it is expressed as "adhere to the realities of China, adhere to the needs of foreign recipients in terms of their information acquisition, and adhere to the thought patterns of foreign recipients" (Huang, 2004, p. 27). In another, translators must also take cultural and language disparities into full consideration, and strive to overcome the cultural gaps in translation. Under this direction, a number of translation practitioners have highlighted novel points in this field.

For example, Zhang (2004) sheds light on how bureaucratic tone can hinder reception, prompting a reevaluation of "accuracy" in political translation. Focus shifts to recognizing multi-functionality and stylistic features in political leaders' speeches (Wang, 2006, 2008), offering insights into authentic Chinese utterances with stylistic nuances (Liu, 2020; Zhang, 2014). From analysis of translated terminologies in Xi Jinping: The Governance of China (Volume II) (Xi, 2017), Zhang (2021) examines non-textual factors' impact on translation, including social context and reader characteristics. Qiu and Liu (2021) present methods for translating distinct Chinese political terms. Feng (2022) contributes operational norms for four types of terms—proper nouns, acronyms, metaphors, and parallel structural phrases. These norms encompass political loyalty principles, foreignization-oriented strategies, and methodologies for translating different political term categories effectively.

The exploration on methodologies and principles underpinning the translation of political discourse not only enriches the field of translation studies but also provides a robust foundation for subsequent theoretical examinations, such as the present study, within this purview. China's commendable progress through its revolutionary, developmental, and

reformative phases has catalyzed a burgeoning body of Chinese academic literature that probes into the translation of political discourse from a multitude of angles (Fu, 2018; Li & Xu, 2018; Yu, 2020). These scholarly perspectives span communicative, functionalist, pragmatic, cognitive linguistic, eco-translatological, constructivist, and rhetorical persuasion frameworks.

Li and Liu (2011) delve into the impact of translating international communication material, adopting a communicative approach. In a similar vein, Mao (2012) scrutinizes the criteria and tactics employed in translating Chinese political lexemes into English, while Li (2014) conducts an inquiry into the peculiarities of political texts through this same lens. The communicative methodology underscores the primacy of the target audience (henceforth, TA), taking into account the cultural and cognitive nuances that differentiate languages. Its predominant objective is to optimize the transfer of information from the source text to facilitate comprehension by the TA, as elucidated by Zheng (2015). Nevertheless, this approach lends less emphasis to augmenting the acceptability and persuasiveness of the translated text for the TA, as noted by Qiu (2018b).

The academic landscape is rife with studies that have delved into political discourse translation and compilation through the functional translation framework (Be, 2018; Dong, 2011; Li, 2012; Wang, 2010). For instance, Li (2021) critically assesses the translation methods employed in the publicity text of the 2021 Report on the Work of the Government, grounding his analysis in Vermeer's tripartite principles—skopos rule, coherence rule, and fidelity rules (Schäffner, 1998). Rooted in the ethos of this functional translation perspective is the idea of moulding translation strategies to align with the designated purpose of the TT.

Although this perspective is invaluable when addressing political discourse translation geared for international communication, it sometimes prioritises the translation's objective at the expense of the source text's cultural nuances and political standpoints (Luo & Li, 2020; Qiu, 2018b; Shen, 2015; Yuan, 2017). Furthermore, this functional methodology grapples with the challenge of offering nuanced specificity, which is crucial for persuasively engaging the TA in the pursuit of augmenting national image and international discourse power.

Additionally, the discipline of pragmatics has furnished several theoretical constructs, notable among which are relevance theory, adaptation theory, and meme theory. Within this prism, Liao (2016) embarked on the ambitious endeavour of constructing a memetic corpus tailored for bilingual political discourse translation. Wang (2019), adopting the relevance theory framework, underscores strategies such as cultural implantation and domestication, which aid in the meticulous reconstruction of cultural imageries. Concurrently, Zhan (2019) casts a discerning eye on the intricate interplay between language and context in the English translation of the white paper titled "On the construction of ecological civilization on the Qinghai Tibet Plateau", leveraging the adaptation theory.

Nevertheless, it's noteworthy that studies centred on a pragmatic lens, much like their communicative counterparts, often accentuate linguistic and societal pragmatic equivalences by instituting discourse-level juxtapositions (Mo, 2011; Yuan, 2014, 2017). And, while this lens foregrounds the importance of efficacious information dissemination, it frequently neglects pivotal functional dimensions and overarching translation objectives, such as amplifying a nation's international standing and discursive prowess. It is evident that this realm warrants a more profound scrutiny to holistically address the manifold nuances of political discourse translation.

Furthermore, beyond the paradigms previously elucidated, Long and Li (2020) champion a pioneering approach with their "political equivalence + cognitive convergence" compound translation standard, which is underscored by a cognitive underpinning. In a vein similar to this, Yang and Wang (2020) employ a cognitive lens to deconstruct the cognitive representations inherent in the Chinese term "新型大国关系 (xīnxíng dàguó guānxì)" and its subsequent English translations. Liu and Wang (2021) draw upon Lakoff and Johnson's seminal conceptual metaphor theory in conjunction with Newmark's translation paradigms to critically evaluate metaphor translations embedded in President Xi Jinping's orations.

Central to these cognitive inquiries is the emphasis on the translator's pivotal role in facilitating unobstructed information dissemination. This is further accentuated by the incorporation of empirical psychological testing tools to authenticate the process (Chen, 2013). Nevertheless, one can't overlook the cognitive approach's potential shortcoming—its somewhat narrow focus on gauging the TA's response, especially in the context of the desired outcomes of political translation endeavours. Engaging with this dimension is instrumental for a holistic comprehension of the ramifications and efficacy of political discourse as it is translated and received by the TA. As such, comprehensive studies, inclusive of the TA's perceptions and reactions, would substantially augment the existing scholarship on political discourse translation, particularly when viewed through the cognitive lens.

Continuing from the previously discussed paradigms, Liu (2020) directs attention to the eco-translatology framework, shedding light on the intricate ecological underpinnings of contemporary Chinese political discourse. A detailed thematic scrutiny of both the Chinese and English iterations of Xi Jinping: The Governance of China (Volume III) (Xi, 2020) allows Liu to discern the translator's nuanced decisions geared towards striking a balance across communicative, cultural, and linguistic spheres. It is observed that eco-translatological research, especially those centred on English translations of government documents and speeches of President Xi (Chen, 2021; Chu, 2020; Li, 2019; Zhang, 2020; Zhu, 2018; Wen, 2017), is vocal in its endorsement of a comprehensive adaptive strategy. However, a note of caution resounds: if such adaptive selections are decoupled from the overarching intent of political discourse geared for international audiences, the resultant text might inadvertently lean towards being excessively TA-centric, potentially

compromising the balance of the translation (Qiu, 2018a; Yuan, 2014).

Progressing further, the constructivist translation perspective emerges as a tangible manifestation of constructivist principles within the realm of translation studies, anchored firmly in philosophical bedrock. Scholars embracing this particular orientation in the context of political discourse translation frequently mine insights from practical philosophy and communicative rationality. To illustrate, Hofferberth and Weber (2015) embark on a rigorous examination of constructivist norms. Their work illuminates normative oscillations in international politics that materialise in the course of translating constructivist assertions. Their interpretive approach discerningly captures normative transitions in political interfaces (p. 75), thereby unravelling the intricate weave of language, ideological tenets, and communicative dynamics.

Huang (2020) follows a parallel trajectory, probing the intricacies of political position translation while foregrounding the significance of constructivism within international relations. Complementing this research are studies that evaluate translated governmental communiqués and writings attributed to Chinese statesmen (Li & Zhu, 2019; Song, 2017; Wu, 2016), all of which collectively enrich our comprehension of the kinetic nature of political discourse translation. A point of contention, however, emerges from the observation that numerous studies tend to overemphasise the subjective construction of translation, largely from a macro-philosophical purview, inadvertently sidelining the pivotal objectives underscoring political discourse translation and the instrumental role of the translator (Li & Chen, 2017; Qiu, 2018a; Yuan, 2013). Such an oversight arguably attenuates the pragmatic viability of this approach. To bolster the efficacy and resonance of the constructivist framework within this context, there's a palpable need for scholarly endeavours that harmoniously integrate both translation objectives and the agency of the translator.

Over the years, there has been a marked upsurge in scholarly engagement with the theoretical and methodological facets of Western Rhetoric's persuasive paradigms in the context of political translation studies. Chen (2007) elegantly juxtaposes Kenneth Burke's identification theory with international communication translation, underscoring the imperative of fostering "identification". Zhang and Lu (2012) delve into the merits of leveraging rhetorical instruments for facilitating cross-cultural communication, while Yuan (2013) accentuates the pivotal role of heightening translators' rhetorical acumen and harnessing Western modes of persuasion. Furthermore, this line of inquiry has been expanded by some academics to cover a broader spectrum of political translation topics (Biber et al., 2007; Upton & Cohen, 2009; Zhang & Zhu, 2020).

For instance, Luo (2017) casts a critical eye on the strategic compilation of foreign news through the lens of rhetorical persuasion. Simultaneously, Ren (2018) interrogates the role of rhetorical elements in realising objectives within political translation. Venturing further, Yuan (2020) employs these principles while translating metaphors present in Fu Ying's orations. Collectively, these endeavours firmly underscore the burgeoning relevance of rhetorical persuasion as an analytical and applied tool within the sphere of political translation.

Such contributions emblematically capture the burgeoning interest permeating the academic corridors of China with regard to political discourse translation. Researchers, equipped with an array of approaches, are capitalising on technological advancements to facilitate meticulous analyses, elucidating prevalent translation trajectories and their attendant ideological ramifications. Studies centred on reception offer invaluable insights into audience hermeneutics, while the translation of cultural significations, particularly evident in the Chinese Premier's Report on the Work of the Government, is experiencing heightened attention. The incorporation of interdisciplinary methodologies serves to present a comprehensive tableau of the intricate dynamics governing political discourse translation within the Chinese milieu. However, in a parallel with its Western counterparts, Chinese research is not devoid of lacunae. The subsequent segment is geared towards delineating these areas of deficiency within both academic landscapes.

III. RESEARCH LACUNAE IN WESTERN AND CHINESE POLITICAL DISCOURSE TRANSLATION

While significant progress has been made in both Western and Chinese scholastic arenas concerning political discourse translation, there remain discernible gaps in research across both contexts.

In Western scholarship, despite substantial advancements, there exist foundational deficiencies in political discourse translation research. A disproportionate emphasis on Indo-European language pairs has limited a comprehensive exploration of translation challenges particular to Western societies. This focus necessitates a deeper investigation into challenges presented by non-Indo-European language pairs. Additionally, while a plethora of research considers translation from the perspective of the source language, limited attention is given to the consequences of translated political discourse on the TA and potential shifts in its rhetorical efficacy.

In the Chinese context, a review of predominant studies reveals an inclination towards detailed translation methodologies. This approach, however, often overlooks the broader strategic dimensions of the translation process, especially concerning translational strategies. Though numerous studies address translation techniques, a conspicuous gap remains in the examination of how political narratives are strategically reframed to align with audiences, given China's distinct cultural and ideological fabric. Current scholarly trends largely focus on linguistic, pragmatic, and translational examinations, with minimal engagement with Western principles of rhetorical persuasion.

The integration of rhetorical persuasion theories is on the ascent, but a more rigorous research approach is essential to understand their integration with China's diverse sociopolitical and cultural context. Despite discussions on TT reception and the ideological positioning of recipients—and the growing emphasis on reception analytics—a detailed

analysis is crucial to unravel complex reception and interpretative processes across diverse audience segments. Furthermore, academic investigations into cultural nuances in translated Chinese political rhetoric and the foundational reasons for their concurrent prevalence appear to be restricted.

The research gaps in political discourse translation, spanning Western and Chinese frameworks, are intricate and interconnected. Both models confront similar translational dilemmas: the Western inclination for Indo-European language pairings results in a narrowed view on inherent challenges with non-European languages—a challenge also observed in the Chinese paradigm. Both structures also reveal disparities in understanding and assessing the impact of translated political discourses on their respective audiences. Ethical considerations, especially cultural sensitivity and neutrality, remain central in both Western and Chinese translation contexts.

Identifying these research gaps in the realm of political discourse translation across Western and Chinese settings holds paramount importance. These gaps serve as an academic guidepost, directing scholars to areas that demand intensified examination, promoting a more holistic and integrated understanding of the multifaceted nature of political translation. Addressing these gaps has the potential to refine translation practices, elucidating the intricate relationship between cultural and ideological facets in communicative dynamics.

Furthermore, addressing these gaps encourages a nuanced and context-sensitive approach in political discourse translation, crucial for enhancing intercultural dialogues, promoting mutual understanding, and bolstering effective political communication across language and cultural boundaries. A dedicated endeavor to identify and bridge these shared deficiencies can lead to a more globally-aware and comprehensive understanding of political discourse translation, emphasizing intercultural competence and facilitating informed political discussions.

IV. CONCLUSION: SIGNIFICANCE AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Political discourse translation emerges as an instrumental mechanism for surmounting linguistic and cultural impediments, thereby enabling constructive dialogue and fortifying international cohesion and collaboration. This manuscript provides an exhaustive synthesis of extant research on political discourse translation, traversing both Western and Chinese milieus. Through an amalgamation of prevailing scholarship, this investigation probes into the multifaceted challenges, methodologies, and accomplishments experienced by translators navigating these discrete sociopolitical terrains, whilst simultaneously spotlighting salient lacunae in the contemporary academic corpus.

This exposition lays the groundwork for prospective scholarly endeavors to zero in on and redress pivotal voids within this academic sphere, thus propelling the evolution and refinement of political discourse translation scholarship. It aspires to galvanize global academicians and practitioners to pioneer nascent investigative avenues, charting novel frontiers in political discourse translation, and fortifying the edifice of best practices in cross-cultural dialogue. This treatise stands as a robust infrastructural platform, catering to intellectuals captivated by the confluence of politics, linguistics, and translational studies.

While the present discourse predominantly orbits around Western and Chinese paradigms, it is crucial to underscore the potential significance of alternative sociopolitical contexts within the ambit of political discourse translation scholarship. Ensuing scholars might consider broadening their analytical purview to encapsulate diverse landscapes, contingent upon the ambit and objectives of their scholarly explorations. Such an expansion stands poised to augment our holistic understanding of political discourse translation, fostering a more integrative and encompassing purview.

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The Civil War Female Refugee and Assimilation: An Acculturative Study of Layla AlAmmar's *Silence Is a Sense*

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Abstract—Female refugees go through numerous stages and transformations during the asylum-seeking process, all of which leave their imprint on their individuality over time. This forced journey, the fleeing of a war-torn country, the search for shelter and safety in the host country, as well as a plethora of other factors, all have a bearing on the refugee's assimilation or lack thereof. This article aims to demonstrate the journey of assimilation that the protagonist in Layla AlAmmar's novel *Silence is a Sense* (2021) underwent. It takes John Berry's models of acculturation as its approach in order to investigate whether or not the refugee character Rana assimilated into the host society. Therefore, it critically scrutinizes the text to determine how Rana represents millions of female refugees, what it means to be a refugee in a host country, the extent to which a female refugee can integrate into the other country's culture, and whether the process of fully acculturating is underway.

Index Terms—female refugees, war, assimilation, acculturation, Berry

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely acknowledged that the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries experienced a surge in refugeeism. In fact, the scope of the worldwide refugee crisis has increased significantly during the previous ten years. In light of this, the ongoing issue of asylum seeking and refugeeism in the Eastern part of the world indicates a paramount need to be addressed in literature. In order to add insight and depth to this new sort of literature, the refugee literature, current Anglophone writers felt an indulgence to this new subject. These authors have a variety of perspectives on this phenomenon because some had firsthand experience with it while others have just visualized it. The refugee problem was brought up by authors through writings that showed how refugees in general, and specifically female refugees, who form the core of this essay, are forced to escape their torn-homeland in search of a safe haven to settle in. Reality, though, is harsher; the place which is called home is a shark, and the refuge is a maze.

Recently, there has been an increase in diasporic narratives written by contemporary Anglophone authors, most of which are about refugees in general and female refugees in particular. There are numerous works in the area, including the novels *What Strange Paradise* by El Akkad (2021), *Sea Prayer* (2018) by Hosseini, and *Escape From Aleppo* (2018) by Senzai. In terms of the current study, Layla AlAmmar's *Silence is a Sense* (2021) is a pertinent piece to portray female refugees. Rana, the main character in this story, is an effective descriptive character that serves as a symbol for other female refugees and narrates many events in a refugee's life in exile through her voicelessness and status as a voyeur.

The current essay encompasses the idea of assimilation /separation of the female refugee in AlAmmar's *Silence is a Sense*, a contemporary Anglophone novel. Therefore, it is necessary to elucidate the notion of assimilation. Basically, Assimilation is one aspect of acculturation. It involves the complete adoption of the ways of life of the new cultural group, resulting in the assimilated group losing nearly all of its original or native culture. Relatedly, Acculturation is the process whereby an individual from one cultural group learns and adopts elements of another cultural group, integrating them into his or her original culture. Although it can refer to any process of cultural integration, it is typically used to describe the ways in which an immigrant or non-majority individual or group adopts cultural elements from the majority or mainstream culture, as the incentive is typically greater for acculturation to occur in this direction (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2014, p. 24).

In *The Cambridge Handbook of Acculturation Psychology*, Sam and Berry (2006) said that the blending of cultures and the subsequent changes have come to be recognized as acculturation. They offer a number of explanations for this rise in interest in the study of acculturation, but they all come down to two main points: first, the rise in global migration caused by calamities like war, conflict, poverty, and famine as well as to improved means of traveling over larger distances. Second, the growing significance of understanding the relationship between culture and human behavior developed by those in the field of cross-cultural psychology (p. 1).

Acculturation, in its widest sense, refers to all the changes that occur as a result of "contact" between people and groups from various cultural origins. It refers to the transformations that come about as a result of ongoing, direct interaction between two or more diverse cultural groups and/or specific members of those groups. Berry states that the concept has been broadened at the individual level to include psychological acculturation, which includes changes in daily behavior patterns as well as psychological changes brought on by cross-cultural encounters (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 14). Acculturation is a protracted, fluid process that can have long-lasting effects on both the dominant society's components and the people of the minority culture involved in the contact. Therefore, "acculturation" essentially identifies "interaction between two cultural groups" as a necessary condition for transformation. However, with psychological acculturation, where changes may also affect a person's values, attitudes, and identity, it can be challenging to determine whether a change is the result of acculturation or not. Every human goes through ontogenetic development, which may involve changes to who they are or how they behave (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 16).

Berry, on the one hand, noted that assimilation is sometimes employed mistakenly or synonymously with acculturation (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 11). On the other hand, acculturation and assimilation have also been employed as subsets of one another rather than as synonyms of one another. In particular, assimilation has alternately been viewed as one form/phase of acculturation and at other times the situation has been reversed (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 12).

In their article "Rethinking the concept of acculturation: implications for theory and research", Schwartz et al. (2010) emphasize the idea that within Berry's model, these two independent dimensions of acquiring the host culture and maintaining the native culture intersect to create four distinct acculturation categories: assimilation (adopts the receiving culture and discards the native culture), separation (rejects the receiving culture and retains the native culture), integration (adopts the host culture and retains the heritage culture), and marginalization (rejects both the heritage and receiving cultures) (p. 3).

Most studies on acculturation focus on people who have moved to a place other than their birthplace, including immigrants, refugees, asylum seekers, and sojourners. Although these three categories may be very distinct from one another, a majority of acculturation research focuses on immigrants, refugees, and asylum seekers who are considered to be continuously residing in their new country (Schwartz et al., 2010, pp. 1-2). So, in its fundamental horizon, this article will be dedicated to speaking on the process of acculturation for refugees, specifically the state of a female refugee in Layla AlAmmar's novel *Silence is a Sense*. It will look into how the acculturation process is associated with the character Rana and look into which category she fits into or went through. So, this study aims to respond to the following queries by examining the character Rana in Layla AlAmmar's *Silence is a Sense*: How does Rana speak for the numerous female refugees? What does being a refugee in a host nation entail? How well can a female refugee adapt into the culture of the host nation? How far along is the process of complete assimilation? This study, which is in line with Berry's models of acculturation, demonstrates that assimilation/separation, aspects of the former's models, are crucial motifs that, in the case of Rana, critically disclose the situation of a female refugee. In fact, by examining how AlAmmar created and positioned the character Rana in her story, it is possible to compare her to other female refugees, which shows the condition of the latter in the place of sanctuary.

II. THE FEMALE MUTE VOYEUR AND ASSIMILATION: ALAMMAR'S *SILENCE IS A SENSE*

Layla AlAmmar is a writer and academic from Kuwait. She has an MSc in Creative Writing from the University of Edinburgh. Her short stories have appeared in the Evening Standard, Quail Bell Magazine, the St Andrews University Prose Journal, and Aesthetica Magazine, where her story "The Lagoon" was a finalist for the 2014 Creative Writing Award. She was the 2018 British Council International Writer in Residence at the Small Wonder Short Story Festival. Her debut, *The Pact We Made*, was longlisted for the Authors' Club Best First Novel Award. Her second novel, *Silence is a Sense*, was released in 2021. She has written for The Guardian, Lit Hub, the Times Literary Supplement, and Arab Lit Quarterly. She is currently pursuing a PhD on the intersection of Arab women's fiction and literary trauma theory (Layla AlAmmar, 2022, para. 1).

Viewpoints and reviews on AlAmmar's *Silence is a Sense* have varied since its release in 2021. It expertly weaves a story of memory and sadness with an illuminating social critique of the place of asylum seekers in modern British culture, leading some to call it a furious novel. Others claim that it is effective for erasing the hideous abstractions of Syria's Civil War. In addition to the story serving as a microcosm of a more profound, tragic journey that many must undertake to survive, some see it as a harrowing, poetic picture of trauma and a powerful account of trauma and eventual recovery. Regarding studies on this account, only the thesis of Raafat (2021) titled "A Syrian Refugee's Trauma: A Journey of Involuntary Dislocation in Layla Al Ammar's *Silence is a Sense*" could be located. Raafat addresses the Syrian refugee crisis in relation to the Arab Spring. She attempts an understanding of the traumatic events and their effects on the Syrian refugees by using the pluralistic model of trauma in Layla AlAmmar's book *Silence is a Sense*. She applies Renos K. Papadopoulos's framework of involuntary dislocation to examine and describe the journey and experience of a traumatized Syrian refugee (p. 1201). Apart from this, *Silence is a Sense* has not been the subject of much research or writing. The novel's narrative and characters are only briefly discussed in reviews and introductions.

The aforementioned research demonstrates that current scholarship has not shed any light on the assimilation /separation of female refugees in this piece. The next section will show how the protagonist, Rana, undergoes the assimilation/separation process in the society of sanctuary. *Silence is a Sense* does, in fact, follow Rana on her required

journey, a 26-year-old Syrian mute female refugee. She lately reached the United Kingdom, during a mass refugee crisis fueled by the continuing Syrian civil war. After her homeland plunged into civil war, Rana and her relatives were obliged to flee and escape the country. Yet, she made her destination alone to Europe. She ultimately finds herself in a nameless and bleak, town in England, where she lives in seclusion.

Essentially, Berry identified four potential outcomes for the concurrent engagement and maintenance of the two cultures: assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization. These four outcomes are collectively referred to as "acculturation strategies" (Sam & Berry, 2006, pp. 18-19). In Rana's case, she cycled through these strategies unconsciously and randomly as she was perplexed and traumatized. Besides, The John Berry framework has drawn the most attention in psychological acculturation theory. He proposed that the degree to which a person concurrently engages in the cultural life of the new culture and upholds his or her original cultural identity determines how quickly acculturation takes place. For Rana, though, the situation is different because she was in an in-between zone, and she has restricted and enclosed herself to her small apartment as her entire world.

From her apartment, Rana watches with bewilderment, bordering on infatuation, the lives of her neighbors, to whom she calls strange names. She discovers that focusing on the lives of others rather than her own enables her to compartmentalize and downgrade reality (Hankir, 2021, para. 11-14). But painful memories visit her in unexpected situations as she declares "I am cornered by memories, caged in by recollections. I feel persecuted by the things I remember and by what my mind chooses to hide from me" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 22). The protagonist's memories of Syria constitute the strongest and most haunting passages in the book, especially her recollection of the early stages of the uprising against the Assad regime and the boundless hope of the protesters (Hankir, 2021, para. 15). Generally, as an asylum seeker, the mute protagonist stands in the first stage of joining the swelling diaspora; her memories are fresh and her feet are on shaky ground. She is voiceless (at least to the outside world) and has to build a new life while being possessed and controlled by the old. She is obliged to learn not only how to speak again, but how to speak a new language. Her journey is the one made by millions before her, but it is no less dangerous (Hankir, 2021, para. 18).

All different sorts of refugee stories, including those that stress the difficulties people faced when fleeing their homes and those that show the challenges they have endured elsewhere, have a place in literature. By gathering and sharing refugee experiences, literary pieces actually assist educate and inform the public about the situation surrounding the refugee issue. In general, literary works are seen as a mirror of the authors' earthly perspectives. As a result, intellectuals and writers today commonly problematize this aesthetic in their works. Indeed, literature is used to reflect on the plight of female refugees and to show the unfair conditions in which they were forced to live before, during, and after their arduous voyage.

Correspondingly, Layla AlAmmar in *silence is a sense* effectively places Rana, her main character, in this core spot. She successfully develops a heroine who is tormented by her past—in her home, her travels, and her new country—and who may, in some way, be representative of the plight of the many millions of female refugees worldwide. She has persevered through the rough road "Scurrying by rivers and forests and marshes, begging for food and hoarding any cash I can save or steal or manage somehow to earn. Across Turkey and those terrible Grecian waters. Vomiting until my insides feel like they're twisting up and out of my throat like vines. Clinging in furious waters to a raft that is more of a balloon. The stinking heat of Macedonia, bleeding blisters and insect bites, and Kosovo with nothing but a small hip sack and every document I have about who I am" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 69). In essence, Rana refuses to make the long journey to another nation that is comparable to her own; instead, she hopes to find sanctuary in a western nation, in this case, England. She has refused to travel to Egypt, another Arab nation, telling her father that Egypt is not more stable "What is happening here will happen there! Where's the law? Look at the news!" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 70). Correspondingly, the war took away Rana's simple pleasure of being around others and having a normal social life. She is actually severely traumatized by the memories of the Syrian war's blood and death as well as by the marginalization of displacement and sexual harassment, which also epitomizes the inner and outward states of many other female refugees.

Refugees, particularly female refugees, believe that their long journey has ended successfully and that a prosperous and stable life is ahead when they reach the end of their safe voyage. So, what does being a female refugee in a host nation entail? Actually, there aren't quite as many benefits as there are drawbacks to accepting refugees. Countries do worry that refugees may replace native workers and drive up the unemployment rate. They are perceived as a burden on the host nation as they put pressure on both public and private services, contribute to physical and economic overpopulation, exacerbate societal unrest, and raise the risk of civil war (Shellito, 2016, p. 3).

Relatedly, the character Matt and his mates in the novel *Silence is a Sense* stand-in for prejudice against The Other; "The notion of 'us' versus 'them' is hardwired into every religion" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 28). They denigrate the mosque's Imam, Abdulrahman, and portray their entire community as "ragheads" (p. 45) and "Everything about them is shit. Bloody Muslim fucks" (p. 176). They exhort the non-native population to abandon their nation. Since they saw Rana "at the mosque and the raghead's shop" (p. 156), they even attacked her and labeled her an "ISIS bitch" (p. 176). They disrupt a gathering being held at the mosque. Rana claims that "The notion of hatred comes from a place of ignorance ... It's not a lack of education, and Mr. Big Man over there doesn't care that it's a peaceful party or that the imam has no plans to convert him or anyone else. It's fear; fear of the unknown, the Other, fear that things are changing in ways he can't predict or control. Fear doesn't waver in the face of facts" (AlAmmar, 2021, pp. 47- 48). In addition to

all of these occurrences, racism against refugees continues, even leading to the murder of Hasan Siddiqui, the owner of the store Maqbool, by Mr. Big Man and his pals, who are presumably Matt and his comrades. That being so, in his article "The Refugee as Invasive Other", Ignatieff (2017) states that "refugees in flight from chaos, bombardment, and fear are described as an invading force. And, People fleeing ISIS terrorists in Iraq and Syria are viewed as terrorist threats" (p. 224).

Truly, Female refugees are relieved when they reached the United States or another Western country because they are no longer threatened by the specter of war and death. But the challenges they encounter don't end when they get there. They may experience stressors from the four main categories, of traumatic stress, acculturation stress, resettlement stress, and isolation, after being resettled in the host nation. And the stressor of acculturation lies at the heart of this paper. In relation to the protagonist of *Silence is a Sense*, it will be examined to what degree a female refugee may assimilate into the culture of the host country and whether the process of fully assimilating is underway.

Considering the aforementioned, Rana's motivations for fleeing her war-torn nation and seeking a new secure life are abundantly obvious at the story's outset. She rejected her father's suggestion that they leave Syria for Egypt because she believes that both nations are dangerous and that Egypt is not more stable and secure than Syria. She was given some cash, clothes, and jewelry by her mother, who agreed with her decision to leave for a western nation (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 122). As soon as she arrives in England, Rana begins to monologue to herself, asking, "Could I survive in England with my body at war with itself?"..."I would never go back, but I began to wonder if there was anywhere in the world that I belonged" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 17).

During her adamant reluctance to interact, which "wasn't going to get her anywhere" (AlAmmar, 2021, p. 174), Rana made an effort to adopt a new identity at the hospital in England. She claims that she never sought asylum as a refugee. She had never been to Syria "let alone grown up there"(AlAmmar, 2021, p. 174). Given this, it is clear how eager Rana is to establish a new identity and personality, to forget her past and lineage, and to be a clean slate devoid of trauma and memories of carnage. She desired an assimilated identity as Berry puts it; assimilation is one of four techniques that a person can employ during acculturation. He refers to assimilation as the situation in which either a person chooses to identify and interact with members of the host society rather than his or her own cultural background and identity, or a national society expects foreigners to fully adopt the culture of the larger national society (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 12). And this is what Rana first did; she tried to put her truth and her identity aside in order to engage with the host community. She desired to settle down in this country, contribute to its peace and stability, and adopt a new appearance, but she was unable to accomplish these wishes.

At one point, Rana admits that

When I first arrived, I couldn't assimilate...I couldn't reconcile myself to the notion that I was free to go anywhere. So I set invisible borders that I abided by for a good, long while. The park to the south I wouldn't go beyond – where the rolling green meadows stopped, so did I. To the north, it was York Crescent on one end and the record shop on Albert Street on the other. East and west boundaries had their own end points as well: a graveyard at one and a train station at the other. I caged myself into this three-square-kilometer area, learning it inside out, every alley and street, all the mews and yards, every shop and pub and church and cemetery, until nothing about it surprised me until I felt safe. (AlAmmar, 2021, pp. 32-33)

Accordingly, Rana secludes herself in her apartment, while creating buffer havens in the big neighborhood, which serve as her personal boundaries. She did, indeed, isolate herself from the outside world while remaining engaged by visioning and creeping into the neighboring realm.

Actually, Rana prefers to remain mute after arriving in England because she is unable of articulating her awful experiences. Through the windows, she likes monitoring and examining her neighbors' everyday life as a form of self-indulgence. Rana, the mute voyeur or the strange refugee looker, fixes her eyes on them and uncovers some of their stories and mysteries. This drags her into their personal lives and integrates her into the neighborhood culture. She knows, for instance, that one of her neighbors is responsible for the mosque's damage.

Rana also tries to blend into the new environment she has found herself in while concealing her identity by removing her headscarf, which is a definite relationship to her Arab and Muslim individuality. She intended to be transparent, seamless, and explicit, so she dressed the same as them. Despite this, Rana still makes an emblematic attachment to her home country by attending a ceremony at the mosque and shopping at a Muslim store that offers items from back home. This is what Berry suggested; "the acculturation process proceeds according to the degree to which the individual simultaneously participates in the cultural life of the new society and maintains his or her original cultural identity" (Sam & Berry, 2006, p.19).

A keen principle, in this story, is that Rana desired to forge her own identity and way of life free from all ties to any particular race, belief, or nation. She desired to be boundless, infinite, and unrecognizable to any group. She longed to be free to choose her new life, and writing pieces for The New Press Magazine under the alias the Voiceless gave her a platform to express herself. Through that, she gained the liberty to voice her opinions about whatever subject she pleased, encompassing the Syrian system and Conflict, War, smuggling of the refugees, abuse, and so on. Because if someone attempted to do the latter in her nation, he would face harsh judgment and punishment.

In a nutshell, "psychological acculturation" describes the changes a person goes through as a result of interacting with various cultures or taking part in the acculturation of their own cultural or ethnic group. Rana's condition is one in

which her transition from the Eastern to the Western hemispheres of the world, as well as her travels through several nations and interactions with numerous people, all have an effect on her muteness, traumatization, isolation, identity crisis, and dread of the locals in the host country. Berry claims that in addition to the need to distinguish between group-level and individual-level changes, the types of changes that take place at the two levels are frequently different. Changes at the group level could affect the group's political organization, economic foundation, or social structure. Individual-level changes may be occurring in terms of identity, values, attitudes, and behavior. Additionally, the rate at which changes occur within the person (i.e., their attitudes, conduct, etc.) may vary (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 14).

Overall, As per Berry, the four outcomes (assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization), which are commonly referred to as acculturation strategies, are not an end in themselves but rather strategies. Since acculturation is a continual process, an individual may adopt various strategies at distinct times, and to deal with different life issues. Once more, these different strategies should not be thought of as "additive", leading to where one can think of an individual as being fully "integrated." Alternatively, the strategies could be thought of as phases which an individual may pass through over and over, using several strategies at any given time (Sam & Berry, 2006, p. 19). Thereby, Rana has vacillated between fully assimilating, moderately assimilating, and not assimilating at all. Throughout the episodes on her protracted voyage and upon her arrival in the host nation, she passed by these strategies. Indeed, she wished to conceal her life's and her family's history by changing her name. Wearing the typical clothing worn by westerners allowed her to change her outward look. The headscarf, a representation of her religious beliefs, was removed. On the other side, she defines her own boundaries and confines herself to her apartment. She actually viewed it as her entire world, a place where she was protected from all danger. She regrets that she has been so exposed to people as a result of her interactions with numerous of her neighbors because she enjoys her position as a quiet voyeur. However, her decision to join the demonstrators' caravan, which was being led by Adam, his coworkers, outsiders, and college students in opposition to the world's atrocities, persecution, and condemnation, is significant. She hopes to raise awareness of the status of her nation and to give voice to the plight and suffering of the Syrian people. As a result, she has not entirely assimilated on the inside; but, in terms of her looks, she must conform to the western society.

III. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Rana assumed a different personality when she landed at the host land, concealing her true identity and name. She wanted to blend into this serene condition, but she was unable to do so. Afterward, she kept to her apartment, which served as her safe haven, cutting herself off from the outer world. Only she interacted with the community by skulking and spying on people. The gaze here is distinct from the usual conventional gaze; the eastern Syrian refugee is looking at western civilization and neighborhood, not vice versa. Additionally, she shed her hijab and her authentic appearance, which identified her faith and specified her ancestry and culture. She starts dressing the same as them (the westerners). She took all of these actions to hide her true self and ancestral history. Following that, she became involved with several of her neighbors, such as Adam and Chloe; she visited their homes, and they reciprocated, and she became involved in their lives from a close distance. But she later regretted it because it led to her becoming close to other people, which was never her intention. As a result of some of the aforementioned factors, Rana is certainly partially assimilated; nevertheless, by ultimately joining the demonstrators' caravan to speak about her nation's situation and cause, she has become integrated, or, as Berry puts it, has adopted the receiving culture while retaining the heritage culture. Overall, Rana experienced Berry's models of acculturation as she became agitated and non-chronologically changed over time, transforming her mind and personality. She was unsure of what to do in a free and secure environment. She was also perplexed about her own identity. Her exposing her true name and joining the strikes, on the other hand, implies that she regains her confidence, and she becomes Rana the integrated. Hence, Rana experiences both internal and exterior changes as a result of acculturation. The psychological acculturation she underwent and managed as a result of her required journey to find sanctuary is what caused her muteness, isolation, separation, quiet, longing for a blank identity, and mystery.

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Joe Biden's Confidence in Addressing World Security Issue: An Interpersonal Analysis of Political Discourse

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Abstract—This study aimed to discover President Joe Biden's confidence level and the realization of probability in his speech. A qualitative content analysis approach was conducted in this research. The data of this research were the speeches of Joe Biden on several occasions accessed from YouTube. Furthermore, the data were transcribed and then analyzed using probability theory. Therefore, the analysis result indicated that Joe Biden has high confidence. This result can be observed through his speech that he tends to use a high degree of probability in stating his plans, promises, and predictions of the policies he will implement. The probabilities used by Joe Biden also tend to vary in forms such as modal verbs, modal verb phrases, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns.

Index Terms—appraisal, probability, political discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

It is known that the beginning of Joe Biden's leadership began with many obstacles, such as the attack on the Capitol Hill building by the masses of supporters of Donald Trump and the COVID-19 pandemic, which still haunts the world community, including the United States of America. Then, on the 100th day as the President of the United States of America, Joe Biden delivered his speech in front of Congress, house representatives, and the American Senate. In such a precarious situation, he is still confident enough to show off his accomplishments, such as successfully combating the COVID-19 pandemic by providing US citizens with 100 million vaccine doses. He also stated that it would grow to 220 million doses in a hundred days. Even Joe Biden tries to reassure us that America will recover from the previous crisis, including the worst pandemic, economy, and attack on American democracy. Whether it will be accomplished in a hundred days or not or whether America will rise, what matters most should be focused on in this study is Joe Biden's confidence in expressing such a thing. This has made Joe Biden a public figure who draws the attention of many Americans and even the world community. Thus, every word, utterance, and speech of Joe Biden, either in conveying his ideas as president or in uniting his people for a specific purpose, will be the thing that the public is waiting for and paying attention to.

Language possesses an important role, especially in political speech. Since language is both a medium for conveying meaning to the audience and a source of meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014), it is no doubt that politicians should be able to organize their intention through language. Therefore, giving a speech like what Joe Biden has done is more than conveying words or language in such activities or special occasions. Moreover, in a political context, a leader or public figure should be careful to use language representing their identity in the middle of social diversity background. Considering the audience's ethnicity or social background is essential since these factors may arouse political conflict (Humaizi et al., 2019).

Speech is also an expression of thoughts or discourse prepared to be conveyed to the public (Stalnaker, 1999). That was why speech could not be separated from language in context because speech also has its context. It is a matter of the text as language functioning in context (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). So then, political context shapes the speaker's meaning in political speech. So, at that point, the language function in speech is presented

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as an interpersonal function. In Joe Biden's speech, he also considers his intended audience or for whom he delivers the speech. Therefore, language is used in Joe Biden's speech as an interpersonal function. It can be noticed that he also tries to assure his citizens that he will arouse America together with his utterance, which is one of the realizations of interpersonal function.

... I can report to the nation. America is on the move again. Turning peril into possibility, crisis into opportunity, setbacks to strength.... We all know life can knock us down. However, in America, we never, ever, ever stay down.... Americans always get up.... We have shown each other and the world that there is no quit in America. None.

Joe Biden's interpersonal function utterance above sought to influence audience behavior through his words. That was, as president and public figure, Joe Biden acted through language to gain the trust of his citizens. Regardless of whether the audience truly believed or was interested in Joe Biden's statement, it was essential to realize that in speech, language was no longer just conveying meaning but had entered the realm of influencing others' thoughts or actions. This refers more to the function of the language used by Joe Biden in his speech and how the discourse he used represented his thoughts to provoke American society. Therefore, the concept of probability, which was part of the modalization in the study of systemic functional linguistics, appeared as an appropriate approach to analyze such utterances.

Probability was using modality to indicate confidence in a statement or utterance. Halliday (Eggins, 2004) explained that probability was an expression of the speaker's judgment on the likelihood that something would happen. Joe Biden's statements also contain probability, which shows the level of his confidence in his statements as an effort to attract the trust of the community. For instance, his utterance "can" in "... I can report to the nation, America is on the move again" reflected the medium probability level.

Probability is one of the interesting subjects to be investigated, especially in the use of language uttered by public figures such as Joe Biden. Probability is a means of indicating or measuring how confident the speaker is in his speech. This is closely related to the concept that we live in discourse. That is, we can find out how confident Joe Biden is through Joe Biden's utterances. The speaker's level of strength of any information or statement can be observed through probability. Therefore, researchers investigated how confident Joe Biden is and how the probability is realized in his speech.

II. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study is limited in its use of probability in the selected speech of President Joe Biden. Researchers use probability theory based on Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), which explains three probability levels: low, medium, and high.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Systemic Functional Linguistic

Systemic functional linguistics is a linguistics approach developed by M. A. K. Halliday in the 1960s that deems a language as a social semiotics system rather than just a rule, as in Chomsky's theory. Linguistics is concerned with the study of language, and it is closely related to the concept of grammar since grammar is related to how language is organized (Butt, 2019). So then, departing from the notion that each grammar structure involves a choice from a set of explainable options, Halliday argues that grammar is a system rather than a rule (Li, 2019). Therefore, systemic functional linguistics (SFL) focuses not only on grammar but also on the study of language as a resource to create, explore and understand the meaning in discourse (Halliday, 1985, 1994; Martin & Rose, 2007; Matthiessen, 1995). SFL is a practical approach for elucidating and modeling language as a meaning-making resource and choice (Darani, 2014).

B. Text and Context

In SFL, the text takes the place of the linguistic units. Linguistic units generally refer to any units or pieces of linguistic forms, such as sound, morpheme, word, phrase, clause, and sentence. However, here, the interpretation of the text as a linguistics unit is further clarified. That text was not merely something like a piece. The text should also include semantic units instead of grammatical parts such as words, phrases, or sentences. It should be noted that text as a semantic unit is expressed or realized by sound, word, phrase, and sentence, which means that text is a meaning expressed by any linguistic form. Therefore, other things, such as gestures, symbols, or semiotic units, are also called text. The critical point is that it should be considered a text as long as it has meaning.

There are several types of English text based on Halliday and Matthiessen (2014): exploring text (spoken, monologic), which is more complex and written to be spoken on critical public occasions; recommending text (written, monologic), which is a written text that we could read aloud; and sharing text (spoken, dialogic), which is a spoken text that could be turned into the written text because it has been recorded, rather than the word or the sentence (Reiss, 1981). It could be a sound (verbal), word, clause, sentence, paragraph, or even a semiotic unit such as a symbol, as long as it has meaning.

In addition, Butt (2019) stated that text is a harmonious collection of meanings appropriate to its context. In other words, text and context are interrelated. Context refers to the environment of the text. Reiss (1981) argues that text is the translation unit, so context is significant to realize the proper meaning. Furthermore, Malinowski explains that extending the concept of context is very useful in reaching spoken words and in the form of facial expressions, gestures, and body activities (Senft, 2007). That is why Malinowski's claim that language or language use should be studied in this context.

There are three strata of context (Bakuro, 2017): the context of culture, the context of a situation, and co-text. The context of culture refers to a goal-oriented genre and purposeful social activities (Martin, 2009). The context of a situation is also called a register, and it has three elements: field, which refers to what is going on; tenor, which takes part in communication; and mode, which indicates how the communication takes place (Eggins, 2004a). Co-text is the linguistic context that is the environment inside the text. Rather than co-text, the cultural and situational context is outside the linguistic area.

C. *Interpersonal Meaning*

Meaning plays a vital role in the purpose of language as a communication or interaction tool. Therefore, SFL presents the three kinds of meaning that are generally called the three meta-functions of language: ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Language as an interpersonal function is related to meaning as a form of action. This deals with how people act towards each other through language, such as giving and asking for information, offering something, expressing doubts, and asking questions (Rose, 2008). The message's meaning depends on its purpose of function, whether primarily informative (referential), expressive, or operative (Reiss, 1981). As a result, the speech's interpersonal meaning is realized because it serves a purpose, whether to attract people or influence their thoughts.

D. *Modality*

Regarding the meta-functions of language, modality is essential in carrying out the interpersonal function. It is confirmed that modality exhibits the degree of the proposition (Yu & Wu, 2016). Modality also refers to the speaker's judgment, or request of the listener's judgment, on the status of what is being said. Modalization is one-half of the general grammar area of English grammar, where people can interpret messages and express attitudes and various perceptions (Eggins, 2004b). It refers to how the speakers try to mute or expand their meaning (Martin & White, 2007).

Modality could be used through the mood element, finite element, or a separate mood adjunct (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Thompson (2013) stated that modality was divided into modalization and modulation based on its realization. Modalization was discerned by modal verbs that were used for prediction or likelihood of something. The proposition's validity was compromised if a modal verb was used to represent the modality. Furthermore, modulation was realized by the mood adjunct. It is the general term for all signs of speakers' opinions and attitudes (Ye, 2010).

E. *Probability*

When interacting with or conveying ideas, there are times when the speaker needs clarification about the certainty of the message or meaning he meant. Thus, to represent this doubt, the concept of probability as one part of modality is presented (Martin, 1995). Probability is part of modalization observed in the phenomenon where the speaker expresses judgment as the likelihood or probability of something happening or will happen., such an utterance contains a prediction or judgment, either spoken or written (Halliday et al., 2004).

Afterward, probability also is the epistemic modality in philosophical semantics (Dalamu, 2019). It indicates the speaker's doubt or uncertainty in conveying a message or meaning. This is because probability has a level or degree that explains the speaker's speech position between 'yes and no'. However, what is a 'yes'? What is a 'no'? Besides, what lies between 'yes and no'? and how the speaker represents his position on an utterance with this concept? This can be answered by looking at the probability level formulated by Halliday (1985).

TABLE 1
THE DEGREE OF PROBABILITY (HALLIDAY, 1985)

Realization	Degree of Probability		
	High	Medium	Low
	Must be, should be, must, possible, certainly	Probably, Possible	Maybe, possibly, may

Through the degree of probability, the speaker can choose any words or meaning to realize the substantial certainty of their message. Otherwise, by noticing the probability of the speaker, we can conclude how much certainty the word has by looking at how close the probability is to the word "yes" and how close it is to the word "no." So, after all, we could see how the speaker's confidence is by measuring how high the "yes" and how low the "no" of the utterances is.

F. *Speech*

A speaker can deliver a message in many ways —written, spoken, or show gestures. Speech emerged as one of these ways in which the speaker expresses his message verbally (McLeod & McCormack, 2015). Speech is often associated with the term "public speaking" because it also involves speaking in public to inform, persuade, and entertain the

audience (Amalia et al., 2018). A similar opinion also explains that there are three types of speech (O’Hair et al., 2007): informative speech, which constitutes neutral speech because the speaker does not involve his opinion because he conveys information and allows the audience to speculate on the information; persuasive speech, in which the speaker tries to influence the audience's thinking on something, invites them to take action, or lures them to believe the speaker's thought or something; memorable occasion speech, which is usually used at certain events such as official state speeches, holiday celebrations, and ceremonies; and inspirational speech where the speaker relies more on emotions and connects with the audience to raise awareness of something like how the situation has changed or why their current emotions, fears, or goals may be inadequate or counterproductive.

Even though the three speeches look different, it is possible that all three types can be used simultaneously. For example, in a political speech, in addition to inviting the audience to elect the speaker, factual information can be inserted where the audience is free to speculate (Amin et al., 2022). It is the matter of the meaning. The meaning the politician realizes in his speech is crucial since it enacts the social function. Thus, the idea that the politician lied in his speech can make speculation for the audience.

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

This research used the descriptive qualitative content analysis method, where the researcher was the research instrument. The qualitative method generated a clear and rich detailed record of human experience because this method was done by observing intense contact with participants under unexpected circumstances (Miles et al., 2014). Therefore, here the researcher conducted content analysis to analyze the probability in the several speeches of President Joe Biden.

TABLE 2
THE SOURCE OF THE DATA

No	Title	Code
1	Remarks by President Biden on the End of the War in Afghanistan	S1
2	Biden’s Speech to Congress	S2
3	Remarks by Vice President Joe Biden to The Ukrainian Rada	S3
4	The President's Remarks as Prepared by The White House And Delivered From The Treaty Room	S4
5	President Biden’s Address to the Nation	S5
6	Joe Biden's inauguration speech	S6
7	Joe Biden’s victory speech Saturday night in Wilmington.	S7

There are seven speeches taken as the data of this research. The data was taken from YouTube and then transcribed into text transcription. After that, the researcher analyzed each clause using probability theory (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Then, the researcher labeled the utterances classified as probability. The labeled data are distributed in a table for making the probability categorization. In the final step, the researcher summarized the data and concluded.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Probability Category

After analyzing the speech of Joe Biden, the researcher found that 118 utterances contained a probability of being delivered by Joe Biden. 6 categories of linguistic form express the probability as in the table below:

TABLE 3
PROBABILITY CATEGORY IN JOE BIDEN SPEECH

No	Probability Category	Occurrences	Percentage
1	Modal Verb (MV)	97	82%
2	Adverb (Adv)	5	4%
3	Adjective (Adj)	4	3%
4	Noun (N)	4	3%
6	Modal Predicator (MP)	8	7%
	Total	118	100%

Those linguistic forms were categorized as probability since they expressed Joe Biden’s judgment or prediction about his statement. Then, based on the finding in Table 3, 6 types of linguistic forms are used to express probability in Joe Biden's speech. The negative form of probability is already present in these probability data. Those modals express the probability of the idea or statement being delivered by Joe Biden. From the 118 occurrences, the most common probability used by Joe Biden in showing the probability is the MV, which consists of 97 occurrences, 82% of the whole, followed by the MP, which has eight occurrences, or 7% of the total probabilities. While the probability categories he used are Adj, N, and Adv, which account for less than 5% of total occurrences. Here we provide an example taken from Joe Biden’s speech:

(a). Probability by Using MV

MV is the most lucid probability example found in Joe Biden's speech. For instance,
*"We **will** hunt you down to the ends of the Earth, and you **will** pay the ultimate price"*.

(Source: Speech 1)

Joe Biden conveyed the above utterance in his speech about the end of the Afghanistan war on August 31, 2021. There we noticed the bold words which indicate MV. In his utterance, two occurrences of MV are classified as a probability. The first MV in the clause, "We **will** hunt you" represents Joe Biden's intention toward someone or perhaps everyone who threatens the United States. Through the word "will," we can know that Joe Biden intends to "hunt" anyone if they threaten the United States. Joe Biden's intention certainly has not happened because the "will" MV indicates a plan he might make. That is a probability where Joe Biden convinces his audience by showing his intention to "hunt down" anyone who threatens his country.

(b). *Probability by Using Adverb*

Joe Biden uses very few probabilities in the form of Adv. Although the number is small, the Adv can also be a type of probability concrete enough to represent the speaker's confidence level. Example,

*"As commander-in-chief, I **firmly** believe the best path to guard our safety and security lies in the tough, unforgiving, targeted, precise strategy that goes after terror where it is today, not where it was two decades ago."*

(Source: Speech 1)

No doubt, Joe Biden believed in the best path to guard the United States' safety. He firmly said "firmly believe" and not "may believe" or "will believe," which seem dubious or elucidate an unstable sense of trust. This matter may seem trivial, like it is just a word choice problem, but precisely, this choice represents the speaker's level of confidence and an effort to convince the audience. Through the Adv "firmly," Joe Biden deliberately displayed his conviction that his idea "tough, unforgiving, targeted, precise strategy" could keep the United States safe.

(c). *Probability by Using Adjective*

Just like Adv, the probability of using Adj is also relatively small. This type of probability is characterized by using an adjective that makes the Joe Biden clause protrude into the space where something is likely to happen. The following is an example of a clause taken from Joe Biden's speech regarding the economic crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic in the United States,

*"It's time for boldness for there is so much to do. And this is **certain**, I promise you"*.

(Source: Speech 6)

Joe Biden conveyed the above clause after mentioning the many challenges in the United States. As president, he tries to attract people to face these challenges. It is manifested in the first clause, "It's time for boldness...". Then he again reassured his people that they (including him as the president) would carry out the courage. Joe Biden realizes that belief using probability Adj in the following clause "And this is **certain**...". The word "certain" is what makes the position of the possibility of the "boldness" act that Joe Biden refers to at the "certain" point, not "impossible" or "possible."

(d). *Probability by Using Noun*

The probability category N also tends to be below. However, this type of probability is more complicated and requires precision in analyzing it. In contrast to MV, which tends to be easier to recognize. Here is an example of the probability N found in Joe Biden's speech,

*"I've always believed we can define America in one word: **Possibilities**. That in America, everyone should be given the opportunity to go as far as their dreams and God-given ability will take them"*.

(Source: Speech 7)

The word in bold in the above statement, "possibilities," is a noun that indicates probability. Joe Biden uses this probability N to guess a possibility in his following clause, "... in America, everyone should be allowed to go as far as their dreams...". With his probability N, Joe Biden thought "there is a possibility" that everyone in America should have the opportunity to pursue their dreams. It means that here Joe Biden is neither so sure nor fully guaranteed that it exists.

(e). *Probability by Using MP*

MP is semi-modal but with an auxiliary verb and a preposition. Only 7% of MP probabilities are found in Joe Biden's speech. Even so, MP is the second most frequent type of probability found.

*I think you **should be able to** become a billionaire or a millionaire.*

(Source: Speech 2)

In the Joe Biden clause above, we can see the probability, consisting of a combination of modal "should" with an auxiliary followed by verbs and prepositions. With that probability, Joe Biden expressed his belief that they (the audience) could become billionaires or millionaires. However, Joe Biden's beliefs about what his audience will be like or what his audience will be are not fixed and are still classified as unrealized predictions. That is why the clause is classified as a clause containing probability.

B. *Probability Level*

People who seem doubtful about a possibility present a different probability than more confident people. The distinction is in terms of levels (Halliday, 1985) described: low, medium, and high probability. Therefore, the researcher has classified Joe Biden's utterances according to their probability level in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4
THE PROBABILITY LEVEL IN JOE BIDEN'S SPEECH

No	Probability	Occurrences	Percentage
1	L	23	19%
2	M	47	40%
3	H	48	41%
Total		118	100%

Note: L = Low
M = Medium
H = High

There are three levels of probability found in Joe Biden's speech. As is seen in Table 4, high-level dominated the use of probability in Joe Biden's speech by 48 occurrences or 41% of the total occurrences. Then the second dominant probability level used by Joe Biden is the medium probability level, which is 40% of the circumstances, not much different from the high level. Furthermore, the high-level probability is the least common and only happens about 19% of the time. Here are some examples and explanations of each probability level found in Joe Biden's speech.

(a). *Low Probability*

The low probability level is the weakest in measuring how strongly the speaker believes in the possibility of something through his speech. Here is an example of the low probability level that Joe Biden represents through the MV.

*And I **might** add parenthetically. I don't think the Russian people fully understand what Putin is doing.*

(Source: Speech 3)

Joe Biden uttered that clause in his remark on the Ukraine and Russia conflict. By adding 'might,' he thinks the Russian people did not do what Putin is doing. The lexical choice "might" seemingly shows a politeness background. However, as the President of America, it shows that Joe Biden is unwilling to make a complex statement about his idea on Putin's actions. If, in this case, Joe Biden is confident, he does not have to say 'might' instead of just saying 'I think...'. However, his additional lexical item 'might' already downgrades his confidence in his idea that Russia did not know what Putin was doing. Thus, at this point, his clause represents a low probability.

(b). *Medium Probability*

Nevertheless, less predictable options with a medium likelihood are prevalent in a particular situation. These decisions could indicate variations in the cultural or language norms governing communication in a particular community.

*And for those who remain, we **will** make arrangements to get them out.*

(Source: Speech 1)

The sample above shows that Joe Biden used median probability in delivering his plan to airlift the American soldier during the troop withdrawal in Afghanistan. The idea is that there should be another lexical choice that may symbolize his confidence at a higher level, such as replacing the word 'will' with "definitely." The existence of lexical items which may express a higher level of his choice proves that "will" here indicates Joe Biden into the median probability level.

(c). *High Probability*

Choices with a high probability are anticipated based on a solid linguistic or cultural norm. These decisions are predictable and frequently regarded as "right" or "normal" in a particular society. For instance, high probability options in English might appropriately use subject-verb agreement or choose the correct verb tense for the situation. The example below shows Joe Biden's choice to express his belief in America's best future by uniting his citizen.

*If we do that, I **guarantee** we **will** not fail.*

(Source: Speech 6)

When giving a speech, utterances to predict something that has yet to happen seem easy to publish. However, there is no guarantee that the prediction will happen. In that space full of possibilities and distorted warranties, probability nests and performs its function to indicate how strongly Joe Biden believes in his prediction by saying 'guarantee.' Logically, nobody knows what will happen in the future, but here Joe is standing to guarantee his prediction and as a leader. He is showing his people that he is confident, which is a part of the interpersonal function of persuading the listener.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on data analysis from President Joe Biden's seven speeches, six linguistic forms indicate probability: MV, Adv, Adj, N, and MP. MV is the most often used by Joe Biden to express his belief in his plans or hopes. Indeed, the difference between medium and low probability levels is not too unequal. However, based on the results of data

analysis, it can also be concluded that Joe Biden has high self-confidence. This is evidenced that a high probability level dominates most occurrences of Joe Biden's speech. The distinction between high, medium, and low probability choices in SFL highlights the fact that linguistic choices are not fixed or absolute but are influenced by a range of contextual factors, including linguistic, cultural, and social norms, as well as individual variation and choice such as what Joe Biden used in his speech. However, the critical thing that should be noted from this research is that Joe Biden is confident from the perspective of SFL. Apart from another context, the reality of his action that may be unrelated to linguistic scope may differ. Still, this research took a side from a linguistic perspective, especially probability theory in SFL. Since language is an interpersonal function that persuades or gains listener trust, the probability is significant in shaping public opinion of the leader. Thus, what Joe Biden delivered in his speech shaped his confidence as president in front of his people.

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An In-Depth Analysis of Saudi EFL Students' Written Paragraphs at Al-Baha University

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Abstract—This study aimed to give an in-depth analysis of students' written paragraphs. Therefore, the study primarily described the nature of the grammatical and mechanical problems that the undergraduate students committed at the paragraph level. Paragraphs written by EFL undergraduate students were analyzed comprehensively. The study adopted a qualitative method approach in which 80 students were asked to write a paragraph. The study found that undergraduate students had many grammatical problems as well as mechanical ones in a paragraph. The major grammatical problems included the use of tenses, pronouns, conjunctions, the use of prepositions, and the use of verbs, whereas the mechanical ones included the use of capitalization, the use of punctuation marks, cursive writing, spelling mistakes, and initiating a paragraph. These problems affected the paragraph's readability as well as its comprehension. Therefore, it is suggested to give ample time for the students to practice writing prior to university entry. Also, literature should be included in secondary school to provide learners with the necessary words and improve their expressive skills.

Index Terms—grammatical problems, mechanical difficulties, EFL students, paragraph composition

I. INTRODUCTION

In this age of proliferation of knowledge and advancement of technology, different means of social media are used by students to communicate their messages. One of the benefits of these is gaining knowledge and skills about how to express their opinions and how to perform in the academic arena. Therefore, academic writing is considered to be a main source of students' success in colleges and universities and on which the students' final product can be assessed and examined.

It feels difficult and burdensome to write when the environment is English as a Foreign Language. This is due to the fact that many fields place an emphasis only on completing written projects and reports for classes. However, despite the many years of teaching expertise that have been accumulated, it has been observed that many college students continue to struggle with creating paragraphs that are cohesive and logically connected to one another (Alharbi, 2018; Al-Zabeiry, 2020). Writing paragraphs is only a fundamental component that students should already be familiar with from their time in the intermediate and secondary levels of education. Therefore, before enrolling in the university level courses, the students have had prior knowledge of what to write and how to create paragraphs. This is due to the fact that the capacity to grasp and communicate ideas is of the utmost significance in the environment of the university, which is used to evaluate the students' final work. As a result of this, it is necessary for the researcher to:

- 1- Explain and make a note of the grammatical and mechanical issues that impact paragraph composition, as well as
- 2- Provide suggestions about how these issues might be managed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing at the university is important for teaching and learning. This is because different academic purposes can be fulfilled by this method. For example, essays are written by learners for the purpose of demonstrating their mastery in specific disciplines, and teachers use the same to assess learners' essays, focusing on content and form. Similarly, awareness may be obtained when learners are asked to write essays that reflect their abilities to present their personal thoughts, ideas, and reasons (Dewle, 2009). By so doing, any weakness in academic writing can affect students' standards, and low grades will be expected.

Javid et al. (2013) have investigated the major areas of difficulty in academic writing done by Saudi EFL learners. Via a questionnaire, 194 Saudi male and female EFL learners studying at Taif University participated to report their viewpoints on the difficulties they face in writing. Their study has concluded that Saudi EFL learners' problems with academic writing include both major and minor ones. The major ones include weaknesses in the use of appropriate lexical items as well as organization of ideas and grammar, whereas the minor ones include the use of wrong prepositions, spellings, irregular verbs, articles, punctuation, suffixes, and prefixes.

Alharbi's (2018) study on the difficulties of Saudi postgraduate students' English academic writing in an English-speaking country, in which 275 students filled out a questionnaire and nine were interviewed, the quantitative analysis revealed that postgraduate students suffered from a lack of sufficient academic vocabulary; they did not avoid plagiarism or misuse of cohesive devices; they did not construct arguments logically; they lacked coherence; and there was no demonstration of critical thinking in their academic writing.

Similarly, in her research entitled 'Problems of English Paragraph Structure in the Writing of Female Students at Albaha University', Al-Zahrani collected written documents from 20 female English-major students, aiming to see the most common writing problems at the paragraph level. By using content analysis and frequency percentages, her study found that students had problems in the writing of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences, coupled with inappropriate use of transitions to connect the supporting sentences (Al-Zahrani, 2018).

Alkhathlan (2019) identified the type and frequency of metadiscourse markers used in fifty research articles written by Saudi EFL college students. The research found significant differences in the frequency of such markers. More interactive metadiscourse markers were used by the students than interactional ones. The research also showed the frequent use of transitions in the research articles, followed by hedges, whereas endophoric markers and attitude markers were the least frequently used markers.

On a similar note, Alzamil's (2020) study sought to investigate the writing errors made by Saudi foreign language English learners. The participants of this study were twenty-four male English-major Saudi university students (age ranges between 19 and 22). Their 48 written compositions were collected and analyzed manually. The researcher's analysis concluded that the students had writing errors: errors in the use of capitalization, errors in spelling, and the use of articles.

Additionally, in the study conducted in a New Zealand university by Ankawi (2020), in which 10 Saudi students' views and perceptions on their academic writing challenges were stated, the qualitative method came out to conclude that the attitude of Saudi students was not positive in learning and using the English language as a result of teaching English, which affected their preparation to study through the English language.

Since undergraduate English-major students possess the basic idea of finding sources for their research topics, reviewing literature to contextualize their study, and preparing notes and references for the study, Qayoom and Saleem's (2020) empirical study has shown that Saudi undergraduate English major students were found to be weak in academic writing, mainly, in the area of research essays.

Above that, Al-Zubeiry's (2020) paper investigated the problems of coherence in the English writings of Saudi male and female students at Albaha University. Through a descriptive analytical approach, a corpus of 30 students' scripts was analyzed using Bamberg's (1984) analytical coherence. His research findings revealed that students had writing coherence problems. These include the inability of students to write an idea-focused text, the impact of Arabic rhetorical traditions, their ignorance of the systematic organization of information in text, the inappropriate usage of conjunctions, the misuse of references and lexical items, and their low proficiency in English to construct correct sentences.

Progressing on writing challenges, Khasawneh's paper studied the types of writing tasks that were produced by Saudi EFL learners and explored the challenges in writing encountered by those students. A questionnaire was given to 261 students randomly chosen from three different colleges. The research found that essays for exams, synthesis papers, and reflection papers were the most frequent writing tasks done by the students. This is coupled with the most frequent challenges, such as paragraph organization, the use of proper connections and transitions, and the inability to keep the flow of writing that the students face (Khasawneh, 2021).

Alshammari's (2022) study also identified the reasons behind the poor performance of Saudi EFL learners in their English courses by including all major stakeholders. The researcher conducted interviews with educational consultants, six university teachers, six graduate students, and six high school teachers, and disseminated a questionnaire to 100 high school students. His analysis has shown a gap between the theories consultants used to set class objectives and their actual practice. The gap is said to be a deficit on the part of consultants or their evaluation of people in the field.

Based on the above, some studies focused on investigating students' essays as a whole (Alkhathlan, 2019; Alzamil, 2020; Ankawi, 2020; Qayoom & Saleem, 2020; Al-Zubeiry's, 2020; Al-Nafjan & Alhawsawi, 2022), while other studies focused on questionnaires and interviews to see the participants' views and perceptions on writing problems (Javid et al., 2013; Alharbi, 2018; Khasawneh, 2021 & Alshammari, 2022). Of these, only Al-Zahrani's (2018) study focused on investigating a limited number of major-English-language students' paragraphs. Since the paragraph is considered the cornerstone of essay writing. This gives the researcher an impetus to carry out an in-depth analysis of EFL students' paragraphs, aiming to analyze and describe the nature of these problems and suggest ways to control them.

III. METHOD

The paper used a qualitative method as the primary instrument to give an in-depth analysis of the students' paragraphs. By using such a method, the assessment of students' written performance can be better analyzed, and gaps can be seen.

Subjects:

Participants were 80 male Saudi undergraduates enrolled in an English language course at the College of Business Administration, Al-Baha University during the academic year 1443–1444. The 18–19-year-olds who applied full-time were freshmen.

Procedure:

Students were to write a paragraph about their lives. Therefore, during class time, students were instructed on how to

write it using some guided questions. Students were given enough time to complete their writing assignments before the due date. The researcher studied those sections to look for evidence of the issues mentioned.

Data Analysis:

Students' paragraphs were analyzed manually (See Alzamil, 2020) to identify and describe the nature of the different grammatical and mechanical problems that the EFL students committed. Accordingly, some paragraphs and extracts were selected as a sample to describe these problems. So, students' problems were explained using braces, and the same was used by the researcher to correct or explain what the students should do.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of student scripts reveals widespread errors in paragraph construction by undergraduate EFL students. There are two key challenges that stand out: the students' grammar errors and their mechanical difficulties.

A. Grammatical Problems

Problems with forming correct sentences:

According to an examination of student writing samples, EFL students lack the grammatical competence to produce coherent paragraphs (Mudawy & Mousa, 2017; Alharbi, 2018; Al-Zabeiry, 2020). As a result, it has been determined that the vast majority of students are not adequately versed in either parts of speech or the fundamental building blocks of sentences. Different issues were flagged since the main phrase (which is then reinforced by other related sentences) is the initial component of writing paragraphs (Al-Zahrani, 2018). Following this part, we will examine the following issues alongside the scripts of a few deserving students:

In the first place, several of the sentences were said to be cut off or left hanging (Alsalamy, 2022). In addition, it has been shown that the majority of students are unaware that a proper sentence must include both a subject and a predicate. The inability to correctly identify and write the sentence's topic is a common issue amongst certain students (Al-Zahrani, 2018). The phrase "...go to Al baha university...", extracted from Script No. 1, is a whole thought. Therefore, the statement is unfinished since it lacks a necessary component to make it a full English sentence.

The problem of double-subject constructions is another area of interest. This occurs often in their paragraphs. This is reflected in the second script:

My name is Ahmed. I am 20 years old. I {am study} in AL- Bha University. I have one brother and one sister. {My brother his name} same and {his 19 years old} and {my sister she} is name is Suhlime and she is 17 years old. I live with my grandmother in AL-Bha city. {My parents do teachers}. I am not married.

In the above extract, the constructions *My brother his name* and *my sister she* showed that the students did not understand the structure of the subject, which in turn has a negative impact on sentence structure. This can be described as the effect of mother tongue on the use of the target language during academic writing (Ankawi, 2020).

Other sentential issues include students' misuse of verbs. This one revealed the use of two main verbs. For example, in the second script, the construction, *I am study*, indicated lack of knowledge in the use of verbs. To explain this, the writer did not know that *am* and *study* are two main verbs. If such learner understands the nature of verbs, he would have chosen the construction *I am studying* or *I study*.

The most difficult verbal issues for many students were the use of *be*, *have*, and *do*. To be illustrated, in script NO. 2, the construction *my parents do teachers*, the verb *do* was wrongly used instead of the correct verb *are*. Similarly, some students ignored to include the required verb in order to write a complete sentence. To exemplify, the construction *my parents teacher my mother teacher* as extracted from script NO. 3 showed that the students did not know that an essential verb (*be*) should be used between the subject and the complement. So, the sentence is described as incomplete because a nucleus of the sentence is missing.

Other forms of sentential problems many undergraduate students had on their paragraphs contain the incorrect use of tenses. Accordingly, many students had problems with what tense to use, present or past. These problems have affected sentence understandability. Since the learners were instructed to use the present tense, some of them wrongly mix use of past and present tenses. The example, (...I went to Al Baha University... as extracted from script NO. 4) showed the use of past simple tense instead of the present form. This is described as lack of knowledge in the choice of tenses for expressing present and past events. This one, in turn, has its negative effect in their final product.

Apart from misuse of verbs and tenses, the use of the plural morpheme *-s*, also, remained an issue needs to be described. The following example stated that some students had problems in understanding and using the plural forms. In other ways, the use of singular and plural nouns appears to be cumbersome for most of them. Script NO. 5 below explains this:

Hi, My name is saad Hamza Ali I'm 18 years old I go to university Baha, I have {1 brothers} and {1 sisters} his {nems} is Ali and rameh. I live with my mom and my dad and where? Baha. my parents do not work. and I'm not married.

Based on the above, the number *1* is used with the plural forms *brothers* and *sisters* respectively. Not only this issue but also the use of subject(s) with verb(s) to construct a sentence is coming under the problems which many undergraduate EFL students confront, for instance, (...My parents do teachers... as extracted from script NO. 2).

Problems with conjunctions:

Paragraphs were also analysed for the use of conjunctions. In this concern, it is observed that some students repeated the same conjunction, underused them, or misused some of these. Students' paragraphs lacked cohesion because of the inappropriate use of conjunctions between sentences (Javid et al., 2013; Al-Zabeiry, 2020).

To begin with, in the analysis of the students' scripts, it was shown that some students missed to use the conjunction *and* in its suitable place to join two parallel words, for example, (as extracted from script NO. 6, *I study and university Al Baha*), the conjunction *and* is used to link a verb and a noun which is found to contradict the usual norm. This comes as a result of ignorance of both, use of conjunction and knowledge of parts of speech.

Moreover, many scripts lacked use of the required conjunctions between sentences. Script NO. 7 in the following illustrated the use of no conjunctions at all to link sentences together:

mi name is maged i am 18 yoris i go to Al baha university I have two brthers who are students in school I live with my family

Another example showed that some students resorted to repeat the same conjunction to join different sentences in a paragraph. Look at the example below:

My name is abdulrazzag saeed ali and i am 18 go and i study at university of baha and i live with my Family in baljurashi and i study business adminestration and i am not married (Script NO. 8).

The above paragraph explained that the conjunction *and* is repeated so as to join a group of sentences together even though no periods between sentences can be seen. This way of writing reflects the way of speaking rather than in writing (Ankawi, 2020). To reiterate, many students had conjunction problems (Khasawneh, 2021). Problems of conjunctions include misuse of conjunctions, overuse of them, underuse of some of them, and the use of no conjunctions at all.

The problem to distinguish between a subject pronoun and the possessive adjective was also described. For example, some students were found not able to differentiate between *he's* and *his* (See the second script above). In the construction, *His 19 years old*, the student was unaware that a correct sentence needs a subject *he* and a copular verb *is*. The wrong choice of the possessive adjective *his* instead of the correct pronoun *he* rendered the sentence to be ungrammatical.

Problems with prepositions:

Problems of sentence structure, in addition, include the use of prepositions. Analysis of paragraphs revealed that students had problems with the use of prepositions as these are suitable to understand a sentence. For instance, look at script NO. 9 below, the required prepositions to be included are enclosed between braces.

Hi my name tarig alomari my old 19 yers my university AL Baha my brothers 3 and my sisters 6

I live with my frends and a stay {in} Al Bahah {with}my mom she a job a tetshar and father a job a tetsher and a bisnis man and I do not married

The use of no prepositions has its effect on sentence structure. This is because a prepositional phrase is an essential sentence part that adds to the meaning of a sentence. So, this issue was clearly seen in the example above (Javid et al., 2013).

In short, EFL students' paragraphs had many sentential problems. These include the use of tenses, verbs, use of prepositions, pronouns, plural forms, and the use of two subjects coupled with problems of subject- verb agreement. Sentential problems coupled with jumbled unorganized sentences affected the flow of information (Al-Zabeiry, 2020) as a result of mingling more than one sentence together. Such problems weaken students' paragraphs' quality.

B. Mechanical Difficulties

The mechanical problems, in turn, have to do with handwriting problems that affect sentence organization. Previous studies stated that students did not know how to write organized ideas (Javid et al., 2013; Al-Zabeiry, 2020). The following sections discuss these.

Handwriting difficulties:

Most of the subjects had problems with handwriting. Paragraphs' analysis revealed major challenging issues in the writings of EFL students (Khasawneh, 2021). Such issues include punctuation problems, spelling mistakes, cursive writing, and inability to start a paragraph.

Difficulties with punctuation marks:

Since punctuation marks are like sign posts to organize sentences and ideas in a paragraph, absence of them makes one's paragraph looks floppy and scattered. So, it makes it difficult to know where one sentence starts and where it ends as a group of sentences were written without periods. Therefore, many problems can be identified. Script NO.9 below showed misuse of periods, misuse or underuse of capitalization, and underuse of commas.

Hi {,} my name {T} tarig alomari {,} {M} my old 19 yers {,} {M}my university AL Baha {,} {M} my brothers 3 and my sisters 6 {,}

I live with my frends and a stay Al Bahah my mom {,} {S} she a job a tetshar and my father a job a tetsher and a bisnis man and I do not married {,}

Based on the above paragraph, some students had major problems concerning applying the required punctuation marks. Firstly, no periods are used at all to identify sentence boundaries coupled with problems in the use of capitalization. Most of the students' sentences did not show any element of capitalization from the beginning to the end of these sentences (Javid et al., 2013; Al-Zhrani, 2018; and Alzamil, 2020). Missing to use the required punctuation

mark affects comprehensibility of sentences because paragraph writing is, solely, based on forming correct sentences.

Similarly, students repeatedly use small cases for writing names of people, for example, *tarig* in the above paragraph. No use of punctuation marks causes a continuous stream of sentences which result in paragraph's incomprehensibility. This is what was clearly seen in scripts NO. 8 and NO. 9. In addition to that, the small case *i* was used in different situations to mean the first personal pronoun *I* which is not the usual norm for writing it. In the example below, the small case *i*, was used throughout the paragraph.

My name is abdulrazzag saeed ali and i am 18 go and i study at university of baha and i live with my Family in baljurashi and i study business adminestration and i am not married (Script NO. 8).

The above paragraph illustrated serious problems in the use of capitalization (See Alzamil, 2020). This is because many students did not know when and what to capitalize as most students confuse between *I* as a pronoun and the letter *i*. As a result of this, handwritten assignments have become a burden on teachers who exert a great deal of time to rephrase what the student needs to express or say. This is a real issue that needs to be taken into consideration in the academic arena.

Spelling mistakes:

Although spelling is an important aspect in the writing skill, many undergraduate students had problems with it (Javid et al., 2013; Alzamil, 2020). This factor is worth noting because the assignment given was easy as the words needed to be included in their paragraphs were simple. To exemplify, words, like *friend*, *teacher*, *mam*, *Bahah*, etc. just to mention some of these, were found wrongly spelled. Script NO. 9 portrays some of these problems:

*Hi my name tarig alomari my old 19 {yers} my university AL Baha my brothers 3 and my sisters 6
I live with my {friends} and a stay Al {Bahah} my {mam} she a job a {tetshar} and my father a job a {tetsher}
and a {bisnis} man and I do not married*

In spite of many years of English language instruction, EFL students' paragraphs contained several spelling mistakes (Mudawy & Mousa, 2017). Although the topic of the paragraph and the suggested words are simple, many students failed to give the correct spelling of these words (Javid et al., 2013; Alzamil, 2020). These problems happened as a result of students' weakness in reading English materials or to their weakness in English proficiency as general (Ankawi, 2020; Al-Zabeiry, 2020 respectively).

Cursive writing:

One of the major issues in EFL writing context is cursive writing. In this study, it is discovered that undergraduate students were unable to join letters of a single word together. This is coupled with big spaces between the letters of the same word. For example, *I go to albaha University* (as extracted from script NO. 1), showed big gaps between letters of a single word. This problem makes it difficult to read handwritten assignments. Such issue reflects shortage in giving them enough handwriting training which enables them perform better at this stage.

Not able to start a paragraph:

A paragraph should be started with a topic sentence. It is a complete statement that carries meaning and points to what follows. However, many undergraduate students were discovered unable to start their paragraphs. To explain this, some students began their sentences using cardinal numbers. For instance, 1- mshal Qazzan Al-ghamdi (as extracted from script No. 10), was used as an initial sentence to start a paragraph.

All in all, absence or ignorance of using and applying the mechanics of writing affected paragraph's quality. This is because in a writing class many students pay no attention to the basics of paragraph writing. Due to the different grammatical and mechanical problems, many paragraphs were found unreadable and incomprehensible.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In this study we analyze the grammatical and mechanical difficulties that male Saudi undergraduates have while composing paragraphs. The paragraph suffers from several issues with sentence form, including incorrect usage of tenses, verbs, subjects, plurals, prepositions, and possessive pronouns. Capitalization, punctuation, sentence structure, spelling errors, and cursive handwriting are other factors that detract from its overall quality. Therefore, it is suggested that students be given more time to develop writing skills, both at the intermediate and secondary levels, prior to university enrollment and that literature be included in the secondary school curriculum. Literature enriches classrooms by equipping pupils with better vocabulary and more facility in verbal expression. It's possible that they might help EFL students improve their overall writing.

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Tracing the Shadows of War in Sinan Antoon's *The Book of Collateral Damage*: Trauma and Memory

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Abstract—As a literary text, *The Book of Collateral Damage* (2019) by Arab American novelist Sinan Antoon effectively represents the psychological impact of the Iraq War in 2003. This article utilizes trauma theory to explore how the war narrative in Antoon's novel probes the event of this war to represent the experiences that Iraqi individuals had from living through it. By analyzing Antoon's embodiment for the trauma of the Iraqis and their memory crisis, the impasse of survival for the protagonist, Wadood, as well as the symptoms and features of his traumatic experience, the article argues that Antoon significantly represents in *The Book of Collateral Damage* how the Iraqis were traumatized by both the experience and memory of the Iraq War. Wadood's story accentuates that the novel focuses on representing history in connection with war impact through investigating how the lives of individuals in Iraq became caught in the shadows of the Iraq War that haunted them with bitter memory, which they faced a difficulty to cope with and foregrounded their traumatic experiences. These individuals ultimately realized that their lives were impacted not only by their individual trauma but also by the collective trauma in their homeland, intersecting with their trauma. Therefore, they were left with one option; either to collapse psychologically, or to handle the determining factors of their personal history and the history of their country.

Index Terms—Iraq War, trauma, memory, Sinan Antoon

Trauma is not simply an effect of destruction but also, fundamentally, an enigma of survival.

—Cathy Caruth, *Unclaimed Experience* (p. 58)

I. INTRODUCTION

In the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, a lot of wars took place. One country in the Middle East that had profuse combat is Iraq. The Iraq War in 2003 was one critical event in Iraq; it caused the death of thousands of Iraqis and hugely damaged their country. Hence, it is remembered as a dark period of Iraq's history inspiring many Iraqi writers to represent the wounds of their homeland and people. One is Sinan Antoon in his novel *The Book of Collateral Damage*. An Iraqi American poet and novelist, Antoon is among the most significant authors who depict Iraq's history, the wars, and the political turmoil it suffered from. Many authors from Iraq associate themselves with events in their country, though some have been in exile. The literature they produced is mainly featured by "an increasing tendency towards universal themes and vision" (Altoma, 1972, pp. 211-212). This can be said about Antoon's works that have a universal dimension through investigating the negative effects that human combat over power and wars inflict, as well as dealing with Iraq's reality. As in his other works, Antoon characterizes in this novel the aftereffects the Iraqis confronted due to the Iraq War. Originally written in Arabic with the title *Fihris*, it was translated into English as *The Book of Collateral Damage* in 2019. In his review of Antoon's novel, Manhel (2019) writes: "So many books have been written about the Iraq War (2003–2011) from both sides of that conflict, but Sinan Antoon's *The Book of Collateral Damage* is unique in that it chooses to represent the human and environmental cost of that war" (p. 81).

This article utilizes contemporary trauma theory to investigate Antoon's representation in this novel for the Iraq War impact on Iraqi individuals. It argues that in his novel under study Antoon represents how Iraqi individuals are traumatized by the experience as well as memory of the Iraq War. The author characterizes individual trauma as a central embodiment of war's impact, which undoubtedly echoes collective trauma inflicted by the war upon his nation. One focal question the article attempts to answer is: how does Antoon represent the war and its impact to embody the traumatic experiences of the individuals he portrays? In this respect, it seeks to identify the main features characterizing the traumatic experiences of these individuals as well as the symptoms of their trauma.

Several studies are done on Antoon's novel under consideration, of which some deal with his representation of war impact. In one article, Khalifa (2020) investigates the 'archive' metaphor in this novel of Antoon and Ahmad 'Abd al-Latif's novel *Hişn al-turāb* (2018), ascertaining its functions for the characters as well as the narratives in the texts. Khalifa contrasts the act of digging the archives and recording them by the marginalized in these two novels to official

powers and institutions telling history from their side and marginalizing the 'other'. The author emphasizes that "the acts of writing and digging the past are correlated. Writing the past and keeping its record is the subalterns' way of fighting death and forgetfulness" (p. 296). In another article titled "A Postcolonial Reading of Double Consciousness: Internal and External Displacement in Post-2003 Iraqi Novel," Al-Kriti and Janoory (2019) employ Du Bois's notion of 'double consciousness' to explore its relevance to the postcolonial context in some post-2003 Iraqi novels including *The Book of Collateral Damage*. Regarding Antoon's novel and the psychological effect of the war, they confirm that the novel has an "Iraqi aspect" by focusing on the duality things acquire in every minute upon the invasion. The novel is centered on a variety of hidden feelings, emotions, and ideas essential to the narrative. Therefore, "the double consciousness of things equals the duality of people" (p. 11). Bani-Mfrij and Al-Shetawi (2021) discuss Kevin Power's and Sinan Antoon's depiction in their novels for how the American Invasion of Iraq in 2003 exceeded in its damage to include not only the "human species" but also the "flora and fauna" in Iraq. Therefore, "Powers's *The Yellow Birds* and Antoon's *The Book of Collateral Damage* are ecological conscious literary works that ethics are extended beyond human beings and that moral standing is accorded to the world of animals and plants" (p. 508).

This article is situated within these studies that shed light on how Antoon represents the impact left on people by the Iraq War. However, the significance of the present study is not only in revealing how Antoon represents trauma in his novel as evidence of the effect the Iraq War created on the Iraqis but also in elucidating how he closely links the traumatic experiences of individuals to the bitterness of their memories for the war as a fundamental source of their inflicted trauma. It contributes to the existing literature on Antoon's novel by extending the analysis of pathological, individual trauma in the text to a new direction that spots its close nexus with the memory facet and collective trauma dimension, as envisioned by the author.

II. TRAUMA THEORY AND WAR

Among other issues, trauma is related in theory and literary texts to experiences of living in wars, being displaced from the homeland, and PTSD (Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder) that veterans going to the war experience. In her book *The Juridical Unconscious: Trials and Traumas in the Twentieth Century*, Felman (2002) suggests that the twentieth century was "a century of traumas and (concurrently) a century of theories of trauma" (p. 1). As far as Iraq is concerned, the trauma resulting from the 2003 War has been represented in journalism, documentaries, and literature, as in the novel under study. However, an intriguing feature of literature in this context is its efficiency in embodying traumatic experiences caused by war. Hunt (2010) states:

The use of literature (novels, poetry) can both support the psychological evidence we obtain regarding the impact of war, and in some circumstances help to develop our understanding. [...] Apart from a means of validating theory, it provides an opportunity to explore responses to war trauma in other times and cultures.... (p. 161)

Within this context, an essential matter this study attempts to unravel is how the war narrative in Antoon's text probes and represents the traumatic event of war and the experiences individuals have by living through it.

As a phenomenon, trauma has been viewed diversely by theorists, psychologists, and scholars. Generally speaking, the word trauma describes experiences emotionally painful and distressing that overwhelm people's ability to cope, leaving them powerless (Centre for Nonviolence, 2014). However, most trauma theorists rely on Sigmund Freud's paradigm of trauma and PTSD category. These theorists are mainly exemplified by Cathy Caruth in her influential book *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History*, who proposes that trauma is "a wound inflicted not upon the body but upon the mind" (1996, p. 3). Trauma is generally defined as something that "describes an overwhelming experience of sudden or catastrophic events in which the response to the event occurs in the often delayed, uncontrolled repetitive appearance of hallucinations and other intrusive phenomena" (Caruth, 1996, p. 11). In the same vein, Felman (2002) states that trauma is characterized as "a shock that creates a psychological split or rupture" (p. 171). Hence, in many trauma definitions by theorists we find agreement on a shattering event creating various painful, psychological responses in those suffering it.

Trauma experience has a set of symptoms characterizing those having it that can be classified under four headings: traumatic memory (nightmares, dreams, and flashbacks), repetitive actions and speech, PTSD and aspects related to it, and other emotional symptoms (including alienation and seclusion). A traumatic experience is one in which an individual's physical and psychological well-being are endangered. In terms of features, three significant elements are stressed by most trauma theorists and rooted in Freud's thinking about trauma: latency, belatedness, and incomprehensibility. As Stonebridge (2009) maintains, in *Moses and Monotheism* (1939) Freud outlines the complicated temporal features of trauma, comparing the "forgetting" of monotheism or "the murder of Moses" in Judaism to the latency of the man walking away from a train accident, without being harmed physically, but suffering from belated physical and motor symptoms (p. 195). Incomprehensibility of the traumatic experience for trauma subjects is another crucial feature. There is considerable emphasis on the mind's inability to comprehend certain historical and political facts when having a trauma. Contemporary theorists reiterate Freud's notion that it is almost impossible to realize trauma consciously but only live it by its aftereffects (Stonebridge, 2009, p. 199).

As an instrumental theorist inspiring a lot of work in trauma studies, Caruth (1995) argues that trauma results from an overwhelming event haunting the traumatized afterwards. She identifies three qualities of trauma: physical violence

intruding the psyche, the temporal gap between knowing and not-knowing, and repercussions upon the traumatic event. In respect to 'belatedness', "The event is not assimilated or experienced fully at the time, but only belatedly, in its repeated possession of the one who experiences it. To be traumatized is precisely to be possessed by an image or event" (pp. 4-5). Trauma is characterized by being an event or multiple events that "assume their force precisely in their temporal delay" (Caruth, 1995, p. 8). These qualities represent the main layout of trauma theory Caruth proposes. Based on this, it can be said that war impact continually haunts and overwhelms those living within war circumstances or surviving it, as will be manifested in the discussion.

III. TRAUMATIC EXPERIENCES AND MEMORY IN *THE BOOK OF COLLATERAL DAMAGE*

In his novel, Sinan Antoon represents how Iraq War creates trauma in individuals who experience it. The protagonists, Wadood and Nameer, are Iraqis whose memory and psyche are continually haunted by the shadows of this war. Most of the narrative is about reminiscence of the traumatic event of the Iraq War, precisely its beginning. With the story set during the aftermath of the war, the novel tells about prolific traumatic memories individuals suffer from, as the protagonists primarily do. For this reason, shedding light on traumatic memory provides a better understanding of the psychological trauma of such individuals.

Throughout the novel, Antoon characterizes the atrocities of the war in the death of thousands of Iraqis, on the one hand, and the destruction of a plethora of antiquities, places, plants, and animals ensuing, on the other hand. These events represent the main factor leading to traumatic experiences for the characters, which they witness in their homeland and the author impressively depicts. Antoon describes the traumatic condition of Baghdad city during Iraq War, essentially through Wadood and Nameer's perspectives. Wadood particularly provides numerous examples in the catalog he craves to accomplish vis-à-vis the history of the war in his homeland and the damage it wreaked. According to Bani Mffrij and Al-Shetawi (2021),

most importantly, what makes the novel so distinctive and unique are the coherence and uniformity of style and content in which the anthropomorphized animal and plant protagonists try to catalogue the effect of the invasion with its military activities on Iraqi flora and fauna. (p. 521)

Within this context, Antoon embodies multiple traumatic experiences individuals go through as a principal demonstration of war outcomes in Iraq. The protagonists' traumatic experiences are key epitomes of Iraqis' psychological suffering from the Iraq War Antoon personifies. However, to achieve depth, the focus will only be on Wadood's trauma.

The author presents most of the narrative through this individual's perspective, who works as a bookseller. Therefore, ample details are narrated in the eyes of a subaltern representing how the majority of Iraqis view the 2003 War in their country and recollect its memory. We are told that among the factors contributing to Wadood's psychological drawbacks is his emotional shock upon returning from military service to his family home, discovering its destruction by a missile. Thus, he spends several years in a mental hospital for treatment (p. 300). How Wadood thinks, feels, and behaves exposes his pain from this austere emotional shock inflicted by the war in his homeland, added to his torture in prison. These traumatic events embody the source of his psychological problems, leading to multiple negative sides in his life.

Wadood's psychological wreck and agony is extensively depicted by Antoon. Essentially, the multiple hard personal experiences Wadood had in the past as well as the reality of his country after the Iraq War took place leave a vast burden on him and contribute to his depression. Wadood tells Nameer that the doctor diagnoses his depressive condition as "intense bursts of crying", elaborating: "Sometimes the rain is accompanied or preceded by thunder, which I can hear inside me and which I let out too-in the form of screams" (p. 218). This foregrounds acute melancholia and inability to bear his trauma. As trauma theorists pinpoint, the shattering event is too immense for the traumatized to get along with, which quite applies to Wadood. Memories of the past have a torturing impact on war survivors, causing devastation to their lives. What it destroys in them is never to be built again, and they remain unable to adapt to the post-war period.

Therefore, it can be said that most of the narrative in *The Book of Collateral Damage* is about how individuals view what happened to their country during the war. The way Wadood speaks about the past indicates his great torment by his country's history. It foregrounds Antoon's portrayal for him to signify Iraqis' trauma from the memory of the Iraq War that damaged their homeland. In one of his musings scattered all over the narrative, Wadood says:

The moment has white walls and its ceiling is a screen on which we can see the lives and memory of the moment. [...] a device and a sign over it with the words: 'To go down and move to another history. Destruction is what will bring us all together.' The moment is a wound. (p. 121)

Wadood demonstrates his distress about the truth regarding his country's history; he keeps digging into its past, especially the history of the war beginning, or "the first moment", as he calls it. His words also echo how Caruth (1996) uses the wound image to show that trauma can just be understood with literary or symbolic language (p. 3). In this way, Wadood stands for Antoon and all Iraqis recollecting memories from their country's past and manifesting their collective trauma about its "wounded" history. Such history is integrally typified by "destruction" triggered by the war, as this quote implies.

Furthermore, part of Wadood's psychological shock is inflicted from the fact that he sensitively realizes the immense death of Iraqis that the war causes in 2003. As a depiction of his shock from this fact, he stays haunted by the images

and associations of death's tragic event in his mind and psyche. Therefore, in telling Nameer how he feels the dead address him (p. 108), Wadood demonstrates how Iraqi individuals are haunted by the traumatic experience and memory of the war in their country. Erikson (1995) writes: "Our memory repeats to us what we haven't yet come to terms with, what still haunts us" (p. 184). As well, Wadood's haunt by the dead reverberate the essence of Caruth's theory about trauma. Being a trauma victim, Wadood is "possessed by an image or event" (Caruth, 1995, p. 5), which is correlated to death and destruction in his homeland. This denotes his deep influence from the death of Iraqis in the war that killed thousands of them. In other words, Wadood is affected by the historical truth of the war; remembering Iraqis who died in it causes pain to him and its memory keeps haunting him.

More significantly, driven by his shock from the war, Wadood decides to document the destruction ensuing but is unnoticed by formal institutions for being tied to objects, not people, whereas in his view it is as pivotal as casualties. Indeed, the melancholic effect of the war in his homeland and its tormenting memory is integrally stressed in this catalog Wadood fanatically aspires to accomplish. Put differently, the catalogue enormously depicts Wadood's trauma through the memory of the Iraq War. "The Colloquy of the Catalog" is an instrumental episode that expounds this mission of Wadood and his feelings towards it. Wadood justifies his aim beyond it:

My task is exactly the opposite of the task of the midwife or the obstetrician who cuts the umbilical cord after the birth. I reattach the umbilical cords between things and their mothers. I restrung burned ousds. I put the tear back in the eye.... (p. 264)

This pinpoints this person's anguish for what the war did to his country and the incredible mission he seeks to recollect the parts of his country's reality before the war.

Within his reaction to his reality and his perception for the repercussions of the war, Wadood keeps contemplating the time element. In several positions in the narrative, he significantly relates this element to the situation in his country. As an illustration, he says: "Is it the same moment everywhere? Or is each moment tied to its place in this universe? If the latter possibility is correct, then there is more than one time" (p. 189). Through Wadood's words, Antoon philosophically views time. Caruth (1996) observes, "The impact of the traumatic event lies precisely in its belatedness, in its refusal to be simply located, in its insistent appearance outside the boundaries of any single place or time" (p. 9). Wadood asserts the link between a certain moment and the place. Nonetheless, the moment he focuses on here, and elsewhere in the novel, is undoubtedly the start of the Iraq War. So, he implies that this very minute has its features by linking to the place it is attributed to, which is Iraq, of course. This suggests Wadood's agony from perceiving that the war at that time changed everything in Iraq from its normal condition before the war into something else. By this, Antoon proposes that the war made Iraq's history utterly different from how it used to be, with the damage it triggered to the country and its people.

The obsession with time is a sort of distress for Wadood since we see that in each contemplation for it, the ultimate result is almost a proclamation of how deeply he is hurt, as all other Iraqis are, from what happened to their country in the past, or the time the Iraq War took place. In another musing, Wadood meditates: "Time doesn't move in one direction. [...] I began to see my life in reverse and I went back to my mother's womb. When I turned to go back, they aborted me" (p. 251). This attests to Wadood's strong preoccupation with the matter of time and every dimension tied to it. Yet, what overwhelm him about it are the past and its memories. He selects to go to the past, as he tells here and elsewhere: "I go back to the past and sleep on the path on which time marches, in order to make it stop and change direction" (p. 119). Therefore, memories are the core factor beyond Wadood's torment on the level of his personal life as well as what happened to his homeland from the war.

IV. WADOOD'S TRAUMA AS AN "ENIGMA OF SURVIVAL"

What is explained so far underscores Wadood's inability to make peace with his past, unlike some individuals portrayed in the novel. He has complexities preventing him from adapting to his reality and living normally. Nameer's girlfriend Maria is one of those who are able to cope with their traumatic memories. She tells Nameer about her satisfaction with a wound in her body from an accident when a child: "I like that scar. It's part of the history of my body and part of my memories" (p. 249). Through this, Antoon explores the relationship between memory and history. A problematic issue he probes is how individuals respond to their past and their country's past. Individuals as Wadood in the novel cannot cope with their traumatic memories resulting from their past; they almost collapse psychologically, as illustrated in this discussion.

Yet, in *The Book of Collateral Damage* Antoon promotes an outlook that memories ought not to be fully erased. It is a part of an individual's past, despite the need to accommodate to it adequately. Maria says to Nameer: "White people keep talking about 'peace' and the need for people to make peace with their past. I don't believe in that logic. There are things that can't be accepted and memories that must stay alive" (p. 250). The memories of individuals having traumatic experiences from the war, who are war survivors, represented mainly by Wadood, echo "acting out" and "working through" principles that La Capra (2001) proposes. A trauma survivor permanently withholds an element from the past, continually haunting the mind. This individual returns to the same trauma scene and becomes caught up performatively within it. According to Goldberg (1998), La Capra distinguishes two forms of remembering trauma and historical writings about it. The first is favorable for La Capra and leads to "working through". The other is based on denial and produces "acting out", where all experiences are traumatic and recur continuously and no one is remarkable (p. 1).

Whereas individuals including Maria and Nameer can “work through” their memories, placing them appropriately in their time and these characters’ past, Wadood fails to do so. He stays haunted by the traumatic memories he keeps “acting out”, and that in the long term hinder his ability to cope with his reality.

Therefore, Wadood has difficulty in adjusting to his reality and separating it from his painful past. With this, the constant memories that he mainly brings about in association to the war are an integral reason of his unhealed trauma. To illustrate, Wadood imagines himself going on a train once to the future and once to the past: “I don’t understand what’s happening. I look at the train windows and I can see my family and friends waving to me from the windows and gesturing at me to hurry up” (p. 97). This encapsulates Wadood’s distorted feelings and confusion. He supposedly attempts to skip his reality either to the future or to the past, struggling to change his terrible condition, which confirms his distress over losing his dear ones whom he no longer can have contact with. Trauma studies indicate the overlap between how the traumatized pathologically perceives the present and the past. La Capra (2001) maintains that trauma collapses the “distance between here and there, then and now” (p. 89). Wadood declares: “I’m still standing, clutching the iron bars and resting my forehead on them” (p. 238). Thus, most of his memories are traumatic and pathological, pinpointing the rupture and dissociation trauma causes in his life. He cannot realize that he is no longer in the mental hospital! His past painful experience there keeps intruding on his present thoughts.

Through this, we see how traumatic memories of the war embody a major facet outlining the psychological pain of traumatized individuals, who remain conflicted by them. Painful moments of Wadood’s life in the past, which are predominantly imposed by the war in his country, strongly imprint his imagination. They make him imbalanced and emotionally wounded until it becomes hard for him to carry on in his life. This succinctly illustrates how, as trauma theorists explain, trauma often becomes an “enigma of survival” (Caruth, 1996, p. 58). This hardship to survive the repercussions of trauma becomes at the heart of the troubling experience for trauma subjects. Caruth (1995) observes that “it is this literality and its insistent return which constitutes trauma and points towards its enigmatic core: the delay or incompleteness in knowing, or even in seeing, an overwhelming occurrence that then remains, in its insistent return, absolutely *true* to the event” (Caruth’s emphasis, 5). Wadood cannot settle himself with the past, which contributes to his breakdown afterwards. Trauma rigorously foregrounds the hardships survivors face in coping with the traumatic event disrupting many things in their lives.

Wadood’s story in *The Book of Collateral Damage* dramatically personifies this idea of survival impasse, as he feverishly strives to change the history of war’s “first minute”. He does this through the archive he dwells on to record colossal details of destruction, as if to erase what happened to his country from the war that damaged it and killed his loved ones among thousands of Iraqis it killed. Wadood confesses to Nameer: “There are people who write in order to change the present or the future, whereas I dream of changing the past” (p. 23). In other words, Wadood craves to remove the imprints of the war! Therefore, it can be suggested that his fanatical desire to document the destruction that influenced his country ultimately embodies his inability to come to terms with a past he no longer can embrace and comprehend, nor with a present he is impacted by and impotent to change. In an interview with him, Antoon remarks: “Wadood’s project may be described as an unfinishable encyclopedia of destruction. Both he and Nameer are in search of the most appropriate form and genre to write about Iraq and its recent history. They write from different locations [...] but are trying to collect shards and fragments of Iraq’s history and their own shattered personal histories...” (Judy, 2020, Para. 5). Hence, the archive designates Wadood’s attempt to reenact the traumatic history or event that influenced his own country, or the invasion of Iraq, and make sense of it.

This hints at what may be called an inner, pathological conflict for several characters in the novel, manifested by their desire to narrate their own traumatic experience as well as their country’s trauma while being unable to fully articulate these traumatic events. Most features of Wadood’s trauma illustrate this element of narrating trauma, pinpointed by trauma theorists. Felman and Laub (1992) emphasize the nexus between survival and how trauma survivors are inclined to narrate their stories: “The survivors did not only need to survive so that they could tell their story; they also needed to tell their story in order to survive” (p. 78). Such a desire to narrate their traumatic experience may become a life-long journey. Nevertheless, Felman and Laub accentuate “the impossibility of telling;” to express something almost impossible to be espoused in thought, memory, or speech (pp. 78-79). Part of Wadood’s dilemma is embodied by this desire and being unable to achieve it.

V. SYMPTOMS AND FEATURES OF WADOOD’S TRAUMA

The traumatic effect of war on Wadood in *The Book of Collateral Damage* is embodied by Antoon through several symptoms. These symptoms include flashbacks, daydreams, and nightmares, which closely expose the pathological conflicts inflicted on him by the war. To illustrate, Wadood tells in a flashback how he rides the bus to “go back home” and see his family after discharge from the mental hospital (p. 215). He does not “get off” when the bus approaches their house but returns to “Bab al-Mu’azzam”, where he took it! (p. 216). Kurtz (2018) observes: “We think of trauma as a pathological mental and emotional condition, an injury to the psyche caused by catastrophic events, or by the threat of such events, which overwhelms an individual’s normal response mechanisms” (p. 2). This is manifested by Wadood’s indeterminacy, albeit he eventually decides to leave and go to his home. However, when Wadood reaches where his house used to be, he is astonished not to find it there: “I heard a voice shouting, ‘Where’s our house?’ It was my own voice but it was coming from far away. [...] I went back but I didn’t go back” (p. 226). Caruth (1996) notes

that “trauma seems to be much more than a pathology, or the simple illness of a wounded psyche: it is always the story of a wound that cries out, that addresses us in the attempt to tell us of a reality or truth that is not otherwise available” (p. 4). The wound crying inside Wadood underscores his pathetic reality; his emotional pain is heightened by his feelings of exile in his home country as he is unable to find his home in his homeland!

Wadood’s traumatic memory is considerably embodied by dreams repeatedly haunting him as a symptom of his trauma. One dream is linked to his pathological sense of suffering dominating his country through perceiving how things around him suffer from the war (p. 106). Wadood elaborates:

Everyone endowed with this talent gathered on the stage in a theater, as if they were in an orchestra. [...] Whenever one of the people screaming falls down, two men come and drag his body into the wings and a new screamer soon takes his place. Then I too collapse from exhaustion and wake up. (p. 106)

This dream symbolizes the internal agony Wadood has about the situation in his country. As well, it stands for the collective trauma all Iraqis undergo. Those screaming in the theatre symbolize all tormented Iraqis, voicing their anger over their country’s destruction by the war.

In another dream, Wadood dreams to be a “bulbul” (a type of bird) in a cage like bones which, according to him, could be Nameer’s (p. 128). He attempts to escape but needs to “rip” Nameer’s lungs and kill him to do so! This reflects Wadood’s psychological burden and the intrusion of his stay in the psychiatric hospital as part of his traumatic memory, making him emotionally restless. Additionally, it suggests his attachment to Nameer, who can be seen as his alter ego; both share identical anguish about their country. This dream is repeated in the narrative; something emphasized by trauma theorists to show constant suffering for traumatized individuals.

Furthermore, Wadood’s trauma symptoms include repetitive behavior and speech. He frequently reiterates statements about things he did or that occurred to him. When he narrates incidents about his devastating experience in the mental hospital, he restates this statement: “I see myself there” (pp. 237-241). His suffering at that place haunts him; hence, he keeps imagining himself to be there, even after a long time of departure. This also highlights the overlap between the present and past for him as a consequence of his painful experiences and trauma inflicted by the war.

One further symptom Wadood markedly exhibits is alienation, resulting from war and circumstances attached to it. Whereas Nameer embodies exiled Iraqis alienated outside their homeland, Wadood represents Iraqi individuals’ estrangement within their homeland. He explains to Nameer why he lives in a room alone in Al Mutanabbi Street upon American attacks:

This little room from which I am writing to you is my real homeland because it is full of books and every book is like a whole sky. It also contains my catalog, which in its turn will contain everything I know and can imagine. (p. 228)

Wadood’s words foreground his psychological isolation and how he confines his life to books and accomplishing his catalogue. Antoon says: “Where do you stand with respect to someone nearby who has long felt like a stranger in his own country” (p. 259). It implies the estrangement Wadood feels at his homeland and identical feelings Nameer has during his short visit to Baghdad after the war started.

Additionally, Wadood’s trauma is mainly featured by “incomprehensibility”. The immensity of psychological pain resulting from his trauma in many cases becomes an obstacle for him to enunciate his emotions and thoughts plainly and adequately. According to Caruth (1996), “Trauma is not simply an effect of destruction but also, fundamentally, an enigma of survival. It is only by recognizing traumatic experience as a paradoxical relation between destructiveness and survival that we can also recognize the legacy of incomprehensibility at the heart of catastrophic experience” (p. 58). Several incoherent passages by Wadood, especially throughout the second half of the novel, demonstrate multiple memories about things that occurred to him. They follow neither grammar nor punctuation. As an illustration, Wadood says:

Everything shuts its eye everything what I lack and I look for it for me [...] the hole of the sky is a grave I dig alone I was no I wasn’t there how don’t I know I don’t believe I believe myself did they go into the hole for who and why they didn’t wait who took the hole who took the house didn’t wait.... (p. 211)

The excerpt shows Wadood’s intense suffering from his memories, reflected by confusion featuring his statements. Many expressions are affirmative and negative, at the same time, illuminating the contradiction in his thoughts and feelings. The words; “the hole of the sky is a grave I dig alone”, seem to suggest immense death and killing instigated in his country by the war, which he feels agonized about and finds difficulty in documenting alone.

The severity of trauma for those suffering it often turns to affect their well-being and becomes threatening to their lives. This is true of Wadood, who, because of his deep trauma, considers ending his life many times. Through a flashback, he tells how he hopelessly attempts to kill himself at the mental hospital three times: “In my corner, curled up near the windows, I am thinking: how can I not be? How can I not be “me”?” (p. 237). However, he is rescued by hospital employees until realizing it would be a sign of defeat to do this (p. 238). Caruth (1996) explains that the trauma survivor’s mind loses ability to confront its death immediately, causing survival to become an “endless testimony to the impossibility of living”. Furthermore, these traumatized subjects suffer a repetition of their trauma obsessively, where nightmares reenact the shattering event, taking the survivor’s lives to an “endless inherent necessity of repetition” that may ultimately destroy these person’s lives (pp. 62-63). Trauma victims, whom Wadood succinctly represents, are continually faced by nightmares and flashbacks, preventing them from living their lives normally. Such traumatized

individuals' trauma, in Caruth's words, eventually becomes a challenging "enigma of survival"; struggling to cope with their reality and surroundings while facing their traumatizing experience and trying to forget it (Caruth, 1996, p. 64). So, Wadood's trauma succinctly represents how depressive feelings and thoughts can lead trauma subjects to deal tragically with their reality.

Most significantly, Wadood's traumatic experience comes to a climax when he deliberately decides to commit the suicide he envisioned so long. In his letter to Nameer, he writes:

My birthday is a month away and I will celebrate it in an unusual way. [...] Yes, I am going to burn the catalog. [...] The ideal ending would be for me to burn too. The ecstasy of utter annihilation, leaving this form of existence and going to absolute nothingness. (p. 291)

What Wadood says underscores his psychological wreck over time as a result of his suffocating reality; his trauma ultimately becomes so threatening, terribly driving him to finish his life and even get rid of the most precious thing he has, his catalogue, or "the project of a lifetime" (p. 46), as he calls it. Weisner (2020) pinpoints that trauma may become "harmful or life threatening and have the potential to result in lasting negative effects on one's physical, mental, social, emotional or spiritual well-being" (p. 1). Yet, Wadood's life does not end as he desired. He tragically dies because of a suicidal bomb in al-Mutannabi Street, where he lives and sells books!

Hence, Antoon delves into Wadood's trauma to personify how traumatic experiences were triggered in thousands of Iraqi individuals from the Iraq War. This war brutally impacts Wadood. It ruins his personality, causing his mental imbalance and both his traumatic experience and memory. It is primarily responsible for destroying his family house, killing his dear ones, and inflicting the psychological wreck he severely suffers from. Above all, it is the same force that ends his life and damages his remarkable project; on which his whole existence has centered.

VI. CONCLUSION

It can be extrapolated that Antoon's tracing of the impact of the Iraq War in *The Book of Collateral Damage* oscillates between showing traumatic experiences inflicted upon Iraqi individuals, on the one hand, and drawing attention to the bitterness of their memory that adds to their pathological conflicts and wounds, on the other hand. Wadood is portrayed by Antoon to exemplify this through his catalogue in which he digs into his country's past, especially the history of the war beginning or "the first moment". By this, he stands for Antoon and all Iraqis who recapture memories, demonstrating their collective trauma about their country's "wounded" history.

Therefore, memory, particularly traumatic memory, proves to be a significant concern for Antoon in his text to reexamine the history of the war in his country. One problematic issue he probes is how individuals respond to their past and their country's past. Whereas some individuals can "work through" their memories (La Capra, 2001), Wadood virtually fails to do so. He remains haunted by the shadows of war that he keeps "acting out", and struggles to adjust to his reality and separate it from his painful past. This succinctly illustrates how for individuals like Wadood trauma often becomes "an enigma of survival" (Caruth, 1996, p. 58). The narrative of Wadood in *The Book of Collateral Damage* adheres to the main symptoms and features of trauma proposed by Freud and contemporary trauma theorists, pointed out in the discussion, and gives evidence of Iraqi individuals' impact from both the experience and memory of the war in their country. In particular, most of Wadood's nightmares and dreams are linked to his pathological sense of suffering dominating his country as well as the Iraqis' demise in the war that killed thousands of them. Thus, they stand for the collective trauma all Iraqis suffer from and their deep impact by the historical truth about the war in their homeland.

Since the shadows of war inhabit the mind of the author belonging to this wounded country, Antoon traces the trauma and scars left in his mind about it the same way they are left in the minds of the characters he portrays as well as other people in Iraq. Most importantly, the traumatic experiences and the bitterness of memory for Iraqi individuals that are traced in the text testify to how Antoon writes his novel to modify the truth about the war, so that he refutes the notion of seeing what the war instigated as roughly "collateral damage". Antoon digs into the history of this war to demonstrate a detailed impact of destruction and death triggered to places, objects, animals, and plants, and above all, to human beings; their bodies, souls, and psyches.

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A Contrastive Study of Politeness Strategies Between Arumpone and Batara Wajo Based on Dialogue Discourse in the Lontara Latoa and Sukku'na Wajo Manuscripts

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Abstract—This paper aims to demonstrate the differences in the values of linguistic politeness strategies in the Bugis language inherited by King Bone, *Arumpone* (abbreviated as AP), and King Wajo, *Batara Wajo* (abbreviated as BW), respectively through the *Latoa Lontara* manuscript (Bone) and the *Sukku'na Wajo Lontara* manuscript. This is very interesting because theoretically (Brown & Levinson, 1978), the dialogue in the two *Lontara* manuscripts was asymmetrical or hierarchical (the dialogue between the king and the subordinates), so superiors may use the *cukuk* speech to subordinates. However, this study found that BW used the *cukuk* speech, while AP did not. The difference in the choice of politeness strategy was that AP chose the type of distance politeness or self-politeness, while BW chose camaraderie politeness. As for subordinates, they should use *congaa* speech to their superiors in asymmetrical speech situations. However, the facts show that the subordinates of both kings never use the *congaa* speech to their respective superiors. In this case, *Kajaolallido* (abbreviated as KL), the AP's subordinate used the *sanraa* speech as used by AP to him, and even used the *cukuk* speech to AP when was asked to give moral advice. Meanwhile, BW's subordinates always used the *cukuk* language to BW. The most important finding here is that the power of the moral advice variable became the determining variable in choosing the politeness strategy and shifts the power of the social status variable.

Index Terms—politeness strategy, speech norm, manuscript, Arumpone, and Batara Wajo

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, Bone Regency and Wajo Regency were two kingdoms that lived as neighbors and had a Bugis language (Buginese) background. Bone was led by a king called *Arumpone* or *Mangkau*. This pure feudal royal system survived into modern government. The last *Arumpone* (hereafter abbreviated as AP) was La Pabbenteng, Matinroe Ri Matuju, (period 1946-1951). Meanwhile, Wajo was initially led by a king with an absolute monarchy system, called *Batara Wajo* (hereafter abbreviated as BW). However, the third BW was forced to abdicate and was killed for committing a moral offense. Since then, the appointment of the king of Wajo is no longer hereditary, but is always democratized through elections by the Representative Council, so the name BW changed to *Arung Matoa* 'an elder king'. Thus, Wajo has transformed from an absolute monarchy to an elected monarchy or limited democracy. In this case, *Arung Matoa* in the Kingdom of Wajo is the main king or the elder king (Farid, 1985, p. 574).

Based on the facts of the *Lontara* manuscript, the two kingdoms used the Buginese as the language of government. In this case, based on the *Latoa* manuscript, *Arumpone* (hereafter abbreviated as AP) used the Buginese in interacting with his subordinates, *Kajaolallido* or *Kajao Lallidong* (hereafter abbreviated as KL). Actually, KL's real name is *La*

Mellong. The title *Kajao* was given by the Kingdom of Bone to KL as a form of appreciation because he had the intelligence and special ability to become an adviser to the king. Meanwhile, *Lallido* or *Lallidong* is the name of KL's hometown. Likewise, based on the *Lontara Sukku'na Wajo* manuscript, BW used the Buginese in interacting with his subordinate, whose name is Petta Arung Saotanre (PAS).

Although both of them were kings and were in an asymmetrical or hierarchical form of communication, AP used a negative politeness strategy (*sanraa* speech), while BW uses a positive politeness strategy (*cukuk* speech). This is very interesting to analyze for two main reasons. First, the data source is the *Lontara* manuscript and second is the dialogue discourse which is a fact that proves the non-universality of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory.

The use of politeness strategies in the *Lontara* manuscript is very interesting and important to study because it cannot be denied that the *Lontara* manuscript is a linguistic reality of the Buginese. More than that, language builds and transmits Buginese civilization. One of the language civilizations inherited by the *Lontara* manuscript is politeness in speech. In this case, there are two phenomena that are in contrast to one another, namely the phenomenon of politeness in the speech of AP and BW to their respective speech partners, namely KL and PAS. The interlocutors of this king each had the status of subordinates. Research on the differences in politeness strategies between AP and BW has never been done and this is very interesting because, in politeness theory which is claimed to be universally applicable (Brown & Levinson, 1987), it is refuted by the reality of AP and BW's speech with their respective subordinates in the *Latoa* and *Sukku'na Wajo* manuscript.

The indicator used to show AP and BW politeness strategies is the use of second-person singular pronouns. According to Helmbrecht (2013, p. 186; 1914), from a linguistic point of view, one of the most important strategies for being polite is to avoid addressing people directly (see also Pizziconi, 2006). In this case, addressing others in the second person is classified as a negative politeness strategy. In unfamiliar situations or when there is no power, this negative politeness strategy is considered to threaten the other person's face and opens up opportunities for the other person to use the same strategy to threaten the speaker's face. Therefore, it is very important for speakers to take into account various social differences linguistically in connection with efforts to maintain a positive face, both the speaker himself and the hearer (see Njuki, 2021; Palmer, 1981; Matsumoto, 1988).

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Politeness Theory

Lakoff (1990, p. 34) defines politeness as "a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all forms of human social interaction". Yule (1996, p. 60) states that politeness in interactions is defined as a means used to show awareness of the importance of keeping other people's faces. Gleason and Ratner (1998, p. 286) put forward the same opinion, that politeness means acting to protect other people's feelings and involves both actions related to positive face (desire to be approved) and negative face (desire to avoid being intervened by others) (see Hudson, 1996).

According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 63), the face, in turn, is shaped by two particular 'wants', namely the desire to avoid obstacles and the desire to be approved. The choice of means to achieve these two desires is called 'strategy' by Brown and Levinson and this is determined by (1) Distance (D): interaction of social distance between Speaker (S) Hearer (H), (2) power (P) possessed H over S (P; this may, of course, be a negative value), and (3) cost, for H, of the result (R) (Rx, defined as how far a 'face-threatening act' face threatening' [FTA] x was assessed as coercion in the culture under investigation). Each of the three context-dependent dimensions contributes to the seriousness of the FTA, 'and thereby determines the level of politeness with which, other things being equal, the FTA will be communicated' (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 81).

The distinction between positive face and negative face in politeness theory is related to face-saving strategies so that faces are also categorized into positive and negative (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 13). Positive or negative face-threatened situations are referred to as face-threatening actions. For example, when someone is criticized, their positive face, namely the need to be appreciated and liked, is threatened. Likewise, when someone is ordered to take an action, their negative face, namely the need to be free to choose an action, is also threatened. To reduce threats to positive and negative faces, positive and negative politeness strategies can be used. In this connection, Brown & Levinson identify fifteen major strategies for positive politeness (i.e. the things we do to make H feel good), another ten for negative politeness (i.e. minimizing certain impositions), and another fifteen for 'off-record' (i.e. a cue or code that allows H to assign a non-threatening facial intent to communication).

Positive politeness is manifested by fostering close relationships with speech partners, friendliness, familiarity, warm relationships, acceptance, solidarity, and praise (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In the case of greetings between speakers and hearers, you can use familiar single personal pronouns. Positive politeness strategies can indeed function as a means to develop or maintain warm, friendly, and intimate relationships (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 103, 129-130). Instead, negative politeness strategies are adopted to preserve the freedom of action, inviolability, and independence of the recipient, which are necessities of the negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 13, 61-63). Negative politeness is expressed by keeping distance from the speech partner, formality, official attitude, and respect (see also Fraser, 1981, 1990; Ide, 1982, 1984, 2001).

In this regard, Lakoff (1990) divides politeness into three types: distance politeness, deference politeness, and

camaraderie politeness. What is meant by distance politeness is politeness which refers to one of the strategies of civilized humans which is similar to the habit of animals that respect their territory so that other animals do not interfere. The politeness of distance shows the existence of equality between the speech participants. In this case, humans usually use symbolization to create a fence for the area of authority. Meanwhile, deference politeness assumes that there are parties who demean one of the participants in the conversation or both. Then camaraderie and politeness show that interaction and relationship are socially positive ideas and openness is the most significant sign of politeness. In friendship ethics, being open to others and kind is the most desirable and adorable thing. Regarding the three types of politeness, Lakoff (1975, p. 298) summarizes them with three rules of politeness, namely (1) Don't impose, (2) Give options, and (3) Make a feel-good be friendly.

Speech Level in Buginese

In Buginese, positive and negative politeness strategies can be realized through the use of speech levels. According to Darwis (1995, p. 4), in Bugis culture there are three kinds of speech norms (speech ethics), namely:

- (1) bicara *congaa* (*congaa* speech),
- (2) bicara *cukuk* (*cukuk* speech), and
- (3) bicara *sanraa* (*sanraa* speech).

The term *bicara congaa* consists of two words, namely *bicara* 'speech' and *congaa* 'looked up'. So, the *bicara congaa* is 'look-up speech', which means a form of upward vertical communication. The concept of *congaa* speech is equivalent to the term deference politeness (Lakoff, 1990). With this, the speaker humbles himself by showing respect to the hearers. The linguistic feature is the use of the first person plural inclusive pronoun: *idik* 'we', the first plural pronoun ending for verbs: *-kik*, the first plural pronoun prefix for verbs: *ta-*, and the first plural pronoun ending for nouns: *-ta*. This strategy is very well and effectively used to avoid conflict or the risk of threatening the face of others. With this, the hearer feels very valued and exalted. For example, *Aga taanre* 'What do we eat' and *Yatega bolata* 'Which is our home'.

Following Brown and Levinson (1987), *congaa* speech is used to maintain the hearer's positive face. According to Rashid (2016, p. 268) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is oriented toward the hearer and not the speaker. This is in line with the opinion of Chen (2001, p. 90) that Brown and Levinson (1987) argued that the purpose of politeness is to save face. However, because their concern is saving the hearer's face, they do not give systematic attention to the speaker's efforts to save their face. To realize this goal, in the concept of *congaa* speech, the first person plural (inclusive) pronoun *idik*, the first person plural pronoun prefix *ta-*, and the first person plural pronoun suffix: *-ta* are used. This is in line with the results of Helmbrecht's observation (2015, p. 176) that "a first-person plural pronoun can be used to refer to a second-person singular in a doctor--patient dialogues".

The term *bicara cukuk* 'cukuk speech' comes from the combination of the words *bicara* 'speech' and *cukuk* 'look down'. So, *cukuk* speech is 'look-down speech', a form of downward vertical communication. This means that *cukuk* speech is the opposite of *congaa* speech. This is in line with the concept of camaraderie politeness (Lakoff, 1990). In this case, camaraderie politeness considers that interaction and connection are positive ideas. In this type, being open is desirable. *Cukuk* speech is usually used in intimate or informal communication (informal situations). *Cukuk* speech is used as a politeness strategy to show seniority, either because the speaker is older or has a higher social status, in addition to showing familiarity with the other person. In line with Brown and Levinson's (1978) theory, this form of communication is also used to show a positive face which is commonly called a positive politeness strategy.

The *cukuk* speech can be used as a choice of positive politeness strategy as well as negative politeness. This depends on the circumstances. If the speaker has power or has a social distance that is close to the other person, then the *cukuk* speech is very effective for eliminating stiffness and formality, even very good for building intimacy. On the other hand, if the other person has power or is not yet a close friend, using *cukuk* speech to him is a form of negative politeness and threatens the person's face. The use of the *cukuk* speech is marked by the use of the second person singular pronominal prefix *mu-* or suffix *-mu*. For example, *Aga muanre* 'What are you eating' and *Yatega bolamu* 'Which is your home'.

Furthermore, the term *sanraa* speech is taken from the two words: *bicara* 'speech' and *sanraa* 'equally'. So, *sanraa* speech is speech equally, a form of communication between equals. In this situation the speaker and the hearer place themselves in a parallel (symmetrical) position, that is, they do not consider themselves higher or lower. *Sanraa* speech is in line with distance politeness (Lakoff, 1990) which shows equality between the participants. The linguistic feature of the *sanraa* speech is avoiding the use of second-person pronouns that are familiar or honorific (Ogino, 1986). Instead, the particle *-e* or the third person singular pronoun: *ia*, *na-*, *-na*, or *i-*. For examples *Aga iaranre* 'What to eat' and *Yatega bolae* 'Which house do you mean'.

Sanraa speech is the most often used to show a negative face, to protect self-image (authority) so that it is not "invaded" by other people. This politeness strategy is chosen to try to create social distance between speech participants to prevent the possibility of interfering with each other's personal internal affairs (Leech, 1983). Lakoff (1973) refers to the use of conventional speech norms as a social distancing strategy aimed at demonstrating the characteristics of impersonal relationships.

In this connection, the form of personal pronouns in Buginese is in the form of free morphemes and some are in the form of bound morphemes (Darwis, 2014, p. 367). The following table describes the pronouns which are in the form of

bound morphemes that consist of prefixes on verbs, suffixes on verbs, and suffixes on nouns. The latter expresses a possessive meaning.

TABLE 1
THE FORM OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN BUGINESE

	Personal pronouns	Prefixes on verbs	Suffixes on verbs	Suffixes on nouns
First person singular	iyak	ku-	-kak	-ku
First person plural	idik	ta-	-kik	-ta
Second person singular	iko	mu-	-ko	-mu
Second person plural honorific	idik	ta-	-kik	-ta
Third person singular	ia	na- i-	-i	-na

III. METHODOLOGY

The Buginese dialogue discourse data used in the study of this paper was secondary data obtained from the following sources:

- (1) The *Lontara Latoa* manuscript: the data source for Mattulada's (1985) dissertation; and,
- (2) The *Lontara Sukku'na Wajo* manuscript: the data source for Farid's (1979) dissertation.

This paper used a purposive sampling technique, in which only dialogues with positive and negative strategic politeness were selected to be included. Descriptive research techniques were used in data analysis and guide cards were used to identify positive and negative politeness strategies.

The data were analyzed using the content analysis method by applying the speech level theory of the Bugis language (Darwis, 1995, 2008) within the framework of Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) and Lakoff's (1990) politeness theory. Brown and Levinson's politeness theory was applied to analyze, interpret and discuss the data collected. Critical attention was directed to the universality claim of Brown & Levinson's politeness theory in connection with the existence of cultural constraints, namely language norms in the speech levels of Buginese (see Harris, 2021).

IV. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

A. Politeness Strategies in the *Lontara Latoa* Manuscript

Politeness Strategies in the *Lontara Latoa* Manuscript In the Latoa manuscript, there were texts that took the form of dialogue, between AP and KL. This dialogue was a dialogue between the superior (the king) and the subordinate (the expert advisor of AP). This is a very interesting issue because theoretically (Brown & Levinson, 1987), the dialogue should be asymmetric or hierarchical. It means, in such situations in which there is power and a distance and there is no kinship, the superior usually uses the *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy) and the subordinate uses the *congaa* speech (negative politeness strategy). However, in dialogue discourse data, AP (the king), consistently used *sanraa* speech (positive politeness strategies) and KL (the subordinate), did not use the *congaa* speech (negative politeness strategies), but he alternately used *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategies) and *sanraa* speech (negative politeness strategies). Example:

- (1) Makkedai Kajaolallido, "Aga sio, Arumpone, *mu*aseng tettaroi nrebbha alebbirem*mu*, patokkong pulanai alebbireng *mubakurie*, aja' natattere-terre tau tebbe'*mu*, aja' napa wenna pangampo' warangparang *mubakurie*?" (Kajaolalido said, "What is it, O Arumpone, what you called not letting your glory fall, always upheld the glory that you had, not divided your people, not was like the sower of your property.")

In the dialogue sentence (1) KL uses the *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy) to his superior, AP. Text (1) threatens AP's face because it uses direct speech through the use of the familiar second-person pronoun prefix *mu-* and the familiar second-person pronoun suffix *-mu-*: *tau tebbe'mu*. Actually, there are two other KL options, namely (1) *congaa* speech with plural pronoun prefix *ta-* and suffix *-ta-*: *tabakurie*, *tau tebbe'ta*, *alebbiretta* (see 1a) and (2) *sanraa* speech using the passive verb *ri-*: *riaseng*, *ribakurie*, and the definite article *-e-*: *alebbirengnge* and *tau tebbe'e* (see 1b). These are in line with the opinion of Palmer (1981, p. 62) that the polite form, in many European languages, can be in the form of the second person or third person plural. For example, in French, Greek, and Russian, the first person plural is used; whereas in Italian and Spanish, the third person is used.

- (1a) Makkedai Kajaolallido, "Aga sio, Arumpone, *taseng* tettaroi nrebbha alebbiretta, patokkong pulanai alebbireng *tabakurie*, aja' natattere-terre tau tebbe'*ta*, aja' napa wenna pangampo' warangparang *tabakurie*". (Kajaolalido said, "What was it, O Arumpone, what we called not letting your glory fall, always upheld the glory that we had, not divided our people, not was like the sower of our property.")

(1b) Makkedai Kajaolallido, “Aga sio, Arumpone, *riaseng* tettaro i nrebba alebbirengge, patokkong pulanai alebbireng ribakurie, aja’ natattere-terre tau tebbe’e, aja’ napa wenna pangampo’ warangparang ribakurie”.

(Kajaolalido said, “What was it, Arumpone, what is called not letting glory fall, always upheld the glory that is owned, not divided the people, not was like a sower of property.”)

It is important to note that, even though AP has a higher social status as a king, he answered KL (1) above with a *cukuk* speech, but a *sanraa* speech.

(2) Makkedai Arumpone, “Lempu’e, Kajao, enrengge accae”.

(Arumpone said, “Honesty is, Kajao, with intelligence”)

AP and KL frequently utilized *sanraa* speech with each other to maintain the formality of the speech, which at the same time prevented each of them from entering into a situation of personal speech. In fact, perhaps the most reasonable reason is that it is a reflection of the high socio-cultural dignity of AP, which may not be shared by all kings in this world. Meanwhile, at the same time, KL chose to use *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy) to show intimacy with AP, while aiming to make morality (advice value) a basis for consideration in selecting politeness strategies. Then, at other times KL also used *sanraa* speech to AP, so that their interaction with AP remains formal, distant, and impersonal. In addition, every time he spoke, KL greeted his interlocutor with the name AP’s social status, to which AP responded with the greeting of Kajao, so that the interaction between the two parties truly became formal, distant, and impersonal. Example:

(3) Makkedai Kajaolallido, “*Ianaritu, Arumpone, tenniato*na ritu”.

(Kajaolalido said, “That’s what it was, and that was not what it is.”)

In example (3) KL used *sanraa* speech with prefixes *ri-* as markers. The prefix *ri-* is third-person oriented. If the marker *ri* was omitted, the text becomes *cukuk* speech (3a) because it directly addresses the second person singular.

(3a) Makkedai Kajaolallido, “*Ianatu, Arumpone, tenniato*(na)yatu”.

(Kajaolalido said, “That was you; nor that to you.”)

(4) Makkedai Arumpone, “Kegae pale’, *Kajao?*”

(Arumpone said, “Then which one was it, O, Kajao”.)

(5) Makkedai Kajaolallido, “*Ia inanna waramparangge, Arumpone, tettaroengngi tattere-terre tau tebbe’na, temmatinro topi matanna arungge ri esso ri wenni, nawa-nawai adecengenna tanana, natangngai olona munrinna gau’e, napogau; Maduanna, maccapi ppinru ada Arung Mangkau’e; Matellunna, maccapi dduppai ada, Arung Mangkaue; Maeppana, tennalupai surona ppoada ada tongeng*”.

(Kajaolalido said, “As for the core of the property, O Arumpone, do not let your people divided, the King does not sleep day or night, contemplate the welfare of his country; he saw the beginning and the end of the action, he just did it; Second, Arung Mangkaue must be skilled at constructing sentences (answers); Third, Arung Mangkaue must be good at pronouncing sentences; Fourth, his messenger does not neglect to say what is right).”

In text (5) KL used *sanraa* speech, namely by replacing the second-person approach with a third-person approach. In this case, he used the markers *-na, na-*, and *-i, -e*, and a personal name: *tau tebbe’na, matanna, tanana, nawa-nawai, natangngai, maccapi, dduppai, arung-e, gau’-e*, and *Arung Mangkaue*.

In examples (6) to (9) below, AP and KL each used a negative politeness strategy through the use of *sanraa* speech with the *-e* article marker.

(6) Makkedai Arumpone: “Aga appongenna *accae, Kajao?*”

(Arumpone said, what is the source of that intelligence, Hi Kajao?)

(7) Makkedai Kajaolallido, “*Lempu-e, Arumpone*”.

(Kajaolalido said, “Honesty, Arumpone.”)

(8) Makkedai Arumpone, “Aga sabbinna *lempu-e, Kajao?*”

(Arumpone said, “What’s the reward for honesty, Kajao?”)

(9) Makkedai Kajaolallido: *obbi’e, Arumpone*.

(Kajaolalido said, a call for truth, Arumpone).

In examples (10) and (11) below, when KL gave more detailed moral advice, he returned to using *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy). This sentence clearly threatened AP’s positive face. However, the AP may have regarded this as something reasonable due to the factor of the power of moral advice.

(10) Makkedai Arumpone, aga riobbireng, *Kajao?*

(Arumpone said, “Which is a call to truth, Kajao?”)

(11) Makkedai Kajaolallido: *iana riobbireng, Arumpone, makkedae, aja muala tane’-titaneng, tania tane-titanengmu, aja’ muala waramparang tania waramparammu, nataniato manamu, aja’ to mappassu tedong, na tania tedommu, enrengge annyarang, tania annyarammu, aja’to muala aju ripasanre’ natania iko pasanre’i, aja’to muala aju riwetta wali natania iko mpettawaliwi.*

(Kajaolalido said: “As for what is a call to truth, Arumpone, do not take plants that are not yours; do not take property that is not your property, nor is it your inheritance; nor take a buffalo from its stable if it is not your buffalo; and a horse that is not your horse, unless you are leaning against it, do not take a piece of wood that you have not leaned on; nor take a piece of wood that has been cut at both ends that you did not cut.”)

In the example text (11) AP used *sanraa* speech with the prefix *ri-* as a marker. However, KL responded to this

sanraa speech with a *cukuk* speech. Here the markers of the *cukuk* speech were the second person singular prefix *mu-*: *muala* 'you take', the suffix *-mu*: *tane-ttanengmu* 'your plants', *waramparammu* 'your property', *manamu* 'your inheritance', *tedommu* 'your buffalo', *annyarammu* 'your horse', and the second person singular pronoun: *iko*. Actually, according to politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1990), KL should use *congaa* speech because it was dealing with an interlocutor who had a higher social power status. However, KL used *cukuk* speech because he was asked to give moral advice. This means that moral advice was the determining variable in the use of *cukuk* speech and shifts social status and other variables.

Congaa speech variation of (11) is (11a) as follows.

(11a) Makkedai Kajaolallido: *iana riobbireng, Arumpone, makkedae, aja taala tane'-ttaneng, tania tane-ttanengta, aja' taala waramparang tania waramparatta, nataniato manata, aja' to mappassu tedong, na tania tedotta, enrengnge annyarang, tania annyaratta, aja'to taala aju ripasanre' natania idik pasanre'i, aja'to taala aju riwetta wali natania idik mpettawaliwi.*

(Kajaolallido said, "As for what is a call to truth, Arumpone, not to take a plant that is not ours; not to take a property that is not ours, nor is it our inheritance; nor to take a buffalo from its stable if it is not ours, and a horse that is not ours. we, unless we learn to fight against it, do not take a log that we have not leaned against, nor take a log that has been hewn at both ends that have not been cut by us.")

The conversation between AP and KL became specific from a cultural perspective because they greeted each other by mentioning each other's social status. In this case, AP's address term was *Arumpone*, and KL's address term was *Kajao*. With this, social interaction between the two parties was always formal and distanced (see Grimshaw, 1978)

B. Politeness Strategies in the Lontara Sukku'na Wajo Manuscript

The following text is a dialogue between BW and Petta Arung Saotanre (PAS). These two people are related. In terms of kinship, PAS is more senior because he has the status of an uncle, but in the government structure (kingdom), the nephew, namely BW, is more senior. Now that each has power (+power), there is intimacy (-distance), and there is kinship (+kinship); theoretically their relationship is asymmetrical. In situations like this, the seniors should use the *cukuk* speech, while the juniors should use the *congaa* speech. However, in practice, in the *Lontara Sukku'na Wajo* text, both parties use the *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy), which is indicated by the marker *mu-*, not *ta-*; *-tu*, not *-ritu*, *-ko*, not *-kik*; *iko*, not *idik*. Example:

(11) Naripangajarina ri Petta Arung Saotanre, makkedae: "Aja' *mupogau'i gau' makkuaetu nacaccae' to Wajo'e, nacaccato Dewata Seuae'. Narekko maelo'ko mala makkunrai iamatoha welampelangnge muala mupobainei, maupe'muatu to Wajo'e narekko iko napoambo'.*"

(Then, (BW) was advised by Petta Arung Saotanre saying, "Don't do things that are roughly hated by the Wajo people, also those that are hated by God Almighty. If you want to take a woman, then you take the one who is still a virgin and you marry him, Wajo will still feel lucky if you are made a father by them).

(12) Makkedai Batara Wajo: "Madecenni amaure, *musuro* mappalo, to kelakkaie nappapotto". Mappaloni makkunraie to Wajoe mattapottoni, *naia engkae lakkainna, tennapinra mupisa gau'na Batara Wajo (AZA, 59)*".

(Batara Wajo said, "Okay, Uncle, *you* order men with hats to protect married men, so Wajo women have to wear hats too, as a sign that they already have husbands, but Batara Wajo's behavior has not changed; he took women who hat too.")

Petta La Tenribali and his cousin, Petta La Tenritau, dialogue in examples (13) and (14) below. Their relationship was asymmetrical, so theoretically, this kind of communication is identical to example (12) above. In a speech situation like this, Petta La Tenritau as a junior should have used *congaa* speech (negative politeness strategy) to his senior, Petta La Tenribali, but instead chose *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy). This case means that both parties ignored Brown & Levinson's theory by using camaraderie politeness that is informal and not distant.

(13) Makkedai Petta La Tenribali ri sappo sisenna, "Aga aréga *muollirengnga'*, apa' ia' mu'dani mémettona maélo' *sitakko*".

(Petta La Tenribali said to his first cousin: "What do you mean by calling me, because I too have longed to meet you).

(14) Makkedai Petta La Tenritau, La Tenripekka, La Matareng, "Assiturusenna ikkeng to Lipu'-Tellu-Kajuru'e' ri Boli: *Iko maelo' riala Arung Mataesso, kiranrengngi alebbiremmu... (AZA, 111)*".

(Petta La Tenritau'. La Tenripekka and La Matareng said, "The result of our deliberations, the people of Lipu', Tellu-Kajuru'e' in Boli. "You are the one who wants to be appointed as Arung Mataesso and we defend your glory."

The *cukuk* speech markers in example (13) above are the familiar second person singular pronoun *iko* and the familiar second person singular suffix *-mu*: *alebbiremmu* 'your glory'.

The following examples of utterances (15) and (16) show the use of *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy) Puang ri Maggalatung to young people.

(15) Makkedatōi (Puang ri Maggalatung), "Malempu'ko sio, kalaki, mumapato mappallaong nasaba' réso temmangingngi' malomo nal é á pammase Dewata (AZA, 365).

(Puang ri Maggalatung also said, "Be honest, you children, and work hard, because only persistent effort is easy to follow with the pleasure of God."

(16) "E kalaki', aja' muakkeda majariwi waramparammu, nyamengiwi innawammu mulao ri pallaommu, nasaba' ia ada maja'é ripoada tenripaitai taué parempajang, napuppuritoi pallaong mapeddi'" (AZA, 361).

(O children, do not abuse your possessions, calm your mind and go to your place of work, for bad words are spoken so that one cannot see the light of happiness and one persists in poor work).

The use of the familiar second person singular affix *mu-* and *-ko*, as well as *kalaki* 'the children' greeting in examples (15) and (16) marks the use of the *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy) which of course threatens the positive face of the speaker, but this is considered normal because the nature of their social relations is asymmetrical. In a situation where the speaker has the power of aristocratic status and is also older, he can actually use *cukuk* speech to ordinary citizens, especially to children who are still young.

The examples of dialogues (17) and (18) below show different situations. Here BW talks to an ordinary citizen named Lato'é. The politeness strategy chosen is positive politeness or it is called the *cukuk* speech. The marker is the familiar second-person singular suffix: *-mu* (*bainemu* 'your wife') and the other person replies with the familiar second-person singular prefix: *-u* (*de' uissengngi* 'I don't know'). This dialogue shows the neglect of hierarchy or the nature of asymmetric relationships in the selection of politeness strategies.

(17) Makkedai Petta Batara Wajo: Niga malai bain énu?

(Petta Batara Wajo said: Who took your wife away?)

(18) Makkedai Lato'é: Dé' uissengngi.

(Lato'é responded: I don't know.)

V. DISCUSSION

Theoretically, the form of communication that was established between AP and KL is usually categorized as a form of asymmetrical or hierarchical communication. In this case, the rule is that there is power, there is familiarity (distance), but there is no kinship, so the higher-ranking person usually uses a positive politeness strategy or the *cukuk* speech (a form of downward vertical communication). The fact is that AP never used the *cukuk* speech to his subordinate, KL. This means that AP maintained a positive face (self-respect) as a king by choosing to use *sanraa* speech (negative politeness strategies). With this, the atmosphere of a distance, formal and rigid relationship with the other person was always maintained (see Kramer, 2013).

Meanwhile, the hearer KL, the subordinate, should have used *congaa* speech (a form of upward vertical communication) or a positive politeness strategy to the AP because the AP was the leader. However, in practice, KL generally used *sanraa* speech and occasionally *cukuk* speech (positive politeness strategy). The dominance of the use of *sanraa* speech proves that the social relations that existed between AP and KL were formal and distant. The use of *sanraa* speech was very effective in maintaining a positive face for both parties. As for the use of KL's *cukuk* speech to superiors, AP, can be accepted as something that did not threaten AP's positive face because KL provided moral advice (warnings) to AP. What applies here is not individual power, but the power of moral values.

AP's speech was more polite than the speech of his interlocutor, namely KL. AP never used second personal singular pronouns for KL. In other words, AP never used direct speech to the interlocutor. In this case, AP used distance politeness, realized by using *sanraa* speech (negative politeness strategy). Actually, in general, KL used the same politeness strategy, but he also used the second person singular pronoun (direct speech) to AP when asked to give moral advice. This reason for giving moral advice was used by KL to commit violations of distance politeness and deference politeness as well (Lakoff, 1990).

The choice of using *sanraa* speech (negative politeness strategy) for AP was a very appropriate and effective self-defense mechanism to achieve two goals at once, namely saving self-face and other-face. According to Ceng (2001, p. 89), both parties have a vulnerability. There are two reasons, namely, first, just as there are speech acts that threaten other-face, of course, there are speech acts that threaten self-face (see also Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 67-68). Second, the speaker's face can be attacked by hearers, just as hearers' faces can be attacked by speakers. Furthermore, the choice of using *sanraa* speech for AP was a very special form of self-politeness and perhaps rarely practiced by others. The choice of this politeness strategy also reflects the high self-respect of the Bugis Bone people. Then, it is from this cultural perspective that the motto which is very popular among the people, which reads, *Matanre sirina to Bone-e* 'The self-respect of the people of Bone is very high.

On the other hand, the characteristic of politeness for BW is *cukuk* speech. With this politeness strategy, BW performs speech acts to achieve friendly politeness. In an intimate and friendly atmosphere, BW was not worried by the possibility of a threat to his positive face (self-face) and also did not intend to threaten the positive face of others. It is true, both parties (speakers and listeners) felt comfortable greeting each other with *cukuk* speech. However, if the speaker is not familiar with the hearer, the use of *cukuk* speech is very vulnerable to threats, especially if it is carried out by a speaker who does not have the power to force his will on the hearer.

VI. CONCLUSION

The characteristic of AP linguistic politeness is the *sanraa* speech (distance politeness). With this *sanraa* speech, neither the other-face nor the self-face is threatened. This type of politeness is termed distance politeness by Lakoff or

self-politeness by Ceng. With this *sanraa* speech too, AP avoids two extreme possibilities, namely the extreme of *congaa* speech and the extreme of *cukuk* speech. With the first extreme, the speaker sacrifices his face too far to save the other face, whereas, with the second extreme, the speaker lowers the positive face (other face) of the listener too far to elevate his positive face. Meanwhile, the characteristic of politeness for BW is *cukuk* speech (camaraderie politeness). With this politeness strategy, BW tries to create an atmosphere of familiarity between himself and his subordinates. In an intimate and friendly atmosphere, BW does not need to consider the possibility of a threat to the positive face self-face and also does not intend to threaten the positive face of the other face. Thus, both parties (speaker and hearer) feel comfortable greeting each other with *cukuk* speech.

The distinction in the selection of politeness strategies between AP and BW was by the characteristics of each royal tradition. The Kingdom of Bone from generation to generation had adhered to an absolute monarchy system. This is also by the motto that lives on and is popular among the people: *Matanre sirina to Bone-e* 'The self-respect of the people of Bone is very high'. This cultural characteristic was already relevant to the characteristics of the use of *sanraa* speech. On the other hand, The Kingdom of Wajo is characterized by limited democracy. With this spirit of democratic life, a motto emerged which is very popular among the people of Wajo, namely, *Maradeka to Wajoe, Ade' nami Napopuang* 'People of Wajo are already independent, the law is served'. This cultural characteristic was already relevant to the characteristics of the use of *cukuk* speech.

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Enhancing Employability Skills Through Communication in the ESP Classroom

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Abstract—Improved English communication abilities result in both better social interaction and improved career opportunities. As most job interviews are in English, candidates are often chosen based on the linguistic competence they demonstrate in the interviews. Thus, possessing a high level of linguistic proficiency in the English language leads to not only more rewarding career choices but also more chances of being hired for the position he/she is applying for. Moreover, English has become the lingua franca of the business world. As a result, one must possess a very strong command of the English language to become most successful in the professional world. The study focuses on honing the employability skills of the students in ESP classrooms through interactive communication, thereby making them employable. In this connection, an analytical study of possible aspects of employability skills is conducted which is also vital in carving career-oriented engineering students in the ESP classroom.

Index Terms—communication, interviews, linguistic, professional

I. INTRODUCTION

English proficiency and employability are inextricably related. Indeed, English has risen in stature into the lingua franca of the 21st century globalized economy due to its wide usage in a variety of industries. Moreover, it enables people to interact and collaborate across international boundaries and is crucial for the success of enterprises as, regardless of the team members' original tongues, it enables more seamless communication between businesses, clients, and customers. These facts serve to indicate that studying English is a highly sought-after skill for employability.

In their paper, “Better English for Better Employment Opportunities”, Dr. Meenu Pandey and Dr. Prabhat Pandey assert that, one's ability to speak English plays a significant part in determining their personality. Moreover, they maintain that from academia to business, English will always be necessary. As a result, school systems must develop programs that meet the objectives of the shifting economy and take the appropriate steps to make communicative English training necessary for children so that they may gain productive employment when they are older (Pandey, 2014, p. 99). Furthermore, domestic businesses are expanding across national borders as a result of globalization. With the aid of the English language, market integrations are increasingly pushing consumers to engage with many different cultures and places. As the British once controlled the majority of the world, they planted the seeds of English in the countries which they colonized. In this way, by providing a universal language, the English language aided people in overcoming difficulties associated with overseas postings.

Human capital is the result of education and training since it produces assets like knowledge and skills that boost labor productivity. In this regard, education is seen as a process of skill formation and is compared to the process of capital formation. While the world has a large pool of scientists, engineers, and management graduates, the gap between industry demands and academic output has prevented employers from fully utilizing this talent base for economic gain. Effective management of intellectual capital is crucial for the Indian economy and may serve as a growth engine. The progress of such human capital depends on a thoroughly thought-out educational system. As a result, universities and other institutions of higher studies are crucial to the teaching and learning processes, and future graduates must receive the knowledge and skills they need from these higher learning institutions so that they are employable upon graduation.

Today, finding a job is far less of a challenge than being unemployed. As a result, industry experts believe that there needs to be a significant enhancement in the quality and skills of the workforce. Technical institutions do not deliver signaling value in the job market due to issues with their curricula, lack of trained professors, poor content quality, and ineffective examination systems. Thus, there is a disconnect between the skills that are taught in schools and the ones

that employers want. Furthermore, the knowledge economy is emphasized by globalization; therefore, employability becomes the main motivator of the thinking business. This strategy draws more attention to colleges to produce employable graduates.

Employability skills are defined as a person's capacity to demonstrate their abilities to potential employers and their capacity to carry out activities in a way that advances organizational goals and objectives. In other words, they are considered as 'ready for work' skills that are necessary to perform the job, and employers today place a high value on them. Indeed, employability skill requirements vary from country to country and from industry to industry; still, certain traits like integrity, a positive attitude, problem-solving, decision-making, communication, and interpersonal and team-building skills can be regarded as a few common skills of employment.

English proficiency is seen as a tool that ensures good business outcomes and as something that will provide favorable results in the business world. Indeed, employers generally opt for aspirants who showcase particular competencies during campus interviews and other hiring processes. Thus, a person's education, aptitude, personal attributes, and English communication skills become crucial factors in whether or not that person will be viewed as both an asset to the organization and a contributor to its growth.

II. OBJECTIVES

The main objective of the study is:

1. To investigate the employability capabilities of engineering students.
2. To determine the qualities software companies need in engineering graduates.
3. To examine the pragmatic aspects that engineering students face in acquiring communication skills in English.

III. DATA COLLECTION

The target population included 100 students from PVP Siddhartha Institute of Technology, Andhra Pradesh, India who attended the Communication Skills Lab course in their sixth semester of the academic year 2020-2021 while pursuing an undergraduate program. To get the first-hand opinion of the target learners regarding the significance of English Communication skills in employment opportunities, they were asked to respond to the questionnaire below:

TABLE 1
THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY

S. No.	Questionnaire	A	SA	D	SD*
1	If I want to be a successful engineer, I need to have good communication skills.				
2	The prescribed English textbooks have quality in improving communication skills.				
3	Communication skills are as significant as technical skills.				
4	My confidence is enhanced after improving my communication skills in English.				
5	I do spend little time studying communication skills in my course of study.				
6	I am aware of improving my communication skills.				
7	Engineering students need to concentrate on English communication skills.				
8	Communication skills can be learned through formal instruction in the classroom.				
9	It is necessary to be trained in group discussion and presentation skills activities.				
10	Engineering education treats English as just another subject to be studied.				
11	Irrelevant syllabus design is the reason for not getting employability skills in English.				

*A: Agree SA: Strongly Agree D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

IV. METHODOLOGY

Qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are used in defending the subject. In this correlation, the relevant data is gathered from accessible secondary sources. First, the opinions of the pupils are collected through questions asked on a questionnaire through Google Forms. Next, the observations of the critics and opinions of the students are analyzed, and finally, the issues related to the subject matter are examined.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis of the study is done with the help of different parameters by presenting eleven questions to the students. The first category asks about the quality of content and consists of 11 questions ranging from the importance of English communication skills, Syllabus design, textbook quality, training, less priority to English subjects in technical institutions, and awareness to acquire the target language communication skills. Student responses are based on a 4-point scale: 1 Agree, 2. Strongly Agree, 3. Disagree, and 4. Strongly Disagree.

TABLE 2
STUDENT RESPONSES

S. No.	Questionnaire	A	SA	D	SD*
1	If I want to be a successful engineer, I need to have good communication skills.	60	32	7	1
2	The prescribed English textbooks have quality in improving communication skills.	54	34	12	0
3	Communication skills are as significant as technical skills.	55	30	13	2
4	My confidence is enhanced after improving my communication skills in English.	29	56	12	3
5	I do spend little time studying communication skills in my course of study.	47	40	10	3
6	I am aware of improving my communication skills.	61	33	6	0
7	Engineering students need to concentrate on English communication skills.	38	56	5	1
8	Communication skills can be learned through formal instruction in the classroom.	55	25	15	5
9	It is necessary to be trained in group discussion and presentation skills activities.	52	40	6	2
10	Engineering education treats English as just another subject to be studied.	61	34	2	3
11	Irrelevant syllabus design is the reason for not getting employability skills in English.	47	13	35	5

*A: Agree SA: Strongly Agree D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

VI. DISCUSSION

English language communication abilities are one of the most highly recommended soft skills for any job. The clarity in message delivery is aided by the efficient use of the five components of communication, which are sender, receiver, message, medium, and feedback. In their paper, “English for Employability –The Need for English Speaking Graduates in India”, Ramu Yarlagadda and Dr. Venkata Raghu Ram Mantri state that, after over six decades of independence, education in the country has grown enormously. The system has built a large capacity both in the conventional and modern disciplines. Even as we talk about the increasing number of job avenues emerging in many sectors, India falls under the pressure of having a lack of quality and talent in the job market. As a result, employability is far bigger than employment. The present market gives importance to the skillful workforce with quality output. The gap between the classroom and teaching and the market expectation should be fulfilled by the qualitative and quantitative efforts of academics (Ramu, 2016, p. 71). A worker with effective communication skills enables the business to save time and money wasted on pointless misunderstandings, which in turn helps to boost production.

Practice makes communication better and that is important for creating an identity for an aspirant. The candidates must keep a positive outlook and demonstrate positive body language, listen carefully when others are speaking, and consider what has been said before they speak. Professional institutions are now making sure that English as a skill is given the appropriate weight in their curriculum. To survive in the cutthroat professional environment, these pupils will eventually be expected to continually improve their talents. In such a case, a course that is created to give the pupils the opportunity to improve their English speaking and listening skills is beneficial. Such a course benefits students who may not have had the chance to use English as their primary language of communication, while simultaneously enhancing the language skills of other students. Moreover, in their paper titled, “The Need for Competent Work-Ready English Language Learners”, Ezihaslinda Ngah, Noor Raha Mohd Radzuanb, Wan Jumani Fauzic, Noor Azlinda, and Zainal Abidind opine that, the use of English for specialized purposes has become increasingly popular since it is crucial to the success of employees and administrators in their lines of work and in corporate settings. It is observed that a graduate's ability to use language on the job is significantly more important than their level of skill (Ngah, 2011, p. 1495). Hence, the skills that are necessary for the specific context are practiced continuously. In this connection, making students participate actively, the following questionnaire is discussed and validated.

A. Significance of English Communication Skills

In the wake of globalization, professionals have had to study and enhance their English communication skills quickly to compete in the global economy. In their paper titled, “English Communicative Events and Skills Needed at the Workplace: Feedback from the Industry”, Hafizoah Kassim and Fatimah Ali state that, English is the primary language used on a global scale. Engineers utilize English more frequently with clients and customers than with suppliers and subcontractors. This likely indicates that these businesses serve more foreign customers than local ones, as it is less necessary for them to communicate in English while dealing with local suppliers and subcontractors to obtain goods (Kassim, 2010, p. 176). Therefore, students must focus on English language skills useful for specific purposes.

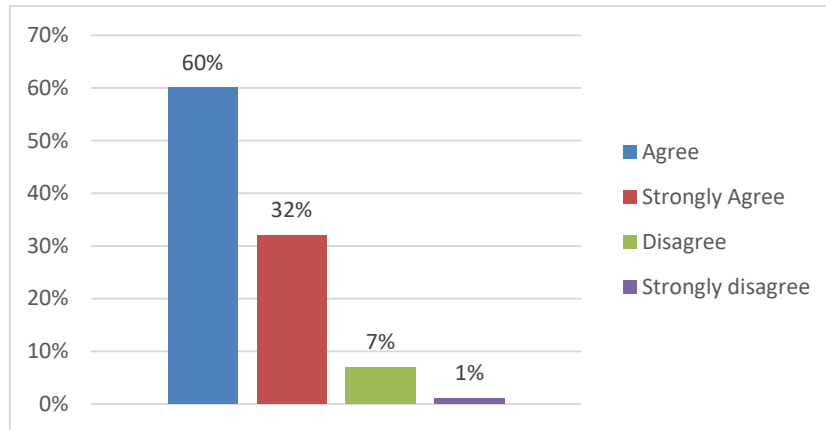


Figure 1. Significance of English Communication Skills

When asked, 60% of the students agree with the statement that they need to develop good communication skills in English. Moreover, 32% of the students strongly agree with the statement. On the other hand, 7% of the students disagreed with the statement while only 1% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

B. Quality of English Textbooks

The researcher attempted to determine how well the English language textbook matched the requirements of language learners. The goal of the study is to determine how well the required textbook supports language learning, its practical use, and the increase in oral communicative competence. As the integrated activities do not concentrate on sociolinguistic and discourse level aspects of the target language, the study's findings show that the textbook does not meet the future linguistic needs of the target learners in academic and professional contexts. Additionally, many activities provide exercises with discrete points and no real purpose which does not help students develop their oral skills. Moreover, there are few opportunities to hone oral communication abilities. Thus, a required English language textbook can only be a useful tool for improving oral communication skills if it contains enough visual supplemental content.

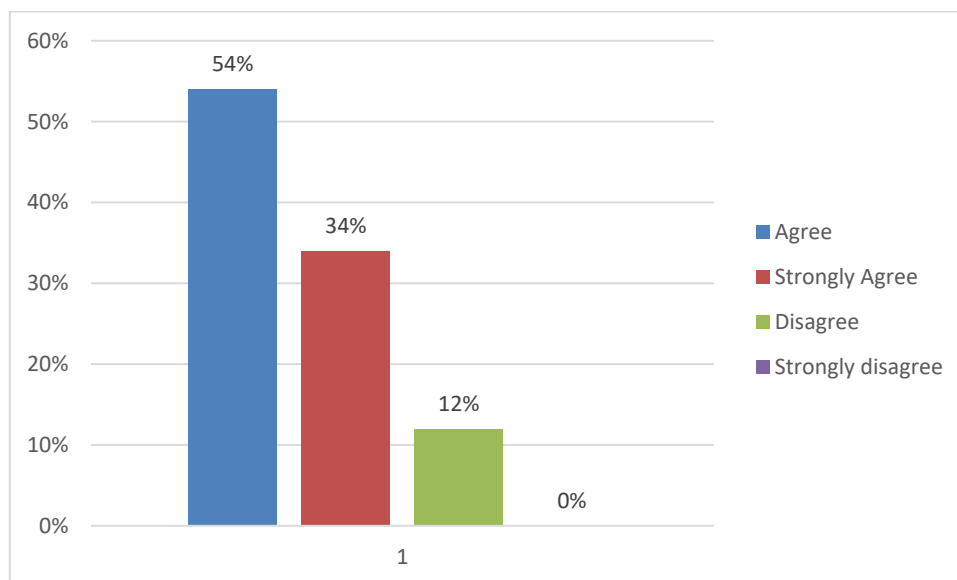


Figure 2. Quality of English Textbooks

When asked, 54% of the students agree with the statement that the prescribed English textbooks have quality in improving communication skills, and 34% of the students strongly agree with the statement. Alternatively, 12% of the students disagreed with the statement, and there are no students who strongly disagree with the statement.

C. Communication Skills Are as Significant as Technical Skills

A candidate can become a software programmer or network administrator, for instance, by having technical skills. However, the ability to effectively communicate your ideas, serve as a conduit for communication, and keep stakeholders informed is what will advance your career. Additionally, it is said that communication alone will make one a fantastic English teacher and nothing else. Applicants must be skilled in technical abilities and also need to constantly

educate themselves on the most recent developments of the technical field. Nevertheless, one fails to succeed when one fails to acquire both technical skills and communication skills.

It is a matter of fact that technical specialists have to develop a broader range of communication abilities. Ineffective teamwork, poor connections at work, a lack of comfort in asking other specialists for help, and basic communication incompetence are all signs of a lack of communication skills. In their paper, “Attitudes towards Communication Skills among Engineering Students”, Mirjana M. Kovac and N. Sirkovic assert that sixth-semester students are more conscious of the importance of effective communication skills which they have already honed through teamwork, formal presentations, oral exams, and written formal communication. However, it would be better to place more emphasis on communication skills at the beginning of university education and provide more opportunities for students to learn and practice them. Furthermore, raising awareness of the significance of communication skills among students at all levels of education and encouraging them to improve their skills is also necessary (Kovac, 2017, p. 116). Thus, students need to realize the importance of specific skills such as those that enable them to successfully pass job interviews throughout their careers.

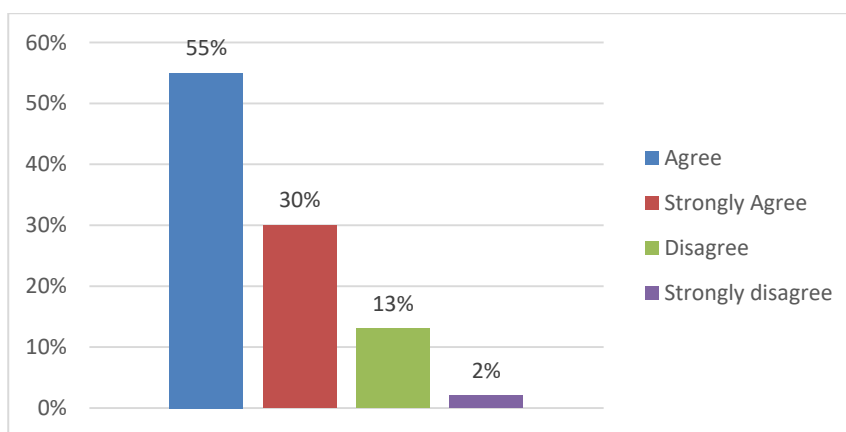


Figure 3. Communication Skills Are as Significant as Technical Skills

When asked, 55% of the students agree with the statement that communication skills are as important as technical skills; 30% of the students strongly agree with the statement. In the meantime, 13% of the students disagree with the statement and only 2% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

D. Enhancement of Confidence

The journey of learning English grows more intriguing with each achievement. There are constantly fresh ideas to grasp, words to acquire, ways for students to express themselves creatively, and expressive phrase patterns to use. There are so many modern and creative approaches to language learning. These fresh approaches make sure that an aspirant is constantly thinking creatively and following new methods to learn. When one looks forward to discovering new methods to express oneself, one will feel accomplished. Moreover, this attempt will motivate him/her to advance and assist him/her in seeking out higher levels that one can reach language objectives. In their paper, “English Communication Skills for Employability: The Perspectives of Employers in Bahrain”, Andrew Thomas, Casey Piquette, and David McMaster state that students need to demonstrate they are a good “fit” and are therefore able to contribute to “productive and harmonious relationships” within the workforce. Thus, communication is once again demonstrated as being interlinked with personal attributes (Thomas, 2016, p. 40).

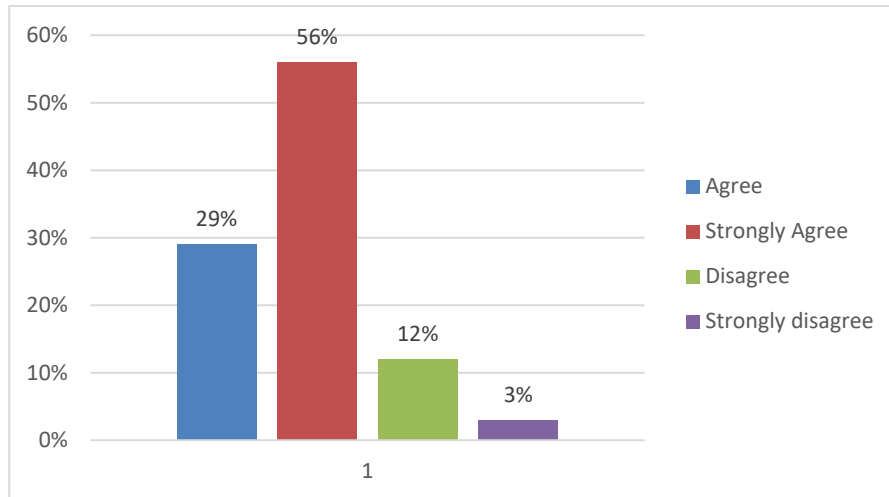


Figure 4. Enhancement of Confidence

When asked, 29% of the students agree with the statement that their confidence has increased after improving their communication skills in English. Furthermore, 56% of the students strongly agree with the statement. Nevertheless, 12% of the students disagree with the statement, and only 3% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

E. Allotting Time to Concentrate on English Subjects

The rise of the internet led some observers to lament about the impending demise of private written correspondence; however, the truth is far different from what was anticipated. It is becoming more and more crucial to communicate with others via SMS, social media, and email. Therefore, more messages increase the chance of misunderstandings. In this context, social media is amplifying the effect. With a few clicks, one may now declare something to hundreds of millions of individuals rather than just a small group of people. Indeed, thanks to technology, the world is now more interconnected than we could have ever dreamed of. Still, this connectivity also calls for strong linguistic abilities.

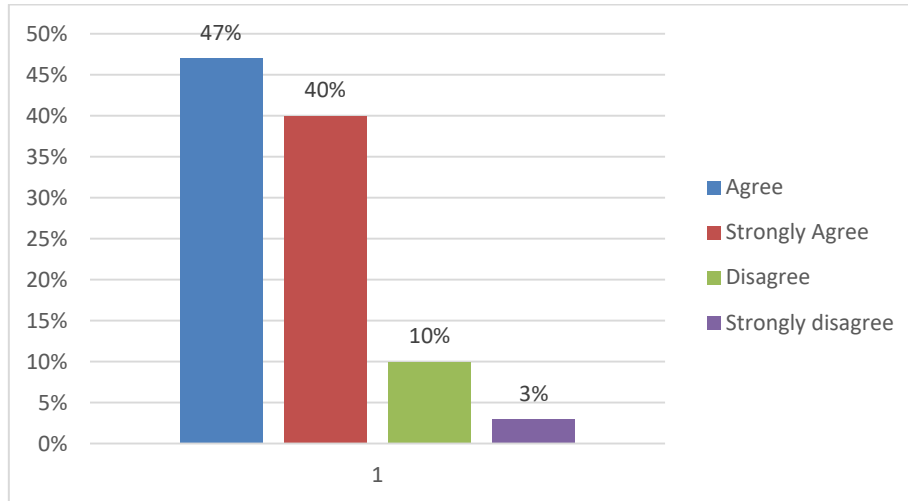


Figure 5. Allotting Time to Concentrate on English Subjects

When asked, 47% of the students agree with the statement that they do not have enough time to study communication skills in their course of study, and 40% of the students strongly agree with the statement. At the same time, 10% of the students disagree with the statement, and 3% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

F. Awareness of the Need for Communication Skills

A student's ability to effectively communicate is crucial to their success at the workplace after graduation. Moreover, effective communication skills are essential in today's competitive and rapidly evolving environment to keep up with the rate of change. The three most crucial facets of the communication skills of students are: effective reading, effective writing, and acute listening.

Having a clear grasp of one's personality, thoughts, feelings, and overall behavior is known as self-awareness. It enables one to control one's reactions in a way that ensures they are a significant part of the dialogue and better understand how one's actions or reactions affect other people. In their paper, "English for Employability: A Case Study of the English Language Training Need Analysis for Engineering Students in India", A. Clement and T. Murugavel

assert that English teachers must present a lot of information from newspaper articles and websites to raise awareness about the value of language abilities in job interviews and workplace activities. Thus, teachers are expected to read and share information about the language competency needed by employers since students desire to learn more about employability. To increase self-confidence, new training techniques must be offered in the classroom as many students lack confidence in their presentation abilities (Clement, 2015, p. 123). Effective communication is crucial for success at the workplace. Better professional relationships, happier customers, and a more effective company are the results of communicating with the team and customers in a clear and confident manner. However, there is still a sizable amount of miscommunication and misinterpretation of verbal, written, and non-verbal signals.

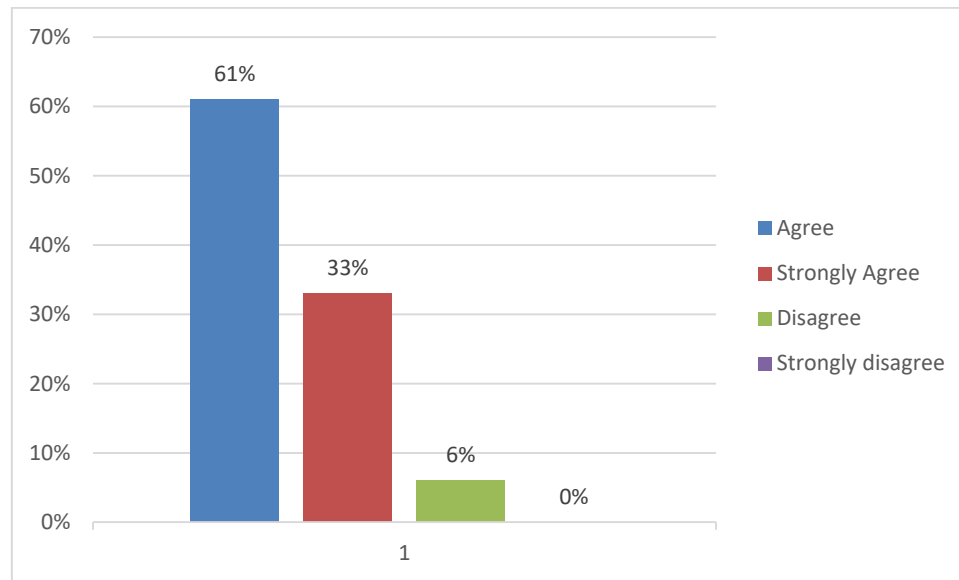


Figure 6. Awareness of the Need for Communication Skills

When asked, 61% of the students agree with the statement that they are aware of improving their communication skills, and 33% of the students strongly agree with the statement. On the other hand, 6% of the students disagree with the statement, and there are no students who strongly disagree with the statement.

G. Necessity to Acquire Communication Skills

The fact that it can greatly advance one's career is one important factor that ought to grab the attention of students. Engineers with excellent communication abilities are in high demand. Likewise, employers prefer candidates who can effectively and productively communicate their findings with others; however, they also think that most engineering graduates have the technical knowledge to perform their jobs, but perhaps not the necessary communication skills.

In addition to impressing potential employers and landing a job, engineers frequently need to communicate. Every team member on a project's team is responsible for significant duties, and the success of your assignment depends on everyone's efforts. If they are not good listeners, if they do not participate in conversations among the group about how to forward the project, if their written reports are disorganized and vague, or if someone neglects to practice effective communication, the team never achieves its full potential. Now, it should go without saying that this is an extreme hypothetical scenario involving a person with poor communication skills. However, an engineer's lack of communication skills results in inefficiency, lost effort, mistrust, and animosity among colleagues. It's unlikely that many people would want to work or hire someone like that. In the paper titled, "Teachers Perspective on Communication Skills among Engineering Students", Shubhangi R. Khambayat asserts that, in most countries, communication skills are regarded as a crucial performance indicator to gauge an individual's success in the workplace. Given that English is currently the most widely spoken language in the world, and that graduating students must compete for jobs with a global workforce, communication skills are tested to the fullest. Good communication serves as a bridge to close the gap between the academic and professional worlds, making graduates more marketable (Khambayat, 2017, p. 8330). Thus, engineers must acquire strong communication abilities in the modern world because they are the largest predictor of success in their professional careers.

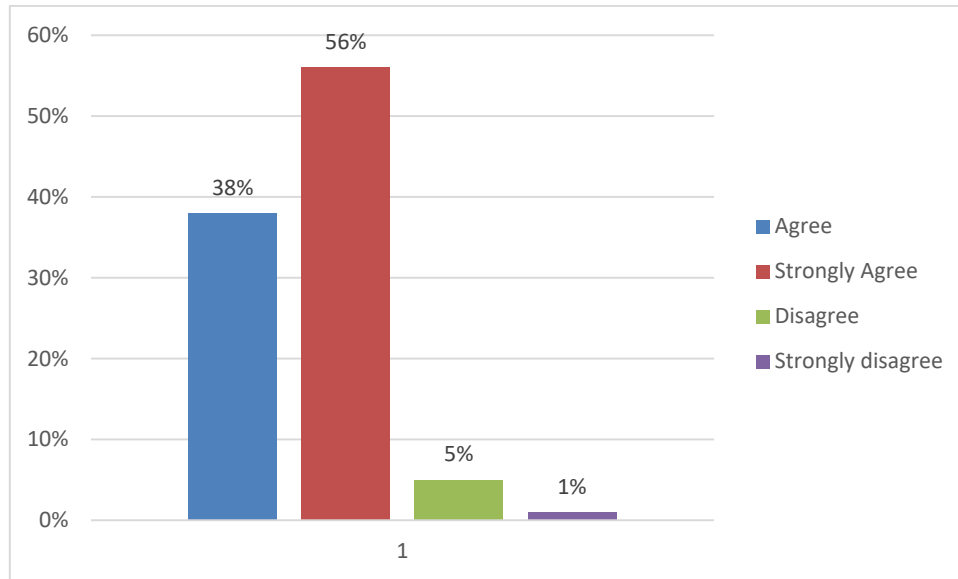


Figure 7. Necessity to Acquire Communication Skills

When asked, 38% of the students agree with the statement that engineering students should study communication skills; 56% of the students strongly agree with the statement. Meanwhile, 5% of the students disagree with the statement, and 1% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

H. Mastery of Communication Skills Through Formal Instruction

Since teaching itself requires communication, it is crucial to have these abilities while interacting with students. Moreover, it is also important to understand and deconstruct difficult knowledge, communicate it to pupils in a way that keeps their attention (both vocally and through written resources), and listen to and address any questions or issues they may have.

To create a secure and encouraging learning environment in the classroom, the teacher must also adjust the content for different learning styles, inspire students to learn, create supportive connections through encouragement and empathy, manage the classroom, and provide feedback. These activities help create effective communication abilities among the students. In the paper “Employability Opportunities through English Language”, Dr. N. Thyaga Raju states that “Skills-oriented English language modules concerning English Literature which is rich in wonderful literary pieces can be really helpful in this task. Hence the role of English language teachers is decisive today as one who experiments in the classroom to evolve useful teaching programs and at the same time conducts them in the classroom effectively to make students more employable to compete in the job market. Besides, teaching language along with literature will make the youth sensible human beings of wonderful ideas” (Raju, 2018, p. 706). Effective teachers create interactive and engaging learning environments that strongly correlate with student achievement. Further, the way a teacher interacts with students can have a positive impression on how they view learning, their role in the classroom, their abilities, and their drive to succeed.

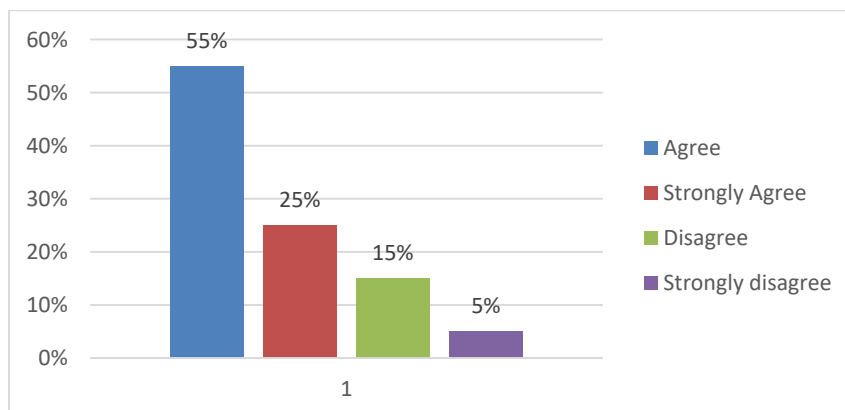


Figure 8. Mastery of Communication Skills Through Formal Instruction

When asked, 55% of the students agree with the statement that communication skills can be mastered through formal instruction in the classroom, and 25% of the students strongly agree with the statement. Conversely, 15% of the students disagree with the statement and only 5% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

I. Training in Presentation Skills

When assessing the presentation skills of students, recruiters conduct several activities. One of the techniques most business and organizations use is group discussion that is typically a technique s to determine whether candidates possess a particular personality or set of skills required of their members or workers. After the written exam, organizations conduct group discussions to gauge how well the candidates interact with others and what their level of interpersonal skills is. The way that candidates behave, take part, and contribute in a group discussion is another topic covered. In addition, recruiters learn about how much weight applicants give to the team's goals as well as their own, how attentively they listen to opinions of others, and how accepting they are of viewpoints that differ from their own. In their paper, “Employers’ Perception on Engineering, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Students’ Employability Skills”, Mohammad Shamsuri Mohammad Saad, Anidah Robani, Zanariah Jano and Izaidin Abdullah Majid assert that companies think it is crucial for students—or any future employees—to be able to deliver outstanding and successful presentations, as well as to lead and function as a team. This is because no amount of information can be conveyed inside the company efficiently without good and effective communication skills; this will also impact the likelihood of productivity. Similarly, all employees need to be able to operate in teams because every person in an organization is related to one another, necessitating the sharing of ideas and knowledge to advance the organization (Saad, 2013, p. 45). Generally, group discussions are conducted to assess one’s confidence, leadership, assertiveness, effective communication, language quality, listening skills, and other abilities.

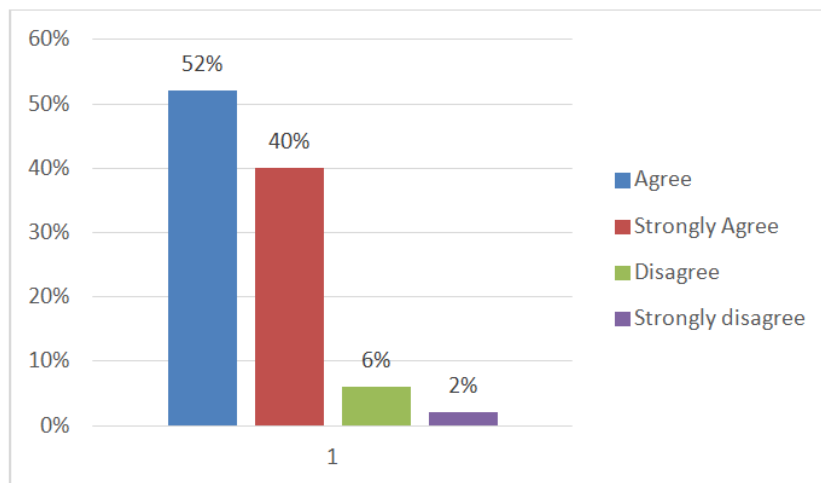


Figure 9. Training in Presentation Skills

When asked, 52% of the students agree with the statement that it is necessary to be trained in group discussion and presentation skills; 40% of the students strongly agree with the statement. However, 6% of the students disagree with the statement, and 2% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

J. Less Priority for Communication Skills in Engineering Education

Today's engineers must interact with colleagues around the world. English is largely regarded as a language of communication among most professionals, including scientists, technicians, and business experts who come from many cultural and linguistic origins. In recent times, technical subjects are given utmost priority over communication skills. The same can be said of the English faculty who are treated as second-rate citizens in engineering colleges though they are contributing much in the aspect of drafting, proofreading, and so on.

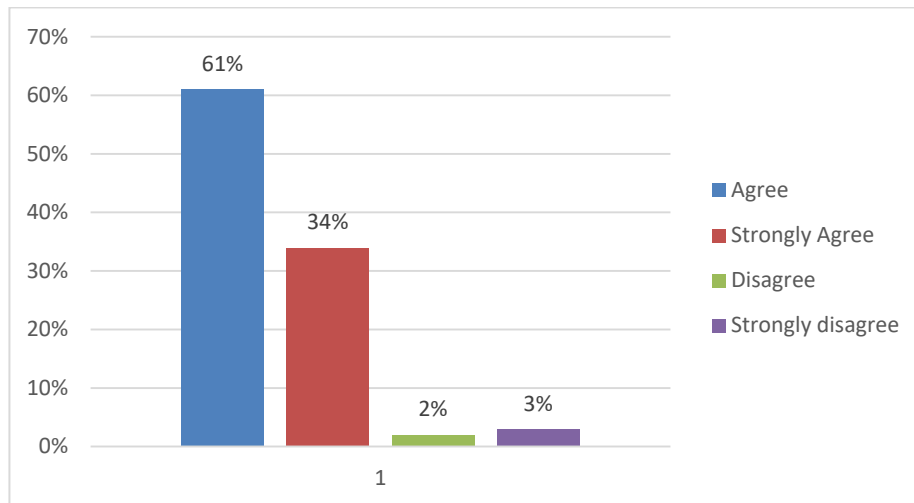


Figure 10. Less Priority for Communication Skills in Engineering Education

When asked, 61% of the students agree with the statement that English is being treated as yet another subject to study in when majoring in engineering. Likewise, 34% of the students strongly agree with the statement. In the meantime, however, 2% of the students disagree with the statement, and only 3% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

K. Irrelevant Syllabus Design

The design of the English syllabus is not compatible with the existing demand of the job market. The English syllabus being taught in the classroom does not cater to developing basic communication skills. It is found that the teaching-learning process used in first-year English classes needed a significant overhaul and that many teachers required ESP training to prepare engineering students for the workforce. In her paper, “Employability Skills -A Study on the Perception of the Engineering Students and their Prospective Employers”, R. Chithra states that it is necessary to update the curriculum at regular intervals to cater to the requirements of the industry. Further, there should be a long and sustainable plan to train our young graduates to raise their bar to attain jobs in the competitive world. It is essential to increase the industry-academia contact. This will assure a regular supply of talent to the workforce (Chitra, 2013, p. 533).

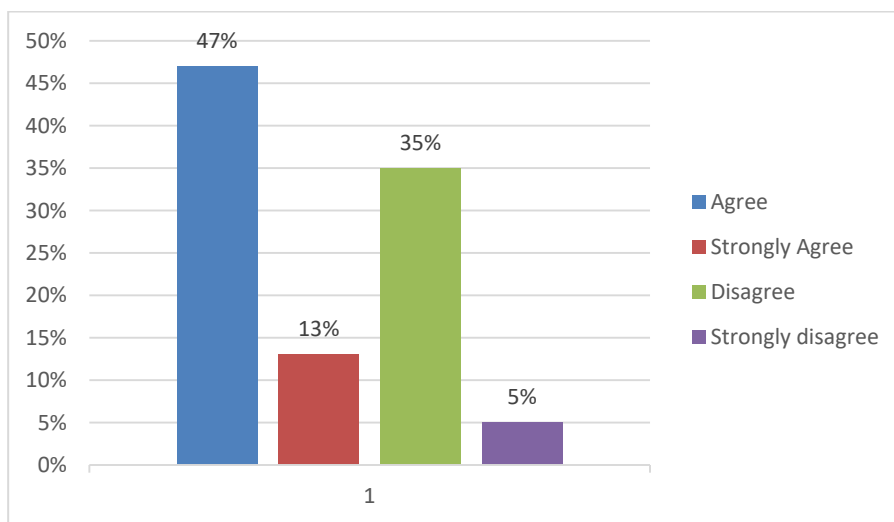


Figure 11. Irrelevant Syllabus Design

When asked, 47% of the students agree with the statement that irrelevant syllabus design is the reason for not getting employability skills in English, and 13% of the students strongly agree with the statement. Nonetheless, 35% of the students disagree with the statement and only 5% of the students strongly disagree with the statement.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

A curriculum mapping tool can be used to clearly show how the content of an English language course addresses graduate qualities and employability abilities. The building block of employability skills is curriculum mapping, which

must be backed up by effective delivery and assessment methods. It guarantees students to acquire the knowledge and abilities necessary to fulfill employer expectations.

In the paper, "English for Employability", D. Annie asserts that universities and other institutions should create a comprehensive, integrated strategy that facilitates and links the various employability competencies while enhancing English language proficiency and integrating employability enhancement into curricula. It is the responsibility of English language teachers to work hard, contribute, and help turn recent graduates into professionals who are fluent in English and who are self-assured, skillful, and competent. Amid the impending employability crisis, teachers should remain vigilant and focused on the ultimate objective of integrated, multi-skill development of the learners, along with enhancement of English language skills (Annie, 2018, p. 367).

Each student has a reservoir of unique talent. Students, however, fail to comprehend that the abilities demanded of them in the profession may be standard. Young graduates are not well-informed about what the industry expects of them. The only thing that will get him/her a job is not just a degree from a reputed college. While academic studies can introduce a student to the subject's fundamentals, it is more or less up to the student to develop communication skills to advance the subject. In their paper, "A Study on Enhancement of Language Competence Through Pragmatic Practices", Sk. Rehana, A Satya Phani Kumari, Mani Bacchu and A. Rama Devi opine that it is clear that academics recognized the students' lack of competency. However, because the level of student proficiency is only assessed by final exams, teachers are constrained to the approved texts and focus mostly on teaching grammar and vocabulary. There are language study laboratories set up, as well as activity sessions with relatively little conversation practice and expressions, like role plays or scenario dialogues, group discussions, debates, mock interviews, and so on (Rehana, 2023, p. 342). After all, a degree today is worthless if it cannot impart fundamental communication skills among students.

English proficiency is essential for employability in the competitive job market of today. Possibilities for career advancement can be aided by a strong grasp of English. Some of the motivational English speaking tips are watching English-language films and television shows that can be quite beneficial for improving pronunciation and vocabulary. Reading English language novels can also help in improving language comprehension ability. Srilakshmi Movva, Purnachandra Rao Alapati, Pawel Velivent, and Maithreyi G in their paper, "The Effect of Pre, While, and Post Listening Activities on Developing EFL Students' Listening Skills", state that the employment of the most modern listening teaching methods is one of the most significant things that should be highlighted to overcome these differences. To meet the expectations of learners, a new teaching approach should be used. This innovative approach is known as Activity-Based Language Teaching. When students are taught about the factors that influence listening, the degrees of listening, and the aspects of the listening process, they are more likely to recognize their listening abilities and participate in activities that help them become better listeners (Srilakshmi, 2022, p. 1501). Therefore, the activity-based approach in the classroom is very much helpful for students to create a robust platform to face real-time interviews.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Employees are kept on their toes as a result of private sector enterprises which are making significant progress in becoming even more competitive due to the shift in the global economy. Those who do not care for their professional development will quickly perish. Employees who can communicate effectively in English are valued members of a team nowadays. A decent level of fluency and knowledge of English communication skills is essential for career advancement. In his paper, "Impact of English for Better Employment", P. Basheer Khan states that, communication refers to the sharing of knowledge, concepts, emotions, and thoughts. Therefore, for someone to advance in their work, communication skills, and especially writing and speaking are crucial (Khan, 2017, p. 613).

Language development, namely English, is crucial for personality development. English is a target language that must be met by students, and that has to start in academia. The time has come to put our faith in educational reforms that will adapt to the demands of a changing economy and to take the necessary steps to make communicative English training for all students mandatory to ensure their participation in the workplace. Hence, it ultimately benefits all stakeholders, including businesses, the government, and the economy.

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An Acoustic Study of the Stop Consonants in Lettered-Words Produced by Chinese Mandarin Speakers

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Abstract—This paper presents key findings from an acoustic study on Chinese Mandarin Speakers' realization of the stop consonants in lettered-words and the stop consonants in Chinese phrases. The research was conducted through voice recording and analysis of data collected from Chinese Mandarin speakers. Recordings of 2000 overall tokens were collected and analyzed using Praat phonetic software. The mean VOT values obtained from both lettered-words and Chinese phrases were compared and statistically tested using the Independent Samples t-test. The research findings show that first, the stop consonants in lettered-words produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers are all voiceless stop consonants, distinguished as being [+aspirated] and [-aspirated]. Second, the VOT values of [p] [t] [k] in lettered-words are significantly lower than their counterparts in Chinese phrases. Third, the stop consonants in lettered-words have the same stop pattern as those in Chinese phrases. The research presents proof that where there is phonemic similarity (but phonetic dissimilarity) across Chinese Mandarin and English, L1 phonetic properties are strong for Chinese Mandarin speakers to produce lettered-words in L1 environment, which further confirms former scholars' conviction of mother tongue interference in L2 learning. Similar phonemes in L1 and L2 are realized identically to L1 sounds, and there is significant interference from the speaker's native language on phonetic properties produced in L2. In addition, the research presents implication for future research that might explore other acoustic features of lettered-words in Chinese Mandarin.

Index Terms—Voice Onset Time, stop consonants, lettered-word, Chinese Mandarin

I. INTRODUCTION

Lettered-words are a new word unit in Chinese Mandarin. It is “a word composed of Latin alphabet or Greek alphabet or with marks, numbers, and Chinese characters mixed in” (Liu, 2002, pp. 85-89). In the past decades, lettered-words have been more and more popular in use in Mandarin context. In the academic community, the pronunciation of lettered-words has been a subject of much controversy, which focuses on whether to adopt Chinese Phonetic Alphabet system or English alphabet system in reading lettered-words in Mandarin context (Cao, 2000; Zhou, 2000; Wang, 2000; Jia, 2000; Liu, 2002; Shen, 2003). Social researches showed that Mandarin speakers prefer using English alphabet system in reading lettered-words (Li, 2002; Wang, 2008). It should be noted that these researches were carried out in large scale and were quite persuasive, but they all depended on listening comprehension in describing the pronunciation of lettered-words, and thus difficult to distinguish those similar sounds between Chinese and English, such as stops, fricatives, and some vowels and diphthongs. None of the studies scientifically analyzed the pronunciation of lettered-words so as to disclose their influence on the phonetic system of Mandarin.

Acoustic phonetic analysis is the most scientific and accurate way to study the acoustic features and further distinguish and describe speech sounds. Among all kinds of consonants, “stop consonants are the only kind which appear in every language in the world” (Henton et al., 1992, pp. 65-101). Thus acoustic phonetic analysis is adopted in this study to analyze the acoustic features of the stop consonants in Mandarin lettered-words. The classification of stop consonants differs in English and Chinese. “In English, the stop consonants appear in voiceless/voiced pairs like /p/ and /b/, /t/ and /d/, /k/ and /g/” (Roach, 2000, p. 30); whereas “in Chinese Mandarin the stop consonants appear in aspirated/unaspirated pairs like [p^h] and [p], [t^h] and [t], [k^h] and [k]” (Zhou, 2003, p. 41). As a new number of Chinese Mandarin, most lettered-words originated from English. Thus, the aims of the given research are as follows:

1. To identify the distinctive features of the stop consonants in the lettered-words produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers.
2. To provide a comparison of the VOT values of the stop consonants in the lettered-words and those in Chinese phrases produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers.
3. To provide a comparison of the stop consonant pattern of the lettered-words and that of Chinese phrases.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Opinions on the pronunciation of lettered-words have varied. Cao (2000, pp. 11-12) hold that “Chinese Mandarin phonetic system should be adopted in reading lettered-words since they have already been a part of modern Chinese

lexicon". Zhou, Wang and Jia each put forward one way to read lettered-words. Zhou (2000) suggested Beijing accent be used; Wang (2000) suggested mathematical chemistry teachers' accent be used; Jia (2000) suggested Chinese Phonetic Alphabet (or Chinese Pinyin) be used. Meanwhile many scholars believed the pronunciation of English letters should be adopted in reading lettered-words, instead of Chinese Phonetic Alphabet (Liu, 2002; Shen, 2003; Liu, 2002). Li's (2002, pp. 93-99) social research showed that:

Chinese people tended to use the pronunciation of English letters even if some lettered-words originated from Chinese, like "HSK", the acronym of Chinese Phonetic Alphabet "Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi", Chinese Proficiency test in meaning, was read as a sequence of English letters /eɪf es keɪ/.

Wang's (2008) research on the distribution of lettered-words originated from Chinese Phonetic Alphabet showed that most members of Chinese community intentionally or unintentionally used the pronunciation of English letters to replace Chinese Phonetic Alphabet. All of the researches above on the pronunciation of lettered-words were based on listening of the researchers, which were subjective but not scientific enough.

Voice Onset Time or VOT is one of the critical features prevalent in the production of consonants. It is the "duration of the time between the release of a plosive and the beginning of vocal fold's vibration" (Bil á & Eddy, 2012, p. 49). There are three types of VOT: zero VOT (the plosive release and vibration happen together), positive VOT (the plosive is released and vocal folds start vibrating with a delay), and negative VOT (vocal folds start vibrating and then the plosive is released) (Urazbaev & Sukhrobbekov, 2021).

VOT is "an immediate parameter, which can be distinguished in terms of time between the discharge of the full oral constraint for producing the voice in a plosive manner and onset vibration s of the glottal" (Lisker & Abramson, 1964, pp. 384-422). In many languages, there are stops [b], [d], [g], which are voiced, and [p], [t], [k], which are voiceless. Moreover, one of the key indicators of voiceless and voiced stop consonants are their VOT values (Olson, 2017; Urazbaev & Sukhrobbekov, 2021).

As mentioned above, Lisker and Abramson (1964) were the pioneers in investigating the VOT of NSs of American English. After their contributions, many studies have been conducted regarding VOT of native speakers (NSs), bilingual speakers, and non-native speakers (NNSs) of various languages. (Klatt, 1975; Caruso & Burton, 1987; Kessinger & Blumstein, 1997; Macleod & Stoel-Grammon, 2005; Taechong & Ladefoged, 1999; Fowler et al., 2006) Further studies suggest that VOT plays a vital role in distinguishing individual talker differences (Allen et al., 2003; Allen & Miller, 2004; Urazbaev & Sukhrobbekov, 2021).

Meanwhile, many studies have been conducted in regarding VOT of stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin produced by Chinese NSs. Ren (1981) studied the VOT values of 2 Chinese NSs and established that the VOT values of the stop consonants [p^h], [p], [t^h], [t], [k^h], and [k] were as follows: 78.75, 4.16, 60.29, 4.21, 56.20, and 12.36 ms respectively. Qi and Zhang (1982) studied the VOT values of 13 Chinese NSs and found that the VOT values of the stop consonants were as follows: 98.1, 14.2, 106.3, 9.6, 94.3, and 22.8 ms respectively. Wu (1986) in his research found that the VOT values of the stop consonants were 85, 8, 104, 10, 89, and 15 ms respectively. In the study conducted by Shi and Liao (1986), the VOT values of the stop consonants were 94, 7, 100, 7, 103, and 18 ms respectively. Gao (2001) conducted a research on 6 Chinese NSs and found that their VOT values of the stop consonants were 79, 1, 76, 4, 88, and 18 ms respectively.

The studies above are not comparative studies and do not provide a comparative analysis of the mean VOT values of the stop consonants in lettered-words and those in common Chinese phrases. Nevertheless, the mean values found in the studies above are to be used as a baseline to compare the findings in this research.

Since lettered-words have been a member of Chinese Mandarin lexicon for decades and the views on their pronunciation have varied, this study aimed at conducting an instrumental comparative analysis of the stop consonants in lettered-words and those in common Chinese phrases produced by Chinese NSs.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants of the Study*

Convenience sampling was used in deciding the subjects of the study. Subjects were chosen among the graduate students and teachers in Tianjin University of Science and Technology. The total number of subjects was 10 (5 male and 5 female). The age range of subjects was 23 to 40.

B. *Experimental Words*

Since there was no letter in English beginning with the stop consonant [g], the VOT values in the production of the five stop consonants [p], [b], [t], [d], [k] in lettered-words were the object of the study. The experimental words used in this study were composed of two parts. Part 1 was 100 lettered-words, composed of 5 sets, with 20 lettered-words for each set. Each set had one of the five stop consonants above as the onset of the second or the third letter. Part 2 was 100 double-syllable Chinese phrases, each syllable in a consonant-vowel (C-V) syllabic structure. It is composed of 5 sets as well, with 20 phrases for each set. Each set of the phrases had one of the stop consonants [p^h], [p], [t^h], [t], and [k^h] in Chinese Mandarin as the onset of the second syllable.

The 10 study subjects were asked to pronounce each of the 200 words with a slight pause in between them, and, in total, 2000 tokens were analyzed in the research (See Appendix for experimental words).

C. Instruments

The voice recording and analyzing products used in the acoustic recording and processing are as follows.

The device used for the acoustic recording of the participants' voices was Sony Linear PCM Recorder PCM-D100. 44.1 kHz/ 16 bit was set on the recorder, and the output file was in "wav" format, which is compatible with Praat software.

Processing the recorded voices and measuring the VOT values and closure durations (or GAPS) were conducted using Praat software version 6.3.04 (Boersma & Weenink, 2023).

The numerical data obtained were further processed with IBM SPSS Version 22.0.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. VOT Values

In this section, the VOT values of the 5 stop consonants [p], [b], [t], [d], [k] in lettered-words and the 5 stop consonants [p^h], [p], [t^h], [t], [k^h] in Chinese phrases will be analyzed in 5 pairs as follows.

(a). VOT of [p] and [ph]

In the experimental lettered-words with the stop consonant [p], like "APC", "CPI", et al., the mean VOT value was 78 ms. In Chinese phrases with the stop consonant [ph], like "开辟" ("kai pi" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), "精辟" ("jing pi" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), et al., the mean VOT value was 98 ms. The standard deviation (SD) for lettered-words was 18.06 and 17.51 for Chinese phrases.

When the mean VOT values were statistically tested in SPSS for significance, it was found that the mean VOT of [p] in lettered-words was significantly lower ($p = .000$) than that of [ph] in Chinese phrases.

(b). VOT of [b] and [p]

In the production of lettered-words with the stop consonant [b], like "ABC", "BBS", et al, the mean VOT value was 13 ms (SD = 4.51). In Chinese phrases with the stop consonant [p], like "关闭" ("guan bi" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), "封闭" ("feng bi" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), et al., the mean VOT value was 12 ms (SD = 4.36).

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean VOT value for [b] in lettered-words and [p] in Chinese phrases. There was no significant difference ($p = .287$) between them.

(c). VOT of [t] and [t^h]

The mean VOT value for lettered-words with the stop consonant [t], like "IT", "ETC", et al. was 83 ms (SD = 15.09). The mean VOT value for Chinese phrases with the stop consonant [t^h], like "鼻涕" ("bi ti" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), "警惕" ("jing ti" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), et al. was 95 ms (SD = 21.41).

The results of an independent samples t-test indicated that the mean VOT value of [t] in lettered-words was significantly lower ($p = .000$) than that of [t^h] in Chinese phrases.

(d). VOT of [d] and [t]

In the pronunciation of lettered-words with the stop consonant [d], like "GDP", "VCD", et al., the mean VOT value was 18 ms (SD = 6.03). In Chinese phrases with the stop consonant [t], like "兄弟" ("xiong di" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), "子弟" ("zi di" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), et al., the mean VOT value was 16 ms (SD = 5.81).

An independent samples t-test showed that the mean VOT of [d] in lettered-words was significantly higher than that of [t] in Chinese phrases ($p = .008$).

(e). VOT of [k] and [k^h]

In the [k] sound production, the mean VOT value in lettered-words, like "PK", "OK", et al., was 87 ms (SD = 17.95). In Chinese phrases, like "干枯" ("gan ku" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), "水库" ("shui ku" in Chinese Phonetic Alphabet), et al., the mean VOT value of the stop consonant [k^h] was 93 ms (SD = 17.36).

An independent samples t-test indicated that the mean VOT of [k] in lettered-words was significantly lower than that of [k^h] in Chinese phrases ($p = .012$).

According to the research results, the mean VOT values in the production of stop consonants [p], [t], [k] in lettered-words were significantly lower than their counterparts [p^h], [t^h], [k^h] in Chinese phrases, the mean VOT value of [d] in lettered-words were significantly higher than its counterpart [t] in Chinese phrases, and for the stop consonant [b], there was no significant difference between the mean VOT value of [b] in lettered-words and that of [p] in Chinese phrases (See Figure 1).

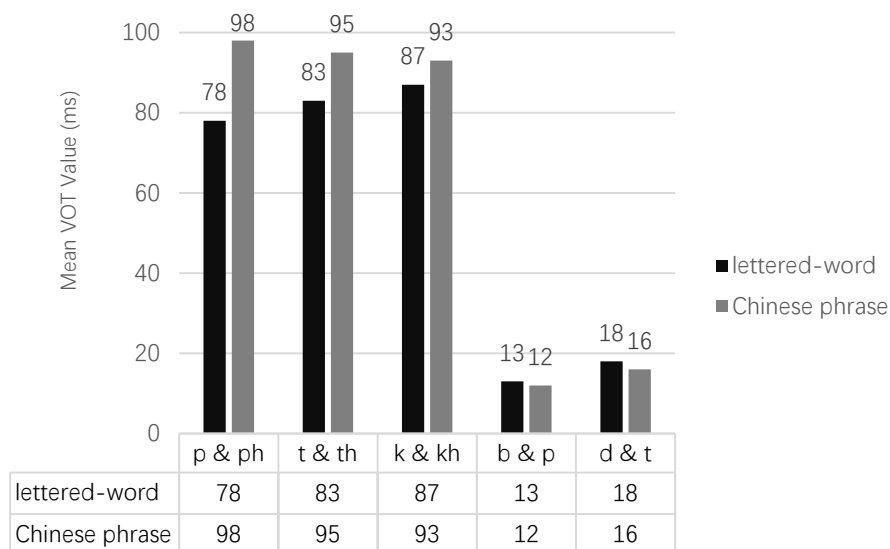


Figure 1. Vot Values of Lettered-Words and Chinese Phrases

These findings above fulfilled the aims of this study. First, English stop consonants are classified as being [+voice] or [-voice], though “in word-initial position they only have a long voicing lag vs short voicing lag distinction” (Kent & Read, 2002, p. 141; Raphael et al., 2011, pp. 129-135). Whereas the stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin are all [-voice], or voiceless stops, and they are distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated] (Luo & Wang, 2009). From the Praat analysis and Figure 1 above, it can be concluded that the stop consonants in the lettered-words produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers, though all in intervocalic positions, are all voiceless stops, and they are distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated]. This finding, therefore, indicated that lettered-words, though most of which originate from English, are actually governed by the phonetic pattern of Chinese Mandarin, in which the stop consonants are all voiceless stops and are distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated]. In other words, the acoustic analysis of the stop consonants in lettered-words confirms the Target Language’s influence on the Source Language phonetic properties in Target Language context.

Second, data analysis showed that within the five groups of stop consonants, the VOT values of [p] [t] [k] in lettered-words were significantly lower than those of [p^h] [t^h] [k^h] in Chinese phrases. These significant differences in aspirated voiceless stops lie in the fact that the stop consonants in English and those in Chinese Mandarin have different distinctive features. Distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated], stops in Chinese Mandarin have a larger range of VOT values, since the degree of aspiration is closely related to the VOT value. In other words, the aspirated voiceless stops in Chinese phrases have a significantly higher degree of aspiration than those in lettered-words. As for the VOT values of [b] and [d] in lettered-words and [p] and [t] in Chinese phrases, the results only showed significant difference between [d] in letter-words and [t] in Chinese phrases. This result cannot confirm any significant differences between the voiced stops in lettered-words and unaspirated voiceless stops in Chinese phrases. Furthermore, both [b] and [d] sounds in lettered-words, though in intervocalic position, showed a voicing lag (ranging from 4 ms to 28 ms). Since the English stop consonants [b] [d] [g] in an inter-vocalic position are voiced (Ladefoged, 1982) and “show a voicing lead (within the range -19 ms to -143 ms)” (Docherty, 1992), finding in this study highlights a negative transfer of Chinese Mandarin phonetic system on the phonetic realization of the voiced stop consonants in lettered-words. Voiced stops in lettered-words are actually realized as unaspirated voiceless stops in Chinese Mandarin context.

Moreover, the VOT values of the stop consonants in the lettered-words and Chinese phrases got from this study are in line with those former studies on the stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin, as shown in Table 1.

The data in Table 1 show that when producing lettered-words, Chinese Mandarin speakers tend to use similar stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin to replace the original pronunciation of lettered-words so that the stop consonants in lettered-words keep the basic acoustic features of the stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin. In the five stop consonants in lettered-words, the two voiced stop consonants [b] and [d] are actually unaspirated voiceless stop consonants [p] and [t]. Both of them have a short voicing lag (that is, a short lag VOT), which means “the length of time between plosive release and the initiation of voicing is either relatively short (less than 30 ms) or the plosive is released simultaneously with the start of vocal fold vibration” (Kent & Read, 2002, p. 141; Borden et al., 1994; Shahidi & Aman, 2011). The three voiceless stop consonants [p] [t] [k] in lettered-words and their counterparts [p^h] [t^h] [k^h] in Chinese Mandarin are all stop consonants with a long voicing lag (that is, long lag VOT), which applies when “the length of the time between plosive release and voicing onset is relatively long (exceeding around 35ms)” (Kent & Read, 2002, p. 141; Shahidi & Aman, 2011).

TABLE 1
VOT VALUES OF CHINESE STOP CONSONANTS REPORTED

Authors	Stop Consonants and Reported VOT Values						Subjects
	[p ^h]	[p]	[t ^h]	[t]	[k ^h]	[k]	
Ren Hongmo (1981)	78.75	4.16	60.29	4.21	56.20	12.36	CHINESE NSs
Qin Shiyin & Zhang Jialu (1982)	98.1	14.2	106.3	9.6	94.3	22.8	Chinese NSs
Wu Zongji (1986)	85	8	104	10	89	15	Chinese NSs
Shi Feng & Liao Rongrong (1986)	94	7	100	7	103	18	Chinese NSs
Gao Meishu (2001)	79	1	76	4	88	18	Chinese NSs
Lettered-words (this research)	78	13	83	18	87	n/a	Chinese NSs
Chinese Mandarin (this research)	98	12	95	16	93	n/a	Chinese NSs

Overall, the acoustic findings of the research in terms of the realization of the stop consonants in lettered-words in Chinese Mandarin context are conformant with the studies carried out by Cao (2000), Zhou (2000), Wang (2000), and Jia (2000), all of whom insisted that Chinese phonetic system should be adopted in reading lettered-words. Meanwhile, the findings rejects the claims put forward by Liu (2002), Shen (2003), Liu (2002), Li (2002), and Wang (2008), all of whom insisted that the original pronunciation of Latin letters, or English phonetic system, be adopted in reading lettered-words.

B. Stop Patterns

The patterning of language is an interconnected relationship. The sound pattern in the same language is relatively stable. In this way it mediates the mutual exchange of information between different speakers. Sound pattern comes about by the quantitative analysis, and the statistical graphical representation of the kinds of corresponding consistent relations in a system via phonetic experimentation. The two important acoustic features of stops are the GAP (closure duration) and VOT. Using VOT and GAP as coordinates, constructing a stop acoustic space is a simple and easy method (Shi et al., 2010). Table 2 shows the mean values of VOT and GAP of the stop consonants in this research. Figure 2 is the consonant pattern of stops in lettered-words and Figure 3 is the consonant pattern of stops in Chinese phrases.

TABLE 2
VOT VALUES AND GAP VALUES OF THE STOP CONSONANTS

Stop	[p]	[t]	[k]	[b]	[d]	[p ^h]	[t ^h]	[k ^h]	[p]	[t]
VOT	78	83	87	13	18	98	95	93	12	16
GAP	56	42	40	94	55	27	15	25	36	25

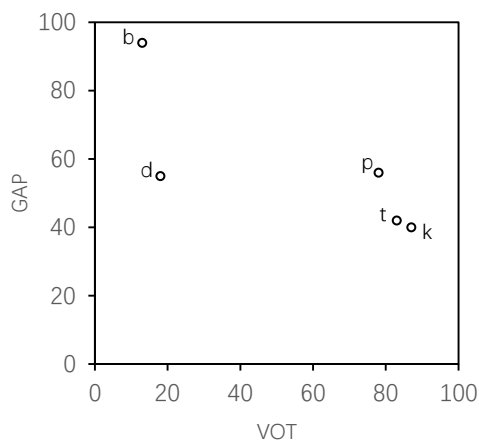


Figure 2. Stop Pattern Chart of Lettered-Words

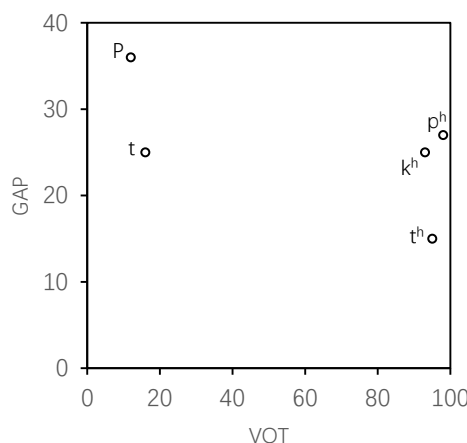


Figure 3. Stop Pattern Chart of Chinese Phrases

On the stop pattern chart, the ordinate axis expresses the features of stops themselves, mainly reflecting the degree of muscle tension and the characteristics of tensify/ laxity of pronunciation. The abscissa axis expresses the attributes of the manner of stop pronunciation. It relates to whether the plosive is voiced and the degree of aspiration. On the stop pattern chart, stops of the same category have aggregative properties, different stop categories can be easily distinguished and the characteristics of different stops can be also well manifested (Shi et al., 2010).

An obvious distinction between Figure 2 and Figure 3 is the range of ordinate axis. In Figure 2, the range of ordinate axis is 0-100 ms while in Figure 3 it is 0-40 ms, which is due to the research subjects' different closure durations in reading lettered-words and Chinese phrases. As L2 of English, Chinese Mandarin speakers have a higher degree of

muscle tension when pronouncing lettered-words, while they are quite relaxed when pronouncing Chinese phrases, which results in the different ranges of GAP in the experiment. In spite of the difference in closure durations, the stop distributions in the two charts are the same. The two unaspirated voiceless stops are aggregated into the upper left part, and the three aspirated voiceless stops are aggregated into the middle right part. The stop consonants in lettered-words have the same stop pattern as those in Chinese phrases, which further confirms the fact that Chinese Mandarin phonetic system is adopted to Chinese Mandarins' pronunciations of the stop consonants in lettered-words.

V. CONCLUSION

The aims of this research were to identify the distinctive features of the stop consonants in lettered-words and to provide a comparison of the VOT values, as well as the stop patterns, of the stop consonants in the lettered-words and those in Chinese phrases produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers. The research findings indicate that first, the stop consonants in lettered-words produced by Chinese Mandarin speakers are all voiceless stop consonants, distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated]. Second, as the indicators of the degree of aspiration, the VOT values of [p] [t] [k] in lettered-words are significantly lower than their counterparts in Chinese Mandarin, which is due to the different distinctive features of the stop consonants in English, distinguished as being [+voice] or [-voice], and in Chinese Mandarin, distinguished as being [+aspirated] or [-aspirated]. Third, the stop consonants in lettered-words, though with much longer closure durations, have the same stop pattern as those in Chinese phrases.

The results show that the wide spread and application of lettered-words haven't brought voiced stop consonants into Chinese Mandarin, and that phonetic the system of stop consonants in Chinese Mandarin hasn't changed. The results reject former researches which claimed that lettered-words should be pronounced in standard English pronunciation, for most of them come from English, and the original pronunciation is to be adopted by Chinese Mandarin speakers along with the global communication (Li, 2002; Liu, 2002; Shen, 2003; Liu, 2002). It is demonstrated in this study that where there is phonemic similarity (but phonetic dissimilarity) across Chinese Mandarin and English, L1 phonetic properties are thus found to be strong for Chinese Mandarin speakers to produce lettered-words in the L1 environment, which further confirms Corder's (1994), Selinker's (1972), and Lado's (1957) conviction of mother-tongue interference in L2 learning. Similar phonemes in L1 and L2 are realized identically to L1 sounds. There is significant interference from the speaker's native language on phonetic properties produced in English.

The findings of the study will contribute to the body of knowledge on the instrumental study of lettered-word pronunciation by Chinese Mandarin speakers, which will serve as a basis for carrying out further studies on acoustic phonetic analysis of the affricates, nasal, and vowels in lettered-words.

APPENDIX. LIST OF EXPERIMENTAL WORDS USED IN THE STUDY

Lettered-words

[p] APC BP 机 CPI GDP EPA GPS HPC VIP KPT LPG MP3 GNP PPA ERP SPF TPO
UPS VP WPS XP
[b] ABC BBC CBA DB EBD FBI GB HB IBO KB LB MBA NBA PBX QBE RBC
SBS TB USB UVB
[t] ATM 机 CCTV HDTV ETC FTA GTC HTTP IT JT 票 KTV LT MTV TNT OTC PT
RTV ST TTL UT WTO
[d] ADSL CBD CDR IDD EDI FDA GDP HDTV IDC KDJ 指标 LD NMD NDF 合约 VOD
PDA QDII SDR STD UDC VCD
[k] GBK 码 CKD NHK CJK MKSA 键 OK 键 PK HSK WSK TKS
AQ BQ ICQ EQ HQ IQ LQ MQ QQ RQ

Chinese phrases

[p^h] 开辟 精辟 透辟 怪癖 孤僻 生僻 冷僻 砖坯 土坯 毛坯 一批 牛皮 地皮 粉皮 顽皮
调皮 橡皮 毛皮 去皮 脸皮
[p] 关闭 封闭 隐蔽 货币 作弊 包庇 礼毕 奴婢 复辟 躲避 左臂 右臂 硬币 银币 金币
纸币 枪毙 完璧 峭壁 密闭
[t^h] 鼻涕 代替 警惕 喷嚏 抽屉 笼屉 衰替 兴替 电梯 楼梯 阶梯 挑剔 马蹄 命题 出题
问题 审题 前提 猪蹄 切题
[t] 上帝 大地 皇帝 称帝 反帝 真谛 妙谛 二弟 小弟 胞弟 堂弟 表弟 妻弟 兄弟 子弟
科第 落第 门第 府第 宅第
[k^h] 清咖 奶咖 石窟 干枯 啼哭 水库 国库 仓库 短裤 棉裤 毛裤 残酷 冷酷 唠嗑 一棵
牙科 眼科 文科 理科 学科

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Morphological Process Through Inflectional Suffixation in English and Muna Language: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract—The influence of regional grammar systems in learning English as a foreign language makes it difficult for students to use English. This study aims to find similarities and differences in the grammatical systems of English and Muna languages at the morphological level. Morphologically, English is a flexion type, while Muna is an incorporation type. This study uses a qualitative descriptive approach with a contrastive study method. The data used are complex words containing inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages. Research data in English were taken from library sources in the form of textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, and literary works in the form of short stories. The data in the Muna language were taken from field research in the Muna area by applying the techniques of skill engagement, note-taking, elicitation and introspection. The technique of data analysis uses ICA (immediate constituent analysis). The results show that Muna inflectional suffixes are more varied than English inflectional suffixes. It is due to the morphological type of Muna as an agglutinative language, while English is a flexion language.

Index Terms—morphological process, Muna language, English, suffixation, inflectional

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning English as a foreign language is difficult to teach or master. Even though students have studied it for years, there are still many mistakes in using English from a grammatical aspect. According to Chastain (2006, p. 42), the difference between the English grammar system and the mother tongue (regional language) is the main cause, in addition to the lack of learning facilities, the unsupportive social environment of students, or perhaps the inability of the students themselves. In this study, the regional language in question is the Muna language.

English and Muna languages are very different morphologically. English is a flexion type (Quirk, 1989), while Muna is an incorporation type (Sande et al., 1986). As a flexion language, the morphemes' boundaries in English words are unclear because they constantly change form based on time, persona, gender, number, and case. On the other hand, in Muna language as an incorporation language, the morphemes contained in words have a role as syntactical elements so that in units of words they contain sentence elements so that they are known as morphosyntactic languages (Sande et al., 1986). It is the basic difference between the morphological types of English and the Muna language.

The complexity of the differences in morphological structure between English and the Muna language makes it difficult for students who speak the Muna dialect to master the grammatical system of English at the morphological level, even at the syntactic level. The structure of the Muna language causes this as the mother tongue, which has been firmly rooted in the minds of these students. According to Sapir-Whorf's hypothesis, the language system influences

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one's thinking. The language system in question is not the vocabulary contained in a language but its structure or grammar. Likewise, Chaer (2009, p. 53) stated that structure or grammar influences people's thinking.

As a result of the influence of the structure of the mother tongue, in this case, the Muna language, students who study English often experience interference. Interference means disturbance or mixture. In linguistics, interference is an error in the use of the language being learned (foreign language) due to the influence of the mother tongue system (regional language); in this case, there is a mixing of the structure of the foreign language with the structure of the local language. Alwasilah (1993, p. 131) asserts that the mother tongue (regional language) has the potential to influence foreign languages, so many foreign language errors are caused by carrying over one's habits in using the mother tongue (regional language).

Based on the background above, the contrastive analysis in this research aims to compare grammatical systems at the morphological level between English and Muna languages. Every language has similarities and differences. The similarity in question is universal; every language has morphological elements in the form of words and morphemes, while the difference is the uniqueness of each language (language unique) as a differentiator from one language to another (Sudaryanto, 1992, p. 8). Therefore, this current research analyzes a grammatical system of morphological processes in the formation of more complex words in each language. The aims of this research are 1) to identify the types of inflectional suffixes which morphologically play a role in forming more complex words in English and Muna language. 2) analyzing the inflectional suffixation process contrastive between English and Muna languages.

II. RELEVANT RESEARCH

Much research related to the current study topic has been carried out before using various research approaches and analytical techniques, such as Adiantika (2020), Misdawati (2019), Rohim et al. (2013), Saini (2016), and Uktolseja et al. (2019). All the studies above used the diachronic contrastive method. First, through a contrastive study, Adiantika (2020) compares declarative sentences in English and Indonesian. The results of his research show that declarative sentence patterns in Indonesian and English are similar in transitive, ambitransitive, and intransitive sentences. At the same time, the difference is in the nominal, adjective, prepositional, and numeral categories. Uktolseja et al. (2019) examined errors in using English and Indonesian sentence types in 20 students at Victory University, Memphis, Tunisia. The results of this study indicate that most of the students' mistakes are in the types of declarative, negative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. Differences in sentence patterns in English and Indonesian cause this. There are fewer errors in this type of imperative sentence because the pattern of imperative sentences in English and Indonesian is the same. Then, Misdawati (2019) applies a contrastive study to compare two different language structures, namely the structure of the language being studied (Arabic) and the source language (Indonesian).

Furthermore, Saini (2016) examined errors in the use of inverted English sentences in composition (writing). It was found that the Indonesian inversion sentence structure influenced the errors in the use of English inversion sentences by students. So, this error is used by English teachers in implementing remedial learning by displaying two inversion sentence patterns in both languages so that younger students understand them. Finally, Rohim et al. (2013) examined the comparison of Indonesian and Arabic in terms of tense, number, and persona. The results of this study indicate that at the temporal level, in Indonesian, it is not integrated into words but must be added, for example, *telah* 'has', *akan* 'will', and *sedang* 'is'. Whereas in Arabic, when is integrated into word construction. At the numerical level, Indonesian only recognizes singular and plural numbers, whereas, in Arabic, there are singular, dual and plural numbers. At the personal level, there are similarities between Indonesian and Arabic, namely first person, second person, and third person.

III. THEORY AND CONCEPT

Morphological Process

The morphological process is forming words by combining or connecting one morpheme with another (Samsuri, 1994, p. 190). The word formed in the morphological process comes from another unit, the basic form. The base form may be a word, a principal word, and a phrase; for example, the word *menggergaji* 'saw' comes from the word *gergaji* 'saw' as its base form; then the word *bertemu* 'meet' comes from the main word *temu* 'met' as its basic form; the word *ketidakadilan* 'injustice' is formed from the phrase *tidak adil* 'unfair'; the word *rumah sakit* 'hospital' is formed from the word *rumah* 'house' and the word *sakit* 'sick'; the word *pasukan tempur* 'combat troops' comes from the basic form of the word *pasukan* 'troop' and the main word *tempur* 'combat'; the word *lomba tari* 'dance competition' is formed from the word *lomba* 'competition' and the main word *tari* 'dance' (Ramlan, 1997, p. 51).

Matthews (1974, pp. 116-134) divides morphological processes into six types, namely (1) affixation, which is divided into prefixation, suffixation, and infixation; (2) reduplication; (3) modification (vowel change); (4) suppletion; (5) suprafixes (subphonemic affixes); and (6) subtraction. Affixation is the use of certain types of affixes in the form of prefixes; for example, the prefix *-un*, when attached to the beginning of the word *happy*, becomes *unhappy* 'not happy'; suffixes, for example, *happy* becomes *happiness* after being attached to the suffix *-ness* at the end of the word; and infixation, for example in the Muna language the word *kala* 'go' becomes *kumala* 'will go' after being inserted with the infix *-um*.

Reduplication is a process of word repetition, e.g., in the Muna language, *ghondo* ‘see’ becomes *ghondo-ghondo* ‘look after’ after receiving the whole repetition. The process of modification is also called vowel change. In other words, the occurrence of certain vowel changes in construction. For example, in English, the word *man* (singular) becomes *men* (plural) by changing the vowel /a/ to /e/. Suppletion is also called a complete modification because changes occur in the entire construction. For example, the word *go* changed to *went* (past tense). Suprafix is a suprasegmental affix that concerns tone in pronunciation. For example, in Lumaasaba (a Bantu language in southern Africa), [a:bo:ne] ‘he saw’ is pronounced in a flat tone. If spoken in an even-decreasing tone, it will be [a:bo:ne] ‘he has seen’. Subtraction is the formation of reduced elements in a construction; for example, in English, the word *datum* turns into *data* when the noun is plural. In French, the word *blanche* refers to women; when addressed to men, it becomes *blanc*.

The character or system of the language described determines these types of morphological processes. In Indonesian, for example, the types of morphological processes only consist of (1) affixation, (2) reduplication, and (3) composition (Ramlan, 1997). This division is based on the Indonesian word-formation system, which does not recognize modification, suffix, suprafix and subtraction, as stated by Matthews above. In the following, the types of morphological processes proposed by Samsuri (1994) will be described, which consist of five types of morphological processes based on data from English, Indonesian, and regional languages (Javanese).

A. Affixation

Affixation is the formation of words by adding affixes to basic morphemes, both free and bound base morphemes. Affixes are of three types: prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. The prefix is placed in front of the root. For example, the prefix *me-* in Indonesian is placed before the base word *beli* ‘buy’ became *membeli* ‘to buy’. This process also occurs in the Muna language; for example, the prefix *pa-* placed in front of the root *pongko* ‘kill’ becomes *papongko* ‘killer’. In English, the prefix *dis-* is placed before the word similarity becomes dissimilar.

The infix *-um* in the Muna language, if inserted in the root form *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *ghumoli* ‘will buy’. As for the type of affix in the form of a suffix is always affixed at the end of the basic form. For example, in the Muna language, the suffix *-ha*, which is attached to the end of the basic form *kala* ‘go’, becomes *kalaha* ‘to go’. In English, the suffix *-ment* attached at the end of the word “*govern*” becomes “*government*”.

B. Reduplication

Reduplication is the repetition of basic morphemes either in whole or part, accompanied by affixes or without certain affixes. Examples of reduplication in Indonesian:

<i>Rumah</i> ‘house’	→	<i>Rumah-rumah</i> ‘houses’
<i>Jalan</i> ‘walk’	→	<i>Jalan-jalan</i> ‘strolls’
<i>Lari</i> ‘run’	→	<i>Berlari-lari</i> ‘run’

The basic morphemes of *rumah* and *jalan* are repeated entirely, so they become houses and stroll, while the repetition of the basic morpheme *lari* accompanied by the prefix *-ber* in the first constituent becomes *berlari-lari*. The process of reduplication in the Muna language also occurs as much as in Indonesian. Similar to Samsuri’s statement (1994, p. 191), reduplication is a morphological process that occurs in many languages worldwide. The following are examples of reduplication in the Muna language.

<i>Buso</i> ‘blow’	→	<i>Buso-buso</i> ‘blowing’
<i>Kala</i> ‘walk’	→	<i>Kala-kala</i> ‘walking’
<i>Sia</i> ‘bite’	→	<i>Pokasia-sia</i> ‘bite slowly’

The basic morphemes of *buso* ‘blow’ and *kala* ‘walking’ are repeated as a whole to form the words *buso-buso* ‘blowing’ and the *kala* ‘walking’. In the basic morpheme *sia* ‘bite’, there is repetition which is accompanied by the affix *-poka* so that the word *pokasia-sia* ‘bite slowly’ is formed.

C. Internal Change

Internal change is the process of changing the form of a morpheme that occurs in its basic form. This process is referred to as a vocal change or due to the change in morpheme form is caused by a change in a vowel, for example in English:

Foot (singular)	→	Feet (plural)
Sing (present)	→	Sang (past)

The basic form of *foot* changes to *feet* due to changing the vowel *o* to the vowel *e*. Likewise, the case with the basic form *sing* changes to the *sang* due to the change in the vowel *i* to the vowel *a*. Although changes in structure in a process like this only occur in vowel changes, they make a change in meaning (see Samloy & Ekoputranti, 1998, p. 32). The word *foot* refers to the singular meaning, while the word *feet* means the plural, the word *sing* denotes the singing activity carried out in the present time, but the word *sang* denotes the singing activity in the past.

D. Suppletion

Suppletion is a morphological process that causes a new form. For example, in English, the word “*go*” changed to “*went*”. The word *go* denotes the activity of ‘going’, carried out in the present time, while *went* expresses the activity of ‘going’, carried out in the past.

E. Blank Modification

Blank modification is a word change process that does not occur in its form but in its concept. For example, the word *sheep* expresses only one sheep and more than one sheep (plural).

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Design

This research uses a descriptive qualitative approach. Descriptive aims to describe the grammatical elements of English and Muna language as objects of study. Meanwhile, qualitative relates to the perspectives of the individuals studied, detailed descriptions of context, sensitivity to processes, and so on, which can be traced to their epistemological roots (Brannen, 2002, p. 83). Describes descriptive-qualitative research as research that understands the phenomena experienced by research subjects holistically and is descriptive in the form of words and language in special natural contexts (Rosyidi et al. 2010, p. 162). In line with this explanation, Ratna (2009, pp. 116-134) states that qualitative methods pay attention to natural data concerning context, which is applied in understanding and interpreting existing facts.

B. Type and Sources of Data

The data in this study are complex words containing inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages. This data consists of primary data and secondary data. Primary data comes from the use of language in the field. In contrast, secondary data comes from document materials in textbooks, journals, research reports, newspapers and literary works in short stories.

C. Data Collection Technique

English data was taken through documentation techniques. This data comes from written documents in the form of textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, and literary works in the form of short stories. The Muna language data in the form of complex words containing infectious suffixes will be collected through field research in the Muna area. To retrieve these data, the techniques used were: (1) skilled engagement, the researcher was directly involved in the conversation using the Muna language; (2) noted, researchers recorded relevant data when interacting socially using the Muna language; (3) elicitation, namely checking the correctness of the data obtained on native Muna speakers; and (4) introspection, namely checking the correctness of the data by using their knowledge as Muna speakers (the head of the research team is a Muna speaker). In qualitative research, the main instrument in data collection is the researcher himself (Sunaryo, 1997, p. 25).

D. Data Analysis Technique

Data for both languages are inventoried and classified separately (English and Muna). Next, an analysis is carried out by applying the ICA (Immediate Constituent Analysis) technique. This technique explains the role of each type of inflectional suffix in the morphologically more complex word formation process in both languages. Implementing the ICA technique is also used in decomposing complex words into the root, stem, base parts, and the types of suffixes. The decomposition of these parts becomes the basis for describing and explaining the morphological processes that occur in forming more complex words through inflectional suffixation. Through a contrastive study, the grammatical systems of the two languages in the morphological process can be displayed to compare the two clearly. Thus, the similarities and differences in the grammatical systems of English and Muna language at the morphological level can be described.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Inflectional Suffixes of English and Muna Language

The process of suffixation or the use of suffixes, is part of the morphological process of forming more complex words. According to Yatim (1992, pp. 170-175), more complex word formation processes consist of two types, namely inflective processes and derivative processes. The inflective process or inflective word-formation does not form new words that differ in lexical identity from the basic word form, while the formation of words in a derivative form new words that differ in lexical identity from the basic form. The lexical identity referred to here is a category or class of words. For example, in English, the suffix *-ment*, attached at the end of the verb *entertain*, becomes the noun *entertainment*. In this process, there is a change in lexical identity or word classes from verbs to nouns. On the other hand, the suffix *-ing* attached at the end of the verb *go* becomes *going*. In this process, there is a change in lexical identity or word class because *go* as a verb and *going* are also classed as verbs.

Thus, the type of suffix that plays a role in the word formation inflectively does not change the lexical identity of the base word or does not change the class of the base word called an inflectional suffix. On the other hand, derivational suffixes that play a role in the process of word formation in derivatives cause a change in the identity of the base word or the word class of the base word. In the following, the types of inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages will be explained.

(a).. Inflectional Suffixes in English

There are 8 types of inflectional suffixes in English, namely a) plural Suffixes, b) present Tense Suffixes, c) past Tense Suffixes, d) possessive Suffixes, e) present Participle Suffix, f) past participle Suffixes, g) comparative Suffixes, and h) superlative Suffixes. Furthermore, each type of inflectional suffix above is described below.

1. Plural Suffix

A plural suffix is a type of suffix which is a plural marker. Words attached by this type of suffix are nouns. After being attached to this suffix, the singular noun becomes a plural noun, e.g. *garden*. If the suffix *-s* was attached to the end of the word, it becomes *gardens*. The suffix *-s* in the word *garden* acts as a plural former.

In addition, there is also the suffix *-es* as a plural marker in English. The suffix *-es* is attached to nouns that end in *s*, *sh*, and *ch*. For example, the word *glass* ends with *s*, *dish* ends with *sh*, and *church* ends with *ch*. These words must be attached with the suffix *-es*, not the suffix *-e*, so forms the plural, such as *glasses*, *dishes*, and *churches*. Then, there is also the suffix *-en* as a plural marker in English. Suffix *-en* is only attached to certain words; for example, the word *ox* (singular) becomes *oxen* (plural), and *child* (singular) becomes *children* (plural).

2. Present Tense Suffix

A present tense suffix is a type of suffix that acts as a present tense marker. Tense in English is a form of a verb or a series of verb forms used to express a time relationship (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 40). This tense is not a free constituent lexical unit. Still, it is always tucked into a verb (verb), becoming a time marker in implementing that verb.

There are three kinds of tense in English: present, past, and future. The present tense is denoted by the suffixes *-s* and *-es*. The suffixes *-s* and *-es* are used specifically in the subject of the third person singular: *she*, *he* and *it*. For example: "he plays football in the afternoon twice a week". The verb *plays* in this sentence consists of *play* as the base form and the suffix *-s*. Then, "Julia takes twenty credits this semester". The verb *takes* in this sentence consists of *take* as a basic form and the suffix *-s* as a marker of the present tense for the subject Julia. The suffixes *-s* and *-es* use depends on the verb. If the verb ends in a sound (*s*, *sh*, *ch*), the suffix is *-es*. Apart from that, use the suffix *-s*.

3. Past Tense Suffix

A past tense suffix is a type of suffix that marks past time. This type of suffix is the *-d* and *-ed* suffix. It applies to all types of subjects. Basic verbs that use the suffixes *-d* and *-ed* were done in the past, just like the words *play* and *enjoy* become *played* and *enjoyed* in the past tense. The word *play* ends with the consonant "y" and is preceded by the vowel "a". Likewise, the word *enjoy* ends with the consonant "y" and is preceded by the vowel "o". Conversely, if the verb ends with "y" and is preceded by a consonant, then the consonant "y" changes to the vowel "i" and then uses the suffix *-ed*. For example, *the cry* becomes *cried* (past form), and *study* becomes *studied* (past form). The word *cry* ends with the consonant "y", preceded by "r". Likewise, the verb *study* ends with the consonant "y", preceded by the consonant "d". The suffix *-ed* is also used with words that end *ch*, *sk*, and *sh*, as in *catch*, *ask*, and *wish*.

4. Possessive Suffix

A possessive suffix is a type of suffix that marks the form of belonging. This type of suffix is *'s* (apostrophe s), for example, *Alice's house*. The apostrophe (*'s*) in *Alice* as subject indicates belonging. In this case, the house belongs to *Alice*.

5. Present Participle Suffix

A present participle suffix is a type of present participle marking suffix. This type of suffix is *-ing*, which is attached to the end of the verb. Structurally, the present participle is the same as the gerund but differs in word class. Generally, the gerund is a noun class formed from a verb base, while the present participle remains of the verb class, which is formed from a verb base. For example: *interviewing him does not affect the changes*. The word "interviewing" as the subject in this sentence comes from the word "interview" (verb), then the suffix *-ing* is attached to become *interviewing* as the present participle. In contrast to the following sentence: *interviewing people is his duty*. In this sentence, the word *interviewing* is a noun class formed from the verb *interview*; in this sentence, as a gerund.

6. Past Participle Suffix

A past participle suffix is a suffix that acts as a marker for the form of the past participle. The suffixes in question are *-d/-ed*, *-n/-en*, and *-t*. In English, there are regular verbs and irregular verbs. Regular verbs usually form the past participle with the suffix *-d* or *-ed*. For example, the word *ask* becomes *asked*, *kick* becomes *kicked*, and *cry* becomes *cried*. Meanwhile, irregular verbs use suffixes *-n/-en* and *-t* to form past participle. For example:

eat	→	Eaten
beat	→	beaten
forbid	→	Forbidden
grow	→	Grown
draw	→	Drawn
rise	→	Risen
dwell	→	Dwelt
spell	→	Spelt

7. Comparative Suffix

A comparative suffix is a type of suffix that is a marker of the form of a comparative or comparison. In English, the suffix that expresses comparative degrees is the suffix *-er* attached to an adjective, as described in the following sentence.

1. Reading is *easier* than writing
2. My mother is *younger* than my father

The suffix *-er* attached to the word “easy” becomes “easier” in a sentence (1) to compare *reading* and *writing* activities. That is, reading is easier than writing. Likewise, in a sentence (2), the suffix *-er* attached to the adjective *young* becomes *younger*, indicating a comparison between my mother and my father. That is, my mother is *younger* than my father.

8. Superlative Suffix

A superlative suffix is a type of suffix that expresses the superior (most) comparison. This suffix is *-est*, which is attached to an adjective. Its use in a sentence begins with the word “the”, as described in the following sentences.

1. We plan to build the *biggest* mosque in this town
2. The *nearest* super market from here is Lippo

The word *biggest* in sentence (1) comes from the base form “big,” which is attached by the suffix *-est* becomes “biggest”. Likewise, the word *nearest* in a sentence (2) comes from the base form “near,” which is attached by the suffix *-est*, becomes *nearest* (the closest).

(b). Inflectional Suffix of Muna language

Inflectional suffixes in Muna consist of eight types, namely a) invitative suffix, b) assertive suffix, c) plural suffix, d) totality suffixes, e) repetitive suffixes, f) causative suffixes, g) beneficial suffixes, h) idiomatic suffixes. Furthermore, each of the above types is described below.

1. Invitative Suffix (*Sufiks Invitatif*)

Invitative suffix is a type of suffix that states an invitation or allows someone to do a certain activity. In Muna, the type of invitative suffix is *-mo*. The suffix *-mo* is attached at the end of the verb, for example:

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------|---|------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Pesua</i> ‘come’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>pesuamo</i> ‘come in’ |
| 2. <i>Ala</i> ‘take’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>alamo</i> ‘take it’ |
| 3. <i>Angkafi</i> ‘follow’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>angkafimo</i> ‘follow it’ |

The basic words above, *pesua*, *ala*, and *Angkafi*, are verbs that have an instructive meaning. It means ordering someone to do an activity. However, after attaching the suffix *-mo*, such as *pesuamo*, *alamo*, and *Angkafimo*, these words are no longer a form of instruction but invite or allow someone to do something (invitative).

2. Assertive Suffix

The form of the assertive suffix in Muna is the suffix *-e*. This suffix is attached to the verb. Semantically, it expresses an affirmation of something to be carried out as stated by the verb it is attached to. Pay attention to the following sentences.

1. *Fefunaae wambano kamokulamu*
“Keep in mind the words of your parents”
2. *Fekirie liwumu, koe kaawu fekiri wutomu*
“Remember about your country, don’t just think about yourself”

The word *fefunaaae* ‘keep in mind’ in sentence (1) consists of the basic form *fefunaa*, which is then attached with the suffix *-e* to become *fefunaaae*. Semantically, the suffix *-e* in words *fefunaae* expresses affirmation. In sentence (1), *fefunaae* emphasizes that parents’ words are considered. Furthermore, in sentence (2), *fekirie* ‘remember’ consists of the basic form *fekiri*, followed by the suffix *-e*. This word emphasizes that the country should also be considered, not just oneself.

3. Plural Suffix

Plural suffix in the Muna language is usually indicated by the suffix *-hi*. Semantically, this plural suffix is a plural marker for the noun it is attached to. For example, consider the sentences below.

1. *Kamokulahi doratomo*
“All the parents have arrived”
2. *Kalapa desahi we Wuna domai ne Kandari ini*
“All Village heads in Muna came to Kendari”

In sentence (1), there is the word *kamokulahi*. Its basic word form is *kamokula*, ‘parent’ (singular). After being attached to the suffix *-hi*, it becomes *kamokulahi* ‘parents’ (plural). Similarly, the word *kapala desah* ‘village head’ (singular) in sentence (2). After being attached the suffix *-hi*, it becomes *kapala desahi* ‘village heads’ (plural form). Semantically, the suffix *-hi* in the word *kamokulahi* and *kapala desahi* indicate a plural meaning. Therefore, the suffix *-hi* acts as a plural marker in this process.

4. Totality Suffix

Totality suffix is a type of suffix that expresses the meaning of “whole”. In the Muna language, the forms of these suffixes are suffixes *-fi* and *-pi*, which are attached at the end of the verb. Semantically, they indicated the meaning of totality or whole. Considering the sentence below.

1. *Rakofi kaeta manuhi aitu*
“Catch all the chickens”
2. *Kenta katowo kaaso Wa Uli nogholifie Alisiina.*
“The grilled fish sold by Wa Uli were bought all by Alisiina”
3. *Padamo ohelapie doimu we koperasi?*
“Have you withdrawn all your money in the cooperative”

The verb *rako* ‘catch’ in sentence (1) which is added by the suffix *-fi*, becomes *rakofi* ‘catch all’. Then, in sentence (2), the verb *nogholifie* ‘all bought’. Its basic word form is *gholi* ‘buy’ which becomes *gholifi* ‘buy all’ after adding the suffix *-fi*. Furthermore, in sentence (3), the verb *hela* ‘pull’ becomes *helapi* ‘pull all’ after attaching the suffix *-pi* to the end of the verb. It can be concluded that the suffixes *-fi* and *-pi* are markers of totality (whole).

5. Repetitive Suffix

A repetitive suffix is a type of suffix that expresses activities that are carried out repeatedly. In the Muna language, these suffixes are *-si* and *-ti*, as described in the following sentences.

1. *Isaku nerambisi kumbohu*
“My sister hit the monitor lizard repeatedly”
2. *Anahi amaitu nesiati karatasi*
“The little boy bites the paper repeatedly”

The basic form of *nerambisi* in sentence (1) is *rambi* ‘to hit’ becomes *rambisi* ‘to hit repeatedly’ after adding the suffix *-si*. Then, the word *siati* ‘bites repeatedly’ in sentence (2), the basic form is *sia* ‘bites’. So, the suffixes *-ti* and *-si* act as repetitive markers, especially to indicate activities that are carried out repeatedly.

6. Causative Suffix

A causative suffix is a type of suffix that states “cause”. In the Muna language, this type of suffix is *-mi*. For example, *kae* ‘less’ becomes *kaemi* ‘to make it less’, and *tangku* ‘close’ becomes *tangkumi* ‘make it close.’

7. Benefactive Suffix

A benefactive suffix is a suffix that semantically expresses one’s interests. These types of suffixes can be identified in the Muna language according to the subject used. For the subject of the third person singular (she), the suffixes are *-ghoo* and *-ane*. For the third person plural subject (they), the suffix used is *-anda*. For the subject of the first person, plural form, (us), the suffix used is *-kaeta*. For the subject of the first person singular (me), the suffix used is *-kanau*. For the subject of the second person singular (you), the suffix used is *-angko*. For the subject of the second person plural (you), the suffix used is *-angkoomu*. Considering the following sentences.

1. *Mealaghoo kenta anahi aitu soo naoma*
“Get the boy’s fish for him to eat”
2. *Sabhangkaku aegholiane kaoso bughou*
“My friend I bought new shoes”
3. *Guru-guruhi we kampo dowanda tunjangan 3 juta*
“Teachers in the village are given an allowance of 3 million”
4. *Megaaukaeta midawa namaghuleo*
“Cook sweet potatoes tonight”
5. *Meowakanau mafusau ane omai we lambuku*
“Bring me cassava if you come to my house”
6. *Padamo aegholiangko motoro dadi orumajimo osumikola*
“I already bought a motorbike, so you have to be diligent one in school”
7. *Aelengkaangkoomu galu bughou we kamppo ini.*
“I opened a new garden in this village”

In sentence (1), there is the word *mealaghoo*. Its basic word form is *meala* ‘get’ becomes *mealaghoo* ‘get it’ after adding the suffix *-ghoo* at the end of the word. The suffix *-ghoo* refers to someone who has an interest. In other words, the object that benefits, in this case, *Anahi* ‘the boy’. Meanwhile, in sentence (2), the word *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *gholiane* ‘buy’ after adding the suffix *-ane*. The “ae” form in the word *aegholiane* refers to the subject “I”. The person who receives the benefit is *sabhangkaku* ‘my friend’ in the third person singular.

Then, in sentence (3), there is the word *dowanda*. Its basic form is *owa* ‘give’ becomes *owaanda* ‘given’ after attaching the suffix *-anda* to the end of the word. The “do” form at the beginning of the word *owaanda* refers to *guru-guruhi* ‘the teachers’ as the third person plural. In sentence (4) there is the word *megaaukaeta* ‘cook (for both of us) after being attached to the suffix *-kaeta*. The suffix *-kaeta* refers to the first person plural, namely you and I (us).

In addition, in sentence (5) there is the word *meowa* ‘bring’ becomes *meowakanau* ‘brought (for me)’ after being attached to the suffix *-kanau*. In sentence (6), the word *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *gholiangko* ‘bought for you’ after attaching the suffix *-angko* at the end of the word. The form “ae” in the word *aegholiangko* refers to the subject “I”. Lastly, in sentence (7), the root word *lengka* ‘open’ becomes *lengkaangkoomu* ‘open for you’ after being attached to the suffix *-angkoomu*. The form “ae” at the beginning of the word *aelengkaangkoomu* is the sentence’s subject.

8. Idiomatic Suffix

An idiomatic suffix is a suffix that gives a new meaning to the word it is affixed to. In other words, a word already attached to a suffix will have a new meaning different from the base word form. Hurford (2007) emphasized that idiomatic expressions are expressions whose meaning is not following the principle of compositionality and is not related to the meaning of their parts. In Muna language, four idiomatic suffixes *-pao*, *-tao*, *-rao*, and *-lao* are usually attached to verbs. Considering the words and sentences below.

- | | | | | |
|----|----------------------|---------------|---|----------------------------|
| 1. | <i>haro</i> ‘broom’ | + <i>-pao</i> | → | <i>haropao</i> ‘finish up’ |
| 2. | <i>kitu</i> ‘swipe’ | + <i>-rao</i> | → | <i>kiturao</i> ‘hit’ |
| 3. | <i>rambi</i> ‘punch’ | + <i>-tao</i> | → | <i>rambitao</i> ‘dump’ |
| 4. | <i>wangku</i> ‘beat’ | + <i>-lao</i> | → | <i>wangkulao</i> ‘fell’ |

Furthermore, considering the use of idiomatic suffixes in the sentences below.

1. *Bhahihiku deharopao kabuto we acara gholeetu*
“My friends spent the kabuto (food) at the party today”
2. *Kumabaru-baruhino dokituraoda we polisi rangkowane*
“Bad guys got beat up at the police station this morning”
3. *Amalisu norambitao anano te kabhongka ainiini*
4. *Awaku notiwangkulao we ghabu*
“My grandfather fell in the kitchen”.

B. Contrastive Inflectional Suffixes Between English and Muna Language

Differences and similarities in inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages are analyzed based on the types of inflectional suffixes (morphological processes in both languages) and their semantic role, as described in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES IN ENGLISH AND MUNA LANGUAGES

No	Types of Inflectional Suffixes in English	Types of Inflectional Suffixes in Muna Language
1	Plural Suffixes: <i>-s/es, -e/en</i>	Invitative suffix: <i>-mo</i>
2	Present Tense Suffixes: <i>-s/-es</i>	Assertive suffix: <i>-e</i>
3	Past Tense Suffixes: <i>-d/-ed</i>	Plural suffix: <i>-hi</i>
4	Possessive Suffixes: <i>-s</i>	Totality suffixes: <i>-fi</i> dan <i>-pi</i>
5	Present Participle Suffix: <i>-ing</i>	Repetitive suffixes: <i>-si</i> dan <i>-ti</i>
6	Past Participle Suffixes: <i>-d/-ed, -n/-en</i>	Causative suffixes: <i>-mi</i>
7	Comparative Suffixes: <i>-er</i>	Benefactive suffixes: <i>-ghoo, -ane, -anda, -kanau, -ngkoo, -ngkoomu, -kaeta, dan -kasami</i>
8	Superlative Suffixes: <i>-est</i>	Idiomatic suffixes: <i>-pao, -tao, -rao, and -lao</i> .

Table 1 above shows plurality suffixes in English and Muna languages. In English, plural marking suffixes are *-s* or *-es*. Meanwhile, the plural marking suffix is the suffix *-hi* in the Muna language. Then, the difference between English and Muna language inflectional suffixes lies in their productivity. The productivity in question is the variation of suffixes in each language’s eight types of suffixes. In English, the suffixes *-s* and *-es* fill in the plurality and present tense suffixes. However, inflectional suffixes in the Muna language are more varied or very productive. It is due to the morphological type of the Muna language as an agglutinative language. Meanwhile, the morphological type of English is flexion. Explicitly, agglutinative languages rely on affixes to form derived words. In this case, even though the Muna language is syntactically morphosyntactic (Sande, 1976) but morphologically, it is agglutinative.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, it can be concluded that eight types of inflectional suffixes play a role in forming more complex words, both in the English and Muna languages. Firstly, the types of inflectional suffixes in English are: 1) suffixes *-s, -es, and -en* as plurality suffixes, 2) suffixes *-s* and *-es* as a present tense marker, 3) suffixes *-d* and *-ed* as markers of the past tense, 4) suffix *-s* as a marker of possessiveness, 5) suffixes *-ing* as a marker for the present participle, 6) suffixes *-d/-ed, and -n/-en* as past participle marker, 7) suffix *-er* as a comparative marker (comparison more than others), and 8) suffix *-est* as a superlative marker (“most” comparison).

In addition, there are eight inflectional suffixes in Muna language that play a role in morphological processes, especially in the formation of more complex words, namely 1) the suffix *-mo* as an inflectional marker, 2) the suffix *-e* as an assertive marker, 3) the suffix *-hi* as a marker plural, 4) suffixes *-fi* and *-pi* as totality markers, 5) suffixes *-si* and *-ti* as repetitive markers, 6) suffixes *-mi* as causative marker, 7) suffixes *-ghoo, -ane, -anda, -kanau, -ngkoo, -ngkoomu, -kaeta, and -kasami* as benefactive markers, and 8) the suffixes *-pao, -tao, -rao, and -lao* as idiomatic suffix markers.

In contrast, the inflectional suffixes of English and Muna have similarities and differences. In this case, having a plurality suffix in both languages. English, in particular, has the suffixes *-s/-es* and *-n/-en* as plural markers. Then, having the same number of inflectional suffixes affects the morphological process, especially in forming more complex words. In this analysis, the inflectional suffixes in Muna are more varied than those in English. Each type of suffix in Muna has its signifier. Interestingly, English suffixes *-s* and *-es* can be used as plural and present tense markers. Apart from that, there are also *-d* and *-ed* suffixes, past tense, and past participle marking suffixes. The phenomenon of Muna language inflectional suffixes is more varied than English inflectional suffixes caused by the morphological type of Muna as an agglutinative language, whereas English is a flexion language. One of the characteristics of agglutinative language is that most morphological processes in forming more complex words occur through affixes, one of which is through suffixation.

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Rhythmic Complexity of Graduate Students' Written Assignments: An Analysis of Their Thematic Choices

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Abstract—The majority of the work on academic writing has focused on methods to analyse students' views of and attitudes towards writing. However, research on students' perceptions of the impact of their choices on the clarity and quality of their texts remains scant. This study used a content analysis approach to analyse graduate students' written assignments across academic genres to understand their thematic choices, and the choices' rhythmic effects and communicative functions. Further, it employed a grounded theory approach to examine students' perception of the effect of their thematic choices on their assignments' rhythmic complexity. Inspired by Martin and Rose's (2007) semantic approach to Systematic Functional Linguistics, the study analysed 108 written assignments and conducted semi-structured interviews with 18 students. According to the findings, the assignments commonly included topical and unmarked themes, and students used different types of themes to control the rhythmic complexity and structure of the texts. Additionally, students used different thematic structures to achieve different communicative objectives, which in turn motivated them to use complex thematic patterns. Finally, students' perceptions were affected by their writing proficiency, academic and genre knowledge, linguistic background, stylistic preferences, and learning experiences.

Index Terms—Rhythmic complexity, SFL, graduate students, writing, thematic choices

I. INTRODUCTION

Writers often have a rough idea that determines the formulation and organisation of their texts (Ma, 2021). In several academic disciplines, the rhythm (i.e. the flow of information) of these ideas seems to be associated with certain patterns that are culturally identified as academic. Understandably, their texts contain meanings, ideas, and information that writers seek to communicate within the framework of a particular academic discipline. Halliday and Hasan (1985) asserted that the context in which information unfolds is encapsulated in the text "through a systematic relationship between the social environment on the one hand, and the functional organization of language on the other" (p. 11). In other words, writing a selection of words, sentences, and paragraphs is not enough. It is equally important to consider the rhythm (flow of information) of the text. Thus, academic writers shape their conceptions and interpretations of certain ideas by making choices regarding content, organisation, illustration, and language (Kain, 2005).

The current literature on academic writing particularly focuses on methods to analyse students' perceptions of and attitudes towards writing (e.g., Mateos & Solé 2009). However, studies on students' perceptions of the effect of their choices on the clarity and quality of their texts remain scant. Regarding writers' thematic choices, Martin and Rose (2007) argued that "rhythm in discourse may have several layers", which can be referred to as "waves" (p. 188). Indeed, the predictable patterns associated with particular academic genre play a crucial role in determining the hierarchical organisation of these waves. Thus, only on intuitive grounds, most EFL (English as a foreign language) graduate students conceive the production of a coherent academic text as a greater task that is more complex than it appears. In fact, some EFL graduate students are not aware of the importance of the rhythmic effect of their thematic choices on the construction, organisation, and interpretation of their ideas beyond their intended meaning. These multidimensional aspects of the flow of information which might be affected by some underlying patterns of written or spoken language can be described as 'rhythmic complexity'.

Thus, assessing the functional considerations of EFL students' thematic choices and their perceptions of the importance of these choices on the rhythm of their texts is essential to understand the rhythmic complexity of their

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writing performance. Consequently, analysing their written texts can offer insights to help EFL students enhance the awareness of the rhythmic effect of their choices.

Particularly, this study examines the following research questions:

- What type of thematic choices do EFL graduate students use in their writing assignments?
- To what extent do EFL graduate students' thematic choices affect the rhythm of their writing performance?
- What are the communicative functions of the thematic choices made by EFL graduate students?
- How do EFL graduate students perceive the rhythmic effect of their thematic choices on their writing performance?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Rhythmic Complexity and Thematic Choices*

According to the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), the structure of a clause embodies three strands of meaning: a message, representation, and an exchange (Halliday, 2014). Specifically, this study focuses on the first meaning, that is, a clause as a message—also known as the thematic structure. According to Halliday, the thematic structure of a clause encompasses two functional elements: theme and rheme. Theme is "the point of departure for the message. It is the element the speaker selects for "grounding" what he is going on to say" (Halliday, 2014, p. 83). Theme is a major aspect that represents how language users construct their messages to smoothly unfold linguistic events, and it is the starting point of the clause that tells the readers "what the text is about" (Thompson, 2014, p. 165). Theme plays an important role in "the logical development of ideas and information" (Park & Nam, 2015, p. 68).

Thematic choices may be influenced by the writers' perceptions of an assignment's requirements. Kim (2020) emphasised that the learners' perception of a task may "shape and reshape their various rhetorical choices as well as their selection of resources and strategies" (p. 3). Thus, the perception of a particular writing task (i.e. task representation) may orient students to choose a particular set of rhetorical patterns which, in turn, affect their linguistic choices. Kim (2020) indicated that L2 writers "engage with guessing and develop their network of resources to get feedback to adjust their interpretations of the task assigned, and negotiate these task representations accordingly" (p. 15).

B. *The Flow of Information in SFL Approaches*

According to Park and Nam (2015), SFL is "a theory of language as a system of meaning that focuses on the function of the language: how it is used to create and convey meaning with linguistic resources" (pp. 67–68). SFL is mainly concerned with linguistic choices that influence the flow of information (i.e. the rhythm), which in turn affects the communication of the message and determines the semantic path of the text.

(a). *Martin and Rose's (2007) Semantic Approach*

Regarding the regularity of the flow of information, Martin and Rose (2007) opined that periodicity—as an unfolding process of a discourse's structure—is mainly concerned with "the way in which meanings are packaged" and facilitates the readers' comprehension (p. 187). Thus, it can be argued that a clause is a wave of information and its prominent part is known as a theme. As Hawes (2015) explained, the linguistic term for "the structuring of given and new information is thematisation" which "involves the positioning of information in a clause" (p. 94).

It is important to note that themes can be classified into topical, textual, and interpersonal themes depending on their meta-function (Halliday, 2014). Specifically, topical themes can be headed by textual, interpersonal, or both themes. Textual and interpersonal themes are considered as natural themes because they are "thematic by default" (Potter, 2016, p. 4). Thus, they are optional, whereas topical themes are obligatory. A topical theme can function as a full Theme, whereas textual and interpersonal themes function as part of a Theme (Potter, 2016).

Textual themes usually "constitute the first part of the Theme coming before any interpersonal Theme" (Ahangari, 2015, p. 4). They enhance "connectivity between ideas in the text" (Ahangari, 2015, p. 20). As Chang and Lee (2019) noted, textual themes comprise conjunctions (and, or, etc.), continuatives (already, still, even, just, etc.), conjunctive adjuncts (moreover, therefore, etc.), or WH-relatives (who, which, etc.).

On the other hand, interpersonal themes may precede topical themes to express the writers' attitudes and are characterised by vocatives, comment adjuncts (probably, frankly, etc.), finite elements (modal auxiliaries and 'be' auxiliary), WH-question words (where, how, etc.), mood-making themes, and interpersonal metaphors (Chang & Lee, 2019). They can be used to "highlight the speaker's stance" (Alotaibi, 2020, p. 2).

Specifically, topical themes can be classified into marked and unmarked themes. Unmarked themes (the typical use of language) constitute the clause's subjects, which may be preceded by a marked theme. Thus, unmarked theme marks the departure of a clause. For example, 'Ali' in 'Ali submitted his manuscript' is an unmarked Theme and it is an essential part of the clause. Consequently, marked Themes is not regarded as prominent part of texts because it is perceived as the recurrent use of language within a particular academic genre. For example, 'for women' is a marked Theme in 'for women, this stratification seems to be important'.

(b). *Waves of Information*

A clause may contain two overlapping waves: a thematic wave and news wave. The term 'wave' is used to "capture the sense in which moment of framing represents a peak of textual prominence, followed by a trough of lesser

prominence" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 189). Periodicity is used to "capture the regularity of information flow: the tendency for crests to form a regular pattern, and for the hierarchy of waves to form a predictable rhythm" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 189). Thus, writers use marked and unmarked themes to create a particular rhythm of their texts. Using unmarked themes may promote the continuity of the waves of information, while using marked themes may "...scaffold discontinuity" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 192). Marked themes help the writers signal their moves throughout the texts, that is, moving from one phase to another within a particular genre.

At a higher level, the topic sentence (which indicates the discussion) is usually described as the hyperTheme (Martin & Rose, 2007). In several instances, hyperThemes involve an evaluation and provide more detail about their field. Nevertheless, the accumulation of new information is usually distilled into final sentences which are referred to as hyperNew of the phase. "Hyper Themes tell us where we're going in a phase; hyperNews tell us where we've been" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 195). The higher-level Themes that predict hyperThemes are known as macroThemes, while higher-level News that are distilled into hyperNews are known as macroNews (see Martin & Rose, 2007).

C. *Thematic Choices as an Effective Strategy for Organizing Texts*

Countless studies have examined the effect of utilising certain thematic choices on the organisation of texts. For example, Ebrahimi's (2016) contribution revealed that unmarked topical themes are frequently utilised across disciplines; however, marked topical themes are mostly utilised in soft disciplines. Further, Ebrahimi found that textual themes are utilised more frequently than interpersonal themes. Similarly, Potter (2016) reported that the most common type of theme in an English declarative clause is the unmarked theme.

On the contrary, Wei (2016b) found that, compared to their American counterparts, Chinese college students tend to use interpersonal themes more than topical themes. They overuse interpersonal themes, which makes their texts more "colloquial" (Wei, 2016b, p. 58). In addition, they tend to use textual Themes as conjunctive adjuncts more than conjunctions. Similarly, Alotaibi (2020) remarked that "the examination of textual themes has shown that conjunctive adjuncts were used more than conjunctions in all groups" (p. 10).

Exploring textual and interpersonal themes in college students' and professional writers' texts, Chang and Lee (2019) concluded that students tend to use interpersonal themes more than textual themes, while professionals adopt a more balanced approach. Similarly, Alotaibi (2020) examined the thematic structure of abstracts in different disciplines and found that all sets of abstracts relied heavily on topical themes, especially unmarked themes, to begin their clauses. This indicates the structural simplicity of the analysed texts (Ebrahimi, 2016). The utilisation of interpersonal themes was "very low in all groups" (Alotaibi, 2020, p. 9).

Communicative Functions of Thematic Choices Across Genres

Thematic choices can be perceived as a method of developing a text that foreground clauses, sentences, paragraphs, or even passages. This has been supported by numerous studies. Jing (2015) stated that "coherence is both text-based and reader-based, which could be promoted by appropriate thematic choices and TP patterns" (p. 185). Specifically, certain thematic choices are utilised to achieve certain communicative functions. Thematic choices in unmarked and marked structures can be used as "persuasive devices to project certain ideological representation" (Potter, 2016, p. 3). These choices fulfil the role of "projecting a particular point of view and conveying a certain message" (Potter, 2016, p. 5).

Examining and comparing thematic choices and thematic progression (TP) patterns, Babaii et al. (2016) concluded that different disciplinary communities have conventional contexts that involve a variety of linguistic "features, with some being more overt than the others, which do not treat a genre exactly like each other as authors reflect their explicit and/or implicit awareness of the discursive norms of their academic communities in their writings" (p. 55). Concentrating on the TP model, Lores (2004) investigated the rhetorical organisation and TP to analyse the organisation of abstracts. He found an undeniable relationship between TP and the rhetorical structure. Similarly, Alyousef (2016) noted that the pattern of TP and composition of information value "facilitate the development of well-structured messages" (p. 486).

D. *EFL Students' Perceptions of Various Aspects of Their Linguistic Choices*

EFL students commonly believe that academic writing should be an impersonal, informational, and objective discourse (Escobar & Fernández, 2017). Additionally, Alhojailan (2021) asserted that students' perceptions of academic writing significantly influence their writing performance. According to him, perceptions are created based on students' knowledge and backgrounds. The examination of students' perceptions is crucial, especially "for the purpose of helping them improve their academic writing skills" (p. 50).

Overall, a review of the extant literature suggests that it is important to explore the independent power of the rhythmic complexity. The additional resonance (i.e., the rhythmic variation that accounts for the special flavour) of the graduate students' written assignments that is overtly influenced by their thematic choices seems to be an important layer of meaning in written academic texts that needs to be considered since it plays a specific function in these texts; however, it is often overlooked. Thus, this study undertakes the said investigation.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design and Instruments

The researchers used a content analysis approach to analyse the assignments. Content analysis is "a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015, p. 275). Further, the researchers integrated a grounded theory into the content analysis approach to understand students' perceptions since it focuses on "a process, including human actions and interactions and how they result from and influence one another" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015, p. 276).

B. Textual Analysis

108 written assignments, across various academic genres, were thoroughly analysed using Martin and Rose's (2007) semantic approach. The assignments were collected randomly from different students enrolled at different academic levels of the following two master's degree programmes offered at a large Saudi university: Theoretical Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. The participants were native speakers of Arabic.

Alongside the micro-level discourse structure, including sentence-level lexical and grammatical choices, this study also focused on the macro-level choices. This is inspired by Beck and Jeffery (2009), who claimed that generic structures "consist of the macro-level stages that realize key functions within a genre, such as introductions, thesis statements, supporting paragraphs, and conclusions" (p. 233).

C. Interviews

Based on the grounded theory approach, a semi-structured interview protocol was employed for the study. Semi-structured interviews seem to be suitable because they provide a holistic and contextualised perspective on students' writing (Heron & Corradini, 2019).

(a). Participants

Eighteen female Saudi EFL graduate students from different levels were randomly selected for the semi-structured interviews. However, students from level one were excluded because they did not have enough experience in academic writing.

(b). Interview Questions

The interview questions were designed to reflect important facts about the main objectives of this study (e.g., the importance of rhetorical choice-making in the academic context, the relationship between thematic choices and stylistic variations in academic writing, the communicative functions and the effect of their thematic choices).

D. Transcribing and Coding the Collected Data

The interviews were analysed in phases. In the first phase, collected data were transcribed and translated from Arabic to English. In the second phase, the data were coded into relatively homogenous groups in relation to several themes. It is imperative to note here that the transcriptions were triple-checked and reviewed by other people. The translation of the interviews, then, was double-checked by two people specialised in translation.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Types of Thematic Choices

Table 1 summarises the types of thematic choices found in students' writing assignments. It was found that students choose different types of themes and use them as points of departure for their clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and even the text as a whole. As explained below, the students used topical, textual, and interpersonal themes. It should be noted that, thematic elements are presented in boldface throughout the study.

TABLE 1
THE TYPES OF THEMES IN THE STUDENTS' WRITTEN ASSIGNMENTS

Themes	Types of Themes
' In 1978 , Keavney and Sinclair published a paper...'	Topical/marked Theme
' The sample consisted of...'	Topical/unmarked Theme
' Furthermore , they found that students...'	Textual Theme
' Surprisingly , the results indicated that...'	Interpersonal Theme

Themes—which include everything that precedes News—have been highlighted at the peak of prominence at the beginning of each clause. They include the subject of the clause. Thus, unmarked themes/subjects were the most common choice in students' written assignments.

Ideational meanings that usually appear before unmarked themes are referred to as marked themes. Marked themes were also frequently found in students' texts. They play a different discourse function compared to the ordinary unmarked themes (Table 2).

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF MARKED AND UNMARKED THEMES

Marked Themes	Subject/Unmarked Themes
'In the EFL context, Mierzwa (2019) has investigated...'	'They employed a range of...'
'Throughout the questionnaire, the main focus was...'	'One of the main controversial issues in the literature of L2 writing is...'
'For example, higher-ability members might...'	'The present paper aims to...'
'It is out of discussion that pronouns are of great significance.'	'Some syntacticians suggest that ellipsis postulate...'

At the higher structural level, discourse can be packaged using large-scale structures known as hyperThemes. Some students tend to use hyperThemes to establish their audience's expectations as mentioned below. The following excerpt is illustrative of the evaluation of hyperThemes. The evaluation has been underlined. In remained of the paper, excerpts have been numbered as A1, A2, and so on, wherein A stands for assignment.

(Excerpt A1)

"ELT in non-native English-speaking nations lacks practicing English in an authentic context."

The student wrote this sentence at the beginning of the paragraph. It is used to direct the audience's attention to a particular topic which is supported, explained, and justified by the following sentences.

In several academic genres, waves of themes may extend beyond clauses, sentences, and paragraphs to larger phases of discourse that reflect a higher level of theme known as macroTheme. For example, title of their papers, chapters, sections, and so on. This analysis hopes to expand the ideational meanings of a text's field. It is constructed through various semantic layers.

B. Rhythmic Effects of Students' Thematic Choices on Their Writing

The recurrent choice of unmarked themes within a particular phase may enhance the connectivity of a discourse which emphasises the stability of the rhythm. In other words, they offer a stable and basic orientation to the field for this particular phase of discourse.

Therefore, unmarked themes do not have a considerable effect on the rhythm of discourse within a particular phase. Unmarked themes are mildly prominent for the flow of the discourse. This can be inferred from the following excerpts.

(Excerpt A2)

"**Many studies** investigated... **They** examined..."

(Excerpt A3)

"**Voiced obstruents** are speech sounds... Otherwise, **voiceless obstructions** block the airflow... **Voiced obstruents** are considered..."

In Excerpt A3, the student used topical, unmarked themes to compare two elements. Therefore, she did not use pronouns as themes to clarify the differences between these elements.

However, the prominence of topical, unmarked themes may not be evident at the lower level in some cases. Some students may use unmarked themes to highlight the topic sentence of their paragraph. For example:

(Excerpt A4)

"**The advent of the Web 2.0 tools** has dramatically revolutionized..."

Conversely, marked themes have a noteworthy effect on the rhythm of the discourse. They were used to highlight particular junctures before the clause's subject. Thus, the effective utilisation of marked themes may serve to contour the rhythm of graduate students' texts. Marked themes can also affect the discourse's discontinuity. They help the writers to move from one phase to another.

It is essential to highlight that the rhythmic complexity of graduate students' texts may be affected by the utilisation of hyperThemes. The efficient use of hyperThemes helps students to enhance the texts' unity and their academic writing proficiency.

Students use different layers of themes to develop their texts. Crucially, these developmental phases are highly sensitive to the staging of the given academic genres. In the excerpt below, the student used a marked theme to re-orient the development of discourse within a particular phase.

(Excerpt A5)

"**As far as the layout is concerned**, Reverso context is designed..."

Similar decisions can also be made to connect the previous paragraph to the new one.

(Excerpt A6)

"**As noted earlier**, Beelinguapp supports..."

Students may choose to precede a sentence with a marked theme to enhance the discourse's continuity and inform the readers that the following sentence/s explain the aforementioned information.

(Excerpt A7)

"**That is**, the distinction between..."

Students may also use marked themes before the justification of the information in the rhematic position to scaffold connectivity.

(Excerpt A8)

"**With the proliferation of diverse digital language learning tools and applications that are associated with mobile learning**, there is an increased competition in developing..."

In some cases, the inappropriate use of marked themes negatively impacts the text's rhythm. Similarly, repetition of the same theme within a particular portion of text may lead to prosaic language. For instance, some students use 'however' or 'accordingly' many times within a particular text.

Using more than one marked theme affects the information's rhythm. As exemplified below, some students use multiple marked themes to enhance the text's meaning.

(Excerpt A9)

"That is to say, despite the prominent presence of technology in this process, and regardless of the social nature of language as an interactive tool, drawing on theories from cognitive psychology..."

Moreover, students use textual themes to enhance the rhythmic consistency and connect the information to the main points in the texts. Textual themes are also used to communicate the intended meaning through predictable and organised patterns. The following excerpt is an example of the use of textual themes for organising the text's rhythm.

(Excerpt A10)

"However, this is far from the whole story."

Interestingly, some students use interpersonal themes to attract the audience at the beginning of a new phase in their text.

(Excerpt A11)

"Luckily, the growth of information technologies had stimulated the development of more creative applications."

Therefore, students tended to use different types of themes to control their text's rhythm. They used topical, unmarked themes to enhance connectivity and introduce new information. Marked themes also emerged prominently in some cases. They were used to introduce new information. Further, interpersonal themes also emerged significantly in students' academic texts. These were used to establish the developmental compositional process of constructing ideational meanings at local and global levels of the discourse.

C. *Communicative Functions of Students' Thematic Choices*

The thematic organisation of students' texts was based on achieving certain communicative goals. As suggested below, understanding the thematic choice's communicative functions highlights the parallels between discourse patterns and rhythmic complexity of students' texts.

(a). *Topical, Unmarked Themes*

Students use topical themes (i.e., marked and unmarked themes) to achieve certain communicative purposes. Some used unmarked, topical themes to explicitly express their ideas.

(Excerpt A12)

"Effective communication necessitates..."

Unmarked themes are used to achieve continuity of ideas. The following excerpt is an example of this situation.

(Excerpt A13)

"One of these studies is Aljafen's (2013) study. **He** found..."

(b). *Topical Marked Themes*

Marked themes are used to signal new phases in a discourse. They can be used to mark a new setting in time or a major shift in participants. Thus, topical, marked themes are used to orient the readers' concentration and move from one phase to another.

Students include macroThemes in their texts to clarify the topic, genre, and area of study. For example, some participants start writing by identifying the title—which can be classified as a macroTheme (Excerpt A14).

(Excerpt A14)

"New Paths for Learning English as a Foreign Language: Focusing on Two Digital Resources"

Surprisingly, some students did not highlight the area of the texts by providing a topic. This negatively affects the text's rhythm.

Students use hyperThemes in different phases to specify the direction of their texts. The hyperTheme entails evaluation (e.g., Excerpt A15).

(Excerpt A15)

"The ever-growing popularity of mobile language learning **brings with it a shift in focus that may influence the role of teachers or trainers.**"

As can be seen below, students use topical, marked themes to highlight other scholars' works that are significant for their analysis. These were used to explicitly state their knowledge and support their hypotheses.

(Excerpt A16)

"As Stockwell (2016) demonstrates, research that scrutinizes..."

As shown in the excerpt below, marked themes are used to clarify other scholars' stances regarding a particular issue.

(Excerpt A17)

"For Colpaert, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity did not..."

Moreover, students use marked themes to orient their audience's attention to a particular event, context, or time (e.g., Excerpt A18).

(Excerpt A18)

"When students use a literary text, they are dealing with..."

A general tendency among students is that they use marked themes to highlight the scope of their sentences or paragraphs (e.g., Excerpt 19).

(Excerpt A19)

"Pragmatically, it could mean that..."

Furthermore, students use marked themes to refer to a particular part of the text.

(Excerpt A20)

"In (b), the verb..."

Marked Themes are also used to clarify, explain, or justify information (e.g., Excerpt 21).

(Excerpt A21)

"As a response to the difficulties of teaching and learning writing, some teachers..."

Additionally, marked themes are used to organise arguments and clarify the differences between two or more aspects, ideas, groups, or evidence (e.g., Excerpt A22). In the example below, the utilisation of marked theme signalled the writer's movement from one phase to another.

(Excerpt A22)

"Unlike traditional, individual-focused learning methods, collaborative learning offers..."

Here, the student used marked themes to connect new information with the aforementioned information.

Students tend to highlight the last phase of their texts using several expressions that usually appear at the beginning of sentences and are categorised as marked themes (e.g., Excerpt A23).

(Excerpt A23)

"To sum up, based on the aforesaid potentials..."

(c). *Textual Themes*

Graduate students tend to use textual themes to organise their texts. They are used to organise sentences in a paragraph or the phase as a whole (e.g., Excerpts A24–25).

(Excerpt A24)

"On the other hand, the second parameter is..."

(Excerpt A25)

"First, it is recommended... **Second**, for the purpose of... **Third**, studying other types... **Finally**, identifying more..."

Some students use textual themes to organise the flow of their ideas and include certain requirements of the corresponding academic genres (e.g., Excerpt A26).

(Excerpt A26)

"Thus, the two statements have..."

Textual themes are also used to provide more information about certain topics or situation and organise this information throughout the text (e.g., Excerpt A27).

(Excerpt A27)

"Additionally, it examines..."

(d). *Multiple-Theme Pattern*

Students use more than one type of theme in a particular sentence (e.g., Excerpts A28–29).

(Excerpt A28)

"However, to date, few studies have been conducted on..."

(Excerpt A29)

"Interestingly, in respect to oral acquisition, CM interaction seemed to be..."

In the excerpts above, the students used textual or interpersonal themes followed by topical and marked themes, and subsequently, subject/unmarked themes. This is known as the Multiple-Theme pattern (Alyousef, 2016), wherein students use several Themes that have been gleaned from the information in the rhematic position.

(e). *Interpersonal Themes*

Most interestingly, students use interpersonal themes to highlight their stances, attitudes, and perspectives. In Excerpt A30, the student used 'clearly' as an interpersonal theme. It is an effective strategy to convey the writer's ideas.

(Excerpt A30)

"Clearly, the ease of access..."

Some students use interpersonal themes to orient their audience's attention to particular arguments in their texts.

(Excerpt A31)

"Perhaps most importantly, the best thing about..."

For example, the student in the following excerpt (A31) uses an interpersonal theme at the end of the paragraph to grab the audience's attention.

(Excerpt A31)

"Remarkably, this context-sensitive dictionary offers..."

D. Students' Perceptions of the Rhythmic Effect of Their Thematic Choices on Their Writing

Research questions 1, 2, and 3 were answered by analysing students' texts; however, the semi-structured interviews on the students' assumptions about the rhythmic effect of their thematic choices were used to answer the fourth research question.

(a). Students' Awareness of the Effect of Their Thematic Choices

Some graduate students passionately commented that their thematic choices affect their writing performance (e.g., Excerpt 1, S3). The creative choices can attract the audiences' attention.

(Excerpt 1, S3)

The writer's rhetorical choices affect the audience's reception. For example, when the same information is presented by two different writers, there will be many differences in choices between the two texts. The audience may prefer one text of those more than the other because one writer may have a better rhetorical style than the other. (Interview Transcript, p. 5)

This was supported by most participants, who believed that the utilisation of different themes is an effective strategy used by academic writers to make their text lucid and attractive.

(Excerpt 2, S7)

"Clarity is a worthy, noble purpose. That means to be clear about your goals of writing and ideas presented...with no ambiguity...to make sure that the reader understands what the idea is" (Interview Transcript, p. 14).

(b). Thematic Variation and Academic Style

One student argued that thematic variation may have a considerable effect on the stylistic variations in academic writing.

(Excerpt 3, S6)

"One of the important things that make one person's writing better than another one is these thematic choices" (Interview Transcript, p. 12).

Some students believed that they could use different themes to make their style of writing explicit. Therefore, they assumed that the writers' style is affected by their choice of various themes (e.g., Excerpt 4, S1).

(Excerpt 4, S1)

The straightforward person would cut the supporting details. That is considered an issue that faces students. If you are used to presenting the idea in your writings without adding supportive information, your writing will be considered as not meeting the necessary conditions or is not complete. However, the person who is more likely to add the supportive details, to explain, and to link ideas in their writing, their writing will be deep. (Interview Transcript, p. 1)

(c). The Possible Effect of the Assigned Genre on Students' Thematic Choices

Some participants believed that their style may vary depending on the type of assignment, assigned topic, instructor, and amount of time spent on writing the assignment (e.g., Excerpt 5–7, S5, S5, and S11, respectively).

(Excerpt 5, S5)

"The way I write varies depending on whether or not I am interested in the topic or have enough time" (Interview Transcript, p. 9).

(Excerpt 6, S5)

"I use different kinds of Themes because if your instructor is impressed by how good your writing is, this means more marks" (Interview Transcript, p. 10).

(Excerpt 7, S11)

"The thematic choices vary according to the type of text we are writing" (Interview Transcript, p. 21).

(d). The Possible Effect of Students' Academic Writing Proficiency on Their Thematic Choices

Students believed that expert writer make more appropriate thematic choices than novice writers (e.g., Excerpt 8, S15).

(Excerpt 8, S15)

Some writers may use different types of Themes; however, they may not use them the right way. Instead, they may use them randomly, and that may distract the readers because using thematic choices depends mainly on the writer's ability to use them wisely and in the right way. (Interview Transcript, p. 29)

(e). The Negative and Positive Effect of Students' Thematic Choices on Their Text's Rhythm

It was found that thematic choices should be used in a creative and appropriate way. They may positively or negatively affect the text. Informed and conscious thematic choices may enhance the text's presentation (e.g., Excerpt 9, S3).

(Excerpt 9, S3)

"Thematic choices give us a lively text, and make reading the text easier for the readers. If it is used in a good, organized way" (Interview Transcript, p. 6).

S10's comments highlights that writers must be aware of the negative effects of inappropriate thematic choices.
(Excerpt 10, S10)

"Using themes can be boring...for example, you should be aware of how you unintentionally repeat some words while employing textual or interpersonal Themes...you need to use them wisely" (Interview Transcript, p. 19).

Some students' thematic choices may affect the quality of their writing performance (e.g., Excerpt 11, S14).
(Excerpt 11, S14)

"Making decisions related to rhetorical choices may affect the quality of your academic text. You should be careful about who the readers are" (Interview Transcript, p. 26).

(f). The Possible Effect of Students' Knowledge on Their Thematic Choices

It is essential for students to consider their readers' knowledge and expectations to produce an interesting and persuasive write-up. Hence, they go through several decision-making stages, including the process of choosing appropriate themes. Most of the participants seemed to be aware of these stages (e.g., Excerpt 12, S11).

(Excerpt 12, S11)

Using Themes helps create a sequence of the ideas moving from one idea to another in the text to help the reader and to help the writer also who actually needs to explain the information clearly. (Interview Transcript, p. 22)

(g). Students' Awareness of the Communicative Functions of Their Thematic Choices

As illustrated above, some students are aware of the communicative functions of their thematic choices. S11 commented that thematic choices facilitate the production of coherent texts that clearly deliver the message.

(Excerpt 13, S11)

"The thematic choices help with emphasizing particular information or highlighting an idea. It helps also with the arrangement of the ideas, the text sequence, and displaying the writer's opinion" (Interview Transcript, p. 22).

Specifically, most participants remarked that topical, textual, and interpersonal themes can be utilised for different communicative purposes. This is illustrated in the following excerpt.

(Excerpt 14, S17)

The utilization of different types of Themes is considered important for the argument, the flow, and the coherence. Therefore, we use textual Themes and they are essential because there is an actual audience while you are talking very specifically about something, so you need to present your ideas very carefully and clearly to explain the argument. In a more logical way, there should be a space for the opinions of the writer to be somewhat obvious, so you need to use interpersonal Themes. (Interview Transcript, p. 33)

Accordingly, most students used unmarked themes to compose coherent academic texts and enhance its semantic consistency. They used marked Themes to highlight the important or unexpected information. Further, students tended to use marked and unmarked themes to signal their movements between different waves of information. Textual themes are used to organise ideas and the texts as a whole. Students employ interpersonal themes to indicate their perspective or direct their audience's attention to important information.

Interestingly, S13 believed that various thematic choices motivate the readers to read the text.

(Excerpt 15, S13)

"Keep in mind that a reader may not be impressed with your content, but they may continue reading if your way of writing attracts them to do so" (Interview Transcript, p. 25).

(h). The Possible Effect of Students' Linguistic Background on Their Thematic Choices

Some students asserted that their linguistic backgrounds play a considerable role in making thematic choices. They highlighted the unique relationship between the academic writers' choices and effect of their first language.

(Excerpt 16, S18)

Usually, as students, we were used to using a kind of complex structure, and that may be referred to our former knowledge of the writing process related to the Arabic language, so we were just transforming it into our English writing assignments. This process may have given us complex and ambiguous sentences back then. (Interview Transcript, p. 35)

(i). The Possible Effect of Students' Learning Experiences on Their Thematic Choices

Some students argued that their previous learning experiences may affect their thematic choices.

(Excerpt 17, S6)

Actually, we are all taught not to use interpersonal Themes because it will give you a piece of writing that lacks objectivity. In contrast, it is valid and expected to use textual Themes, and this is something we learn from the beginning. (Interview Transcript, p. 12)

S17 stated that instructors did not concentrate on their thematic choices as much as on their grammatical and lexical choices.

(Excerpt 18, S17)

"Usually, the comments are directed to the surface level, so they are more about grammar and vocabulary without considering the more essential aspects: the structure, the flow, and the argument" (Interview Transcript, p. 32).

(j). *Thematic Variation and Academic Disciplines*

Some participants commented that variations in thematic choices correspond with the variations in writing conventions followed in the concerned academic disciplines. Consequently, Applied Linguistics students' thematic choices are radically different from Theoretical Linguistics students' thematic choices.

(Excerpt 19, S7)

The writer may write something about meanings that we can only read between the lines, and that's something that I have noticed in many research papers talking about Applied Linguistics. However, we are more direct while writing about Theoretical Linguistics. (Interview Transcript, p. 13)

(k). *Challenges Encountered by Students While Choosing Appropriate Themes*

Some students recounted the challenges faced while making appropriate thematic choices. For instance, S4 commented that thematic choices are inextricably intertwined with other linguistic features that are involved in the compositional processes. However, she noted that these thematic choices are difficult to identify and use correctly.

(Excerpt 20, S4)

"I think that the most difficult thing for me was choosing the Themes. I spent hours and hours choosing one Theme" (Interview Transcript, p. 8).

(l). *Misunderstanding of the Importance of Thematic Choices and Students' Preferences*

Other participants noted that they were not aware of the communicative functions of the themes. They were using them inappropriately and repetitively. This negatively affected their text's rhythm (e.g., Excerpt 21, S7).

(Excerpt 21, S7)

When I started my graduate studies, before I became more sophisticated about the topic of my major, I used to employ a lot of textual and interpersonal Themes. For example, whenever there is a sentence that I do not know how to add to the text, I directly used textual or interpersonal Themes. (Interview Transcript, p. 13)

On the contrary, one participant mentioned that they did not prefer using marked themes to signal their movements or intentions throughout the text.

(Excerpt 22, S8)

Typically, the first sentence is what tells you what we are trying to talk about, so I do not need to use marked Themes to help clarify how we are moving from one sentence to another. (Interview Transcript, p. 16)

(m). *Focusing on the Effect of Thematic Choices in Writing Pedagogy*

Therefore, the utilisation of various types of themes is linked to a process of implicit and explicit learning in association with exposure to a corpus of academic papers and explicit writing instructions. Several participants commented that students should be familiar with the importance of the flow of information. In other words, students should be provided with advanced writing instructions to ensure adherence to the academic genre's conventional features.

(Excerpt 23, S4)

"Students must be taught how to create coherent texts so that they do not jump from one idea to another without taking into consideration the flow of the ideas in their sentences" (Interview Transcript, p. 7).

V. DISCUSSION

The logical progression of information is inevitably affected by the thematic structure. The findings of this study correspond with Park and Nam's (2015) observations. The current study found that EFL graduate students use different themes to scaffold their academic content. In several instances, students used topical themes to function as full themes, such as subjects and points of departure for their messages. On the other hand, they preceded these topical themes with textual and interpersonal themes that functioned as parts of the themes. They used textual and interpersonal themes to specify their messages. This corresponds with Potter (2016), who noted that the text usually contains only one topical theme and one or more textual and interpersonal themes. It has also been determined that textual themes constitute the first position in the theme (Ahangari, 2015). In line with Ebrahimi's (2016) findings, it was also observed that students tended to use unmarked, topical themes more than other types of themes.

The study's findings indicate that the thematic organisation is not arbitrary or value-free; meaning, it affects the text's rhythm and the perception of its intended meaning. This confirms Potter's (2016) findings. It further supports Wei (2016a), who argued that the thematic choices are extremely crucial because they are vital for shaping the target readers' perception of the text and its message.

Various thematic choices enhance the semantic consistency. This was observed through an interplay of marked and unmarked themes in addition to textual and interpersonal themes. Students used marked themes, or even textual and interpersonal themes, to connect the information and cohesively communicate their intended messages. However, some students overused one type of theme, which negatively affected the text's flow. This corresponds with Wei (2016b),

who found that some students used interpersonal themes more than topical themes. Repetitive use of themes can make their texts more colloquial. This was also demonstrated by Alotaibi (2020), who found that writers tend to use unmarked themes to start their clauses.

It was observed that students tended to use textual themes more than interpersonal themes. This can be attributed to graduate students' prior learning experiences, the way they perceived the nature of academic writing, or their preferred ways of organising the text's rhythm. However, certain extant studies claim the contrary. For instance, Chang and Lee (2019) found that students' low proficiency leads them to use interpersonal themes more than textual themes, whereas professionals adopt a more balanced approach.

Regarding the third research question, some students used different themes to achieve particular objectives. This is consistent with Potter's (2016) findings: thematic organisation can be manipulated to achieve several rhetorical purposes. Thematic choices can also be used to enhance the logical development of the texts. This was observed by Halliday (2014) and Jing (2015). They stated that the coherence and cohesion of the text can be promoted by appropriate thematic choices.

Some students used unmarked themes as a point of departure for their clauses, and this is in line with Halliday's findings. Further, it was observed that some students used different themes to orient the readers' attention and inform them of the text's content. This corresponds with Thompson (2014). Moreover, this supports Alyousef's (2016) and Lores's (2004) findings: appropriate thematic choices maintain the cohesion and coherence of the texts. Graduate students create the text's rhythm through its linear development, reiteration of the same theme, or Multiple-Theme patterns.

Analysis of the students' responses regarding their perception of the rhythmic effect of their thematic choices supports the findings of previous studies (e.g., Kim, 2020). It was found that students' perceptions of the writing assignment's requirements affect their thematic choices. Furthermore, the intended audiences, subject, students' interests, and their major influence their thematic choices. This finding is consistent with those of Kim (2020): students' perceptions of the writing tasks can shape and reshape their rhetorical choices. It is noteworthy that students' perceptions of the effect of their choices on the flow of their texts facilitates the decision-making processes and leads them to produce academically appropriate texts.

It is important for students to get feedback regarding the rhythmic complexity of their work. Sometimes they use different types of texts to encourage the instructors to provide them with comments regarding the text's rhythm. This was also highlighted by Kim (2020), who noted that students may adjust their interpretation of the written assignments based on the perceived feedback.

In this study, participants displayed their willingness to produce cohesive and coherent texts, and achieve several communicative objectives through their choices. They were aware of the effect of their thematic choices on the text's rhythm. However, their perceptions were not necessarily reflected in their actual performance. This indicates that they may need to engage with the learning process. Thus, students' experiences, backgrounds, preferences, weaknesses, knowledge about language (metalinguage), and familiarities must be considered while designing and identifying the requirements of written assignments. These findings correspond with extant literature (e.g., Beck & Jeffery, 2009).

Further, students used various linguistic and rhetorical elements to enhance their text's uniqueness. This was noted by Myhill (2009), who claimed that such choices "create different shades and nuances of meaning for different audiences and contexts" (p. 405). Thus, students' thematic choices may compel the readers to continue reading the texts. In most cases, graduate students are expected to create elegant, coherent, and persuasive texts.

The flow of information (i.e., periodicity, according to Martin and Rose's concepts) is affected by the writers' choices. Rhythm is not a rigid structure that simply links the parts to the whole (Martin & Rose, 2007). The effective, precise, and accurate thematic choices are predictive of the text's rhythm. They help target audiences to predict the discourse's structure. They orient the audience's concentration at the micro (i.e., local) and macro (i.e., global) levels. Similarly, Martin and Rose (2007, p. 199) remarked that the using macroThemes and hyperThemes to signal different phases of the discourse constructs "a "hierarchy" of periodicity of smaller units of discourse "scaffolded" within larger units".

Graduate students may face cumulative challenges in their efforts to produce high-quality compositions. Some of these challenges are related to the flow of information (i.e. the rhythm), which is strongly affected by the students' thematic choices. In other words, they are expected to select appropriate discourse structures, which can be constructed through several waves of information for different academic genres. This additionally pressurises graduate students, whose choices are deeply context-sensitive. These findings are in line with Escobar and Fernández's (2017).

Therefore, enhancement of academic writing can be achieved through rhythmic maturity and confidence in effectively utilising several rhythmic structures in a particular academic context. Further, the graduate students must keep working on their academic literacy (Babaii et al., 2016).

VI. CONCLUSION

This study broadly focuses on the rhetorical representations in texts that are usually associated with several conventional organisations that serve different communicative functions. The study's findings indicate that SFL approaches are reliable for analysing the meaning and rhetorical patterns of written texts. The analysis of the graduate

students' thematic choices extends Martin and Rose's (2007) SFL semantic approach to the complex academic compositional zone.

A fairly high level of metalinguistic awareness regarding the creation of different meaning through various linguistic representations, structures, and patterns may enhance graduate students' ability to make appropriate decisions. Graduate students should be given more opportunities to engage with different academic genres and explore the most effective thematic choice that shapes their texts in academically appropriate ways. Such findings could be used by concerned authorities to enhance the learning programs for EFL graduate students.

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Exploring Collocations in EFL Textbooks and Providing Teaching Guidelines

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Abstract—This study aimed to analyze the most common collocation types found in seventh- through ninth-grade English textbooks. This study used a descriptive-analytical research design, specifically a content analysis method, to identify the accented collocations throughout a set of junior high school English textbooks. It was discovered that the three textbooks collectively have only 9% collocations out of the vocabulary found in them. Besides, Band II of the Revised English Curriculum of the Ministry of Education (2013), which includes all possible collocations for intermediate -level learning, has only 1% collocations out of the whole band of vocabulary.

Index Terms—CALL, collocations, content analysis, eclecticism/ eclectic method, junior high textbooks, pedagogical guidelines, TPACK

I. INTRODUCTION

Collocations are significant chunks with unique properties that fall under the chunk umbrella. Firth (1957, p. 194) coined the term "collocation" as a linguistic term for "words that keep company". The idea was that the word(s) it collocates with, influences its meaning. Sinclair (1966) also defined "node" and "collocate": the "node" is the lexical unit's "kernel," and the "collocate" is the word (s) that associates with it.

Since 1994, the standard definition of "collocations" has been the one adopted by the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002), which is similar to the one introduced by Firth in (1957, p. 194): "The process by which words in a language combine to produce natural-sounding speech and writing is known as collocation. Collocations, in other words, are word groups that frequently occur together". The Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002) was consulted in order to verify the accuracy of the collocations used in this study.

There are two kinds of collocations: lexical and grammatical. Lexical collocations are typically composed of two parts. One of them, according to Sinclair (1966), is the "node" (kernel), and the other is the "collocate". The first is used metaphorically, while the second is used literally. Lexical collocations can take many different syntactic forms.

The study, however, will only look at two types of lexical collocations:

- a. Verb + Noun = *do homework, make the bed, commit suicide*
- b. Adjective + Noun = *strong coffee, weak tea, confirmed bachelor*

Grammatical collocations are made up of a dominant verb, a noun, an adjective, and a preposition or grammatical structure. The current study, however, only looked at two types:

- a. Verb + preposition = *agree with*
- b. Adjective + preposition = *afraid of, careful about, involved in*

One of the officially approved textbooks used in Palestinian schools is the Eric Cohen Junior High School Textbook Series (*Sky High*, 2017 for grade 7; *Just Thinking*, 2015 for grade 8; *Just Imagine*, 2015 for grade 9). It is a series for mixed-ability classes in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades that are supposed to meet all Revised Curriculum requirements and has been approved by the Ministry of Education. The vocabulary Bands are one of the changes and modifications made to the revised curriculum (Band I for foundation level, Band II for intermediate level, and Band III for proficiency level).

The Ministry (2013) and a committee led by Ur (2014) decided to include the phenomenon of chunks in the vocabulary Bands due to its significance. In spite of the fact that Palmer (1976) discussed the various syntactic structures of collocations, the term "collocations" is not mentioned. Instead, it is grouped in with the term "chunks" without taking into account the distinct qualities that collocations possess.

In 2017, after the Ministry of Education approved the revised curriculum, this series was adapted into a textbook. But the supplementary workbooks, which are mostly meant to help people understand collocations better and improve their

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English skills (Shemesh & Zelenko, 2017; Daon, 2015; Coddington, 2015), don't have many communicative and varied activities or drills that focus on collocations.

Based on her teaching experience, the researcher observed that Arab learners struggle to effectively acquire vocabulary, particularly collocations. They struggle with collocations because they don't understand how the lexis works; for example, they don't know which verbs or adjectives collocate with nouns or which prepositions go with verbs or adjectives.

Furthermore, the researcher discovered that her students generally recognize single words, remember their meanings, and perform well in reading texts only if the collocations are transparent. The researcher also observed that by clarifying the meanings of any ambiguous collocations her students encountered, their word recognition, vocabulary retention, and overall reading performance increased. If the collocations are too idiomatic, they feel uncomfortable and embarrassed, which affects how well they read.

This study is conducted to answer the following questions:

- 1- To what extent does the Palestinian series of Junior high school textbooks: *Sky High* (2017), for the seventh graders; *Just Thinking* (2015), for the eighth graders; and *Just Imagine* (2015), for the ninth graders, include collocations?
- 2- Do collocations meet the criteria of the curriculum guidelines?

The purpose of this research is to analyze the content of collocations in *Junior High school textbooks* series in order to introduce pedagogical guidelines highlighting the teaching of English language collocations at Arab Junior High schools in Palestine.

The current study, which focuses on Palestinian EFL students, is significant because it adds to the body of knowledge about the potential impact of both identification and guidelines for teaching collocations in EFL reading classes. Curriculum designers, educational policymakers, and EFL teachers and students are likely to be particularly interested in the current research findings. Furthermore, the study raises EFL teachers' awareness of the importance of incorporating collocations into foreign language teaching and learning syllabuses.

Laufer and Hill (2000) looked at how using online dictionaries integrated into text affected the retention of new collocations. Students studying English as a Foreign Language at universities in Israel and Hong Kong made up the study's participants. It was found that using an online dictionary helped with memory retention of collocations.

Koya (2004) analyzed verb-noun English collocations in textbooks for 10th grade students in Japan and found that collocations are neglected in kind and number despite the importance of collocations to strengthen learners' English control. The researcher said that collocations should be in textbooks to help students build a large vocabulary, even though teaching collocations has become more important in recent years.

Wang and Good (2007) investigated the importance of verb-noun pairs in language fluency due to collocations in EFL textbooks. In Taiwan's three English high school textbook series, the corpus analysis discovered few repetitions. The researchers suggested that textbook writers and designers rethink textbooks by reassessing the importance of repetition for EF learners to acquire collocations. To compensate for the lack of collocations in EF textbooks, EFL teachers should use explicit instruction.

Keshavarz and Salimi (2007) investigated the relationship between 100 Iranian EFL learners' collocational competence and their performance on a test that included both lexical and grammatical collocations. The findings revealed a link between EFL learners' collocational competence and their performance on the test. As a result, the findings help EFL and ESL students learn more about how words work together, which raises their level of English proficiency.

Hsu (2010) investigated the effects of implementing direct collocation instruction on the vocabulary growth and reading comprehension of three levels of English majors at Taiwanese colleges and universities. It was found that direct lexical collocation instruction improved vocabulary learning more than reading comprehension in all three groups. It also did better than the other two types of instruction in terms of how well students remembered the words they had learned. However, collocation instruction was found advantageous to the lower level who made considerable progress in reading comprehension. So, before introducing reading texts, Hsu (2010, p. 71), along with Nation (2008), suggested that teachers present a "collocation-focused" pre-teaching activities" to improve students' reading performance. Oskuee et al. (2012) also emphasized the significance of pre-teaching collocations, which positively impacts writing performance. In order to improve reading quality, they emphasized the techniques of "noticing" and "becoming aware".

Abdoui (2010) examined how teaching collocations improved the writing fluency of Arab Algerian students of foreign languages. Initial evaluations revealed an abundance of "miscollocations" and a general deficiency of collocational knowledge. The study reported that the experimental group outperformed their counterpart group significantly.

Chen and Truscott (2010) investigated incidental acquisition during reading with 72 Asian university freshmen, introducing words through meaningful reading texts. They intended to investigate how word repetition (recurrences) in reading influences and develops EFL learners' word acquisition in terms of word knowledge as well as how L1 translation equivalent influences target word meaning acquisition. The results revealed that repetition has a positive impact on EFL learners' word acquisition. Furthermore, the findings revealed that the L1 translation equivalent affects

the acquisition of the target collocation's meaning; the absence of an L1 equivalent translation causes great difficulty in acquiring a word's meaning.

Al-Sakran (2011) looked into the proficiency with lexical and grammatical collocations in writing and listening comprehension among advanced Arabic-speaking English learners. In total, 68 people from Saudi Arabia and Colorado took part in the study. ESL students outperformed their EFL counterparts in a task measuring their ability to use collocations in the target language. There was statistically significant evidence that verb-noun collocations were superior to adjective-noun and verb-preposition pairings. The results of all four assessments showed that Arabic-speaking English learners had a weak grasp of collocations.

Guilani (2011) investigated the effects of increased awareness on verb collocation and colligation feedback. 300 non-English majors from three universities in Guilan, Iran, were chosen for this study. It is discovered that the raising awareness strategy and the improved verb collocation feedback have a positive relationship. Because of the textbooks' emphasis on structure, the study also found that students had a solid grasp of grammatical collocations. The lack of exposure to everyday cultural interactions, which are seen as a rich provider of authentic and natural language, is also reflected in students' limited production of lexical collocations.

Rahime and Momeni (2012) examined the impact of teaching collocations on students' English language skills. For this quasi-study, sixty Iranian high school graduates were split into two groups. The results of the post-test showed that the experimental group did better than the control group, indicating that learning collocations was beneficial.

Sadighi and Sahragard (2013) investigated the relationship between lexical collocational density and EFL reading comprehension. Eighty Iranian sophomores with varying levels of proficiency took the reduced TOEFL test administered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS, 1998). The treatment was found to be effective, as teaching lexical collocations improved students' reading skills. They discovered that texts with a high lexical density improved learners' comprehension.

Molavi and Hosseini (2014) examined lexical collocations in three EFL textbook series using a corpus-based methodology. Using an online corpus and AntConc 3.2.1, the researchers compared textbook collocations to actual usage by native speakers. The study suggests that noun-adjective pairs should be given equal weight. According to the results, authors of textbooks and language instructors should exercise greater caution when choosing target collocations to teach. The target collocations must be utilized in the same manner as native speakers.

Webb et al. (2013) analyzed collocation learning, focusing on the role of repetition. Students at a university in Taiwan who were taking English as a second or foreign language were given a modified graded reader in which 18 target collocations occurred 1, 5, 10, and 15 times, respectively. The findings demonstrated that exposure to collocations in a graded reader on 15 occasions was sufficient to produce significant learning gains. Furthermore, listening to a graded reader while reading on one's own can lead to the unintentional acquisition of collocations.

Suárez and Natal (2017) compared the treatment of collocations in EFL intermediate and upper intermediate textbooks. Both textbooks contain a large number of active collocations that students must learn. In the intermediate textbook, single words take precedence over collocations. The most collocations were found in adjective-noun pairs. Students are still having difficulty with this writing. Many syntactic structures that students struggle with are ignored or only partially acknowledged in textbooks. The findings necessitate the development of a new design framework for textbook collocations.

El-Dakhs et al. (2018) compared the efficacy of explicit instruction and incidental learning for L2 collocation acquisition in a study with 114 Arab elementary EFL students. Explicit learning outperformed incidental learning in both immediate recognition and recall. Form recognition was improved only temporarily through accidental learning. According to the findings, students have the ability to "notice" and "raise awareness" of collocations through explicit instruction.

Basal (2019) investigated the feasibility of provoking a collaborative dictionary using digital tools to compare the effectiveness of online and offline methods of teaching and learning adjective-noun collocations. Two groups of 53 Turkish participants were selected through convenience sampling. Results from both short- and long-term posttests showed that online tools were more effective than offline ones in teaching adjective-noun collocations.

Imane (2021) investigated the use of CALL in teaching collocations to Algerian students of English as a foreign language. The findings showed that the participants' CALL app usage was quite varied. In reality, most applications were on social media sites, which were not designed for collocation instruction or development.

Al-Garni and Almuhammadi (2019) investigated the effects of incorporating CLT activities on the oral proficiency of EFL students at the University of Jeddah's English Language Institute. The results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Al-Jarrah et al. (2019) examined the eclectic method for teaching English as a foreign language to Arab seventh graders. The experimental group was taught using CALL through Principled Eclecticism to fit the method to the learner, while the control group was taught using traditional methods to fit the learner to the method. The eclectic method allowed students to experience different teaching methods. Experimental methods outperformed controls.

Khaled (2020) compared the use of collocations in English and Arabic and made an estimate of Palestinian students' ability to understand and correctly use collocations. A total of 35 third-year students from the Islamic University of

Gaza took part in the project. The study reported that teachers and translators should improve both how they teach English and how they translate.

Assaf et al. (2020) examined the effect of an e-learning Quizlet-based program on the reading comprehension of 10th grade EFL Jordanian students. The results revealed that the experimental group performed better than the control group.

The most effective method for assisting students in developing their writing skills was to utilize a combination of the communicative and the collocational approaches. EFL writers (learners) can acquire a wide variety of collocations with the help of the Communicative Approach, which not only improves their capacity for communication but also makes their writing sound more like that of native speakers. Both the inductive and deductive methods are acknowledged to have value, and there is "universal agreement" that each method has several advantages as well as a number of disadvantages. It is not sufficient to consider that there is a single "best" method. The "conscious awareness and intention" approach is at the heart of the explicit method, which is founded on a deductive reasoning process and places a premium on the role of the instructor (to learn intended collocations). To learn target collocations, students of English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) must infer the actions necessary to achieve the goals they have set for themselves (implicit approach).

II. METHODOLOGY

This section is mainly concerned with defining the research method and procedures followed by the researcher in order to inquire into the issue of collocations in Palestinian Junior High School EFL textbooks. It includes a detailed description of the analysis, the research instrument and its validity and reliability, and the procedures of data collection and data analysis.

A. Design of the Study

The study follows a descriptive-analytical research design; it aims to accurately and systematically describe and evaluate the phenomenon of *collocations* to answer the question of the frequency of collocations in the target series and attempts to collect quantifiable data for statistical analysis of the reading texts. It allows only for the collection and description of the phenomenon of *collocations*.

B. Instrument of the Study

In public middle schools, a content analysis of Palestinian EFL textbooks (for heterogeneous classes) was used. As part of this study, three textbooks were content-analyzed using the researcher's exhaustive lists of only four categories. The three researcher-generated lists used to collect data are Active Collocations found in the three textbooks' vocabulary boxes as new vocabulary to be taught.

The researcher created a data collection instrument (content analysis). The researcher then classified the collocations into two categories (lexical and grammatical collocations). That is, they were classified according to their type. The researcher went through the textbooks and analysed all of the collocations using frequencies and percentages.

C. Materials Under Analysis

The current study aims to determine the extent to which Palestinian EFL textbooks include (inclusion) collocations, as well as the extent to which they meet the criteria of the curriculum guidelines, whether they cater or do not cater, or if they cater only partially within the guidelines. To address this issue, the researcher chose three EFL textbooks (for heterogeneous classes) that were used in public middle schools in Palestine during the academic year 2020–2021.

Sky High Textbook, by Shemesh and Zelenko (2017):

1- The title page, table of contents, and opening words are among the 168 pages in the textbook. It is composed of five units, each with three parts (language outcomes, skills and strategies outcomes, and project outcomes). It's an interesting textbook for a variety of seventh-grade classes. It satisfies all of the requirements of the Revised Curriculum and has been approved by the Ministry of Education. The course includes a student book, a workbook, teacher's guide, audio CD, links for listening and reading, and digital formats.

2- *Just Thinking*- by Daon (2015):

The book's 192 pages are made up of the title page, table of contents, and opening words. It is composed of five units, each with three parts (language outcomes, skills and strategy outcomes, and project outcomes). It is a stimulating course for intermediate-level mixed-ability classes at stage 2. It is permitted to be used in the Revised English Curriculum. The course includes a student book, a workbook, a teacher's guide, and audio components. There are also digital versions available.

3- *Just Imagine*- by Coddington (2015):

The book's 192 pages are made up of the title page, table of contents, and opening words. It is composed of five units, each with three parts (language outcomes, skills and strategy outcomes, and project outcomes). It is an energizing course for Intermediate Level, Stage 3 mixed ability classes. It is permitted to be used in the Revised English Curriculum. The course includes a student book, a workbook, a teacher's guide, and audio components. There are also digital versions available.

Reading (the prereading, reading text, and post reading; HOTS) from only one of the four language skills sections was used to analyse the materials mentioned above (reading).

D. Criteria of Analysis

One criterion has been selected to meet the purpose of this study:

(1) Inclusion; or containment—to check and judge whether the content under analysis (the textbooks of 7th to 9th graders) includes a certain phenomenon, concept, or piece of knowledge or not. This study focuses on the inclusion of collocations.

E. Units of Analysis

The nature of the current study requires the use of only one unit of analysis: the collocations of the four different types mentioned above. These following three units were used in the present analysis of one of the four language skills sections (reading): *Pre-reading texts*; *reading texts*; *post reading/ HOTS*, this part contains the exercises that appear after the main reading texts.

F. Categories of Analysis

The researcher devised a comprehensive list of four categories in order to investigate the extent to which Palestinian textbooks include and emphasize collocations (verb-noun, adjective-noun, verb-preposition, and adjective-preposition). The researcher developed her own list of categories for each textbook (Please see Tables 1-3). Table 4 contains the collocations introduced by the Ministry of Education; Band II, which includes all possible collocations for intermediate level (from the seventh to the ninth grades). Tables 5-7 compare the textbook's discovery to the Ministry of Education's guidelines (2013).

G. Validity of the Instrument

The content validity of the research instrument used in this study (a CA of collocation lists containing all the Active Collocations found in textbooks) was ensured. The researcher looked at the percentage of collocations in each textbook out of the total vocabulary in each. The instrument was kindly exposed to a jury of four experts and a panel of TEFL experts to determine its appropriateness and suitability for the study, who confirmed its validity.

To ensure that the instrument was appropriate for the study's design and objectives, the researcher considered all of the jury's suggestions. The expert panel declared the instrument fit for use in this study after re-examining the amended version. To ensure the consistency of the analysis, the researcher created a pre-defined set of categories (verb-noun, adjective-noun, verb-preposition, adjective-preposition) and operationally defined them. The panel members all agreed that the lists should only have four categories. They said that it is better to narrow the analysis than to add more categories.

H. Reliability of the Instruments

Even though this is a quantitative study, the researcher thought it was important to use different measures of reliability to make sure that the data collected by the research instrument was consistent.

I. Intra-Rater Reliability

After analysing the three textbooks (including all four types of collocations), the researcher reanalyzed the same textbooks over a two-week period using the same units, criteria, and categories of analysis. This allowed the researcher to avoid the memorization effect, which can lead to biased results. Before calculating the final frequencies and percentages for each table for the second time, the researcher corrected all incorrect data (wrong number of pages, miscalculations, unnoticed collocations, etc.). The intra-rater reliability coefficient was calculated to be 100% using Holsti's equation (1969).

J. Inter-Rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability was also used by the researcher to ensure that the data collected was as accurate as possible. In order to do this, an assistant analyst looked at the content of a few categories from each of the three textbooks. Then, from the lists of categories that were analyzed, he or she chose four categories at random.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section shows the results of the current study, which looked at how four types of collocations (verb-noun, adjective-noun, verb-preposition, and adjective-preposition) were used in reading texts in the Junior High School English textbook series (7th to 9th grades). The current study also looked at how well the words in the textbooks fit with the guidelines for the curriculum. This part will show the answers to the most important questions.

A. Results Pertinent to the First Research Question

To answer the first question, the Tables of results related to each of the three textbooks are displayed. The results of the analysis of the textbooks for 7th, 8th, and 9th graders show that there are not enough collocations included or embedded in them (see Tables 1, 2, and 3). In sum, the results are as follows:

The Sky High textbook (see Table 1) has only 19 collocations out of a total of 801 items of vocabulary appear in the textbook (0.023); 15 of them are *lexical collocations* and 4 are *grammatical collocations*.

TABLE 1
RESULTS- BOOK 7

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency	Percentage
Book 7 Sky High	Lexical collocations:	7/801	0,007 0,009
	Verb- noun	8/801	
	Adjective-noun		
Book 7 Sky High	Grammatical Collocations:	2/801	0,002 0,002
	Verb- preposition	2/801	
	Adjective-preposition		
Total		19/ 801	0.02

In the Just Thinking textbook (see Table 2), only 20 collocations out of the 533 items of vocabulary appear in the textbook (0.037); 14 of them are *lexical collocations* and 6 are *grammatical collocations*.

TABLE 2
RESULTS- BOOK 8

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency	Percentage
Book 8 Just Thinking	Lexical collocations:	10/533	0.018 0.007
	Verb- noun	4/533	
	Adjective-noun		
Book 8 Just Thinking	Grammatical Collocations:		0.007 0.005
	Verb- preposition	4/533	
	Adjective-preposition	2/533	
Total		20/533	0.037

Just imagine textbook (see Table 3) has only 23 collocations out of the 710 items of vocabulary appear in the textbook (0.032); 21 of them are *lexical collocations*, while 2 are *grammatical collocations*.

TABLE 3
RESULTS- BOOK 9

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency	Percentage
Book 9 Just Imagine	Lexical collocations:	12/710	0.016 0.012
	Verb- noun	9/710	
	Adjective-noun		
Book 9 Just Imagine	Grammatical Collocations:		0.002 0.000
	Verb- preposition	2/710	
	Adjective-preposition	0/710	
Total		23/ 710	0.032

B. Results Pertinent to the Second Research Question

Table 4 shows the results of using a quantitative approach to answer this question. It is preferable to present the Ministry of Education's Table of Collocations, which are used in the curriculum, before reporting the results (please see Table 4).

TABLE 4
RESULTS- BAND II

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency out of Band II	Percentage out of Band II
Band 2- Ministry of Education	Lexical collocations:	10/2200	0,004 0,001
	Verb- noun	3/2200	
	Adjective-noun		
Band 2- Ministry of Education	Grammatical Collocations:		0,003 0,002
	Verb- preposition	7 /2200	
	Adjective-preposition	5 /2200	
Total		25/2200	0.01

As it is shown in the Table, *Band II* has only 25 collocations out of the whole number of items of vocabulary that appear in the band: 2200 (0.01%), of which 13 are *lexical collocations* and 12 are *grammatical collocations*. Comparing collocations in the textbooks with the criteria of the curriculum guidelines, the percentage of collocations in each textbook in general is surprisingly greater than the percentage of the curriculum guidelines *Sky High* (0.02), *Just Thinking* (0.03), *Just Imagine* (0.03), *Band II* (0.01). When looking at the Table, *Band II* is not the best option. This means that policymakers and other interested parties must first revise curriculum guidelines.

Regarding the comparison with *Sky High* (see Table 5): As it is shown in the Table, *Sky High* has only 19 collocations out of the whole list of vocabulary items that appear in *Band II*; 2200 (0.008). 15 of them are *lexical collocations* (0.006), while 4 are *grammatical collocations* (0.0018).

TABLE 5
RESULTS- BOOK 7 IN PARALLEL TO BAND II

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency out of Band II	Percentage out of Band II
Book 7 Sky High	Lexical collocations: Verb- noun	7/2200	0,003 0,003
	Adjective-noun	8/2200	
Book 7 Sky High	Grammatical Collocations: Verb- preposition	2/2200	0,0009 0,0009
	Adjective-preposition	2/2200	
Total		19/2200	0.008

The comparison with *Just Thinking* in Table 6: As shown in the Table, *Just Thinking* has only 20 collocations out of the whole items of vocabulary that appear in *Band II*; 2200 (0.006). 14 of them are *lexical collocations* (0.005), while 6 are *grammatical collocations* (0.0019).

TABLE 6
RESULTS- BOOK 8 IN PARALLEL TO BAND II

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency out of Band II	Percentage out of Band II
Book 8 Just Thinking	Lexical collocations: Verb- noun	10/2200	0.004 0.001
	Adjective-noun	4/2200	
Book 8 Just Thinking	Grammatical Collocations: Verb- preposition	4/2200	0.001 0.0009
	Adjective-preposition	2/2200	
Total		20/2200	0.006

The comparison with *Just Imagine* in Table 7. As it is shown in the Table, *Just Imagine* has only 23 collocations out of the whole list of vocabulary items that appear in *Band II*; 2200 (0.01%). 21 of them are *lexical collocations* (0.009), while 2 are *grammatical collocations* (0.0009).

TABLE 7
RESULTS- BOOK 9 IN PARALLEL TO BAND II

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency out of Band II	Percentage out of Band II
Book 9 Just Imagine	Lexical collocations: Verb- noun	12/2200	0.005 0.004
	Adjective-noun	9/2200	
Book 9 Just Imagine	Grammatical Collocations: Verb- preposition	2/2200	0.0009 0.0000
	Adjective-preposition	0/2200	
Total		23/ 2200	0.01

TABLE 8
RESULTS- BOOKS 7, 8, 9

Source of collocations	Category of collocations	Frequency	Percentage
Book 7 Sky High	Lexical collocations:		
	Verb- noun	7/801	
	Adjective-noun	8/801	19/801
	Grammatical collocations:		(0.02)
	Verb- preposition	2/801	
	Adjective-preposition	2/801	
Book 8 Just Thinking	Lexical collocations:		
	Verb- noun	10/533	
	Adjective-noun	4/533	20/533
	Grammatical collocations:		(0.037)
	Verb- preposition	4/533	
	Adjective-preposition	2/533	
Book 9 Just Imagine	Lexical collocations:		
	Verb- noun	12/710	
	Adjective-noun	9/710	23/710
	Grammatical collocations:		(0.032)
	Verb- preposition	2/710	
	Adjective-preposition	0/710	
Total			62/2044 (0.03)

C. Discussion of the Results Related to the First Question

The answer to the first inquiry led to an analysis of the textbooks' inclusion of collocations. Tables 1, 2, and 3 display the results of a detailed analysis, which showed the situation to have previously been as follows:

Students can find 19 *active* collocations among the 801 lexical items in the Sky High textbook (see Table 1). There are 7 verb-noun pairs (0.007), 8 adjective-noun pairs (0.009), 2 verb-preposition pairs (0.002), and 2 adjective-preposition pairs (0.002) that are all examples of active collocations (0.02).

Sky High also contains 197 passive collocations that appear in the reading texts deceptively. For instance, "weather forecast" on page 14, which is verified in the Oxford Dictionary as a collocation on page 322. So, English teachers should highlight these collocations among students to draw their attention more to collocations.

Sky High has also *ill-formed* collocations. For instance, "wear a coat" on page 14 is not verified in the *Oxford Dictionary* as an authentic collocation. However, the dictionary suggests on page 126 that you "shrug (yourself) into" or "pull on" or "shrug on" or "throw on" or "button up" a coat. So, textbook authors should take this valuable note into account in their next publication.

Sky High also has "half collocations": nodes that do not have collocates or collocates that do not have nodes. I give myself permission to call them "miscollocations" to draw the teachers' attention to the difference between *combinations* and *collocations*. Combinations that are not confirmed as collocations in the collocation dictionary. However, teachers may think they are collocations. So, I have listed them to enlighten teachers about the false perception and to make them distinguish between collocations and combinations; not every combination is considered a collocation. For instance, "spend time" on page 21 or "turn on" on page 10 as an active item is not a full collocation by itself, but it is a node. On page 463 of the Oxford Dictionary, it is suggested to "turn on *the light*"; it is also suggested to "put on" or "switch on the light." So, it will be beneficial if textbook authors tire themselves of adding collocates to such phrasal verbs in the next publication. Besides, teachers should highlight the topic of combinations and collocations to their students and ask them to find suitable collocations.

Students can find 20 *active* collocations among 533 lexical items in the 8th grade *Just Thinking* textbook (see Table 2). There are 10 verb-noun pairs (0.018), 4 adjective-noun pairs (0.007), 4 verb-preposition pairs (0.007), and 2 adjective-preposition pairs (0.005) that are all examples of active collocations (0.037).

Just Thinking included 301 deceptive passive collocations in the reading texts. For instance, "make a movie" on page 9 is verified in the Oxford Dictionary as a collocation on page 511; it is also suggested to "produce or direct a movie". So, English teachers should highlight these collocations among students to draw their attention more to collocations.

Just Thinking has also *ill-formed* collocations. For instance, "check the crime scene" on page 9, is not verified in the Oxford Dictionary as an authentic collocation. However, the dictionary suggests on page 681 the collocates: "survey the murder scene". So, textbook authors should take this valuable note into account in their next publication.

Just Thinking has also "half collocations"; "miscollocations". For instance, "crazy about" on page 52, is not verified in the Oxford Dictionary as an authentic collocation.

Students can find 23 *active* collocations among 710 lexical items in the 9th grade *Just Imagine* textbook: 0,032 (see Table 3). There are 12 verb-noun pairs (0.016), 9 adjective-noun pairs (0.012), 2 verb-preposition pairs (0.002), and 0 adjective-preposition pairs (0.000) that are all examples of active collocations (0.032).

Just Imagine includes 311 *passive* collocations appear deceptively in the reading texts. For instance, "have the confidence" on page 11 is verified in the Oxford Dictionary as a collocation on page 149. So, English teachers should highlight these collocations among students to draw their attention more to collocations.

Just Imagine also entails *ill-formed* collocations. For instance, "discover secrets" on page 11 is not verified in the Oxford Dictionary as an authentic collocation. However, the dictionary suggests on page 689 that the collocate is "uncover/find out secrets". So, textbook authors should take this valuable note into account in their next publication.

Just Imagine also has "half collocations" and "miscollocations". For instance, "go online" on page 24, "wait for" on page 11, or "pick up" on page 89 as an active item; it is not a full collocation by itself, however, it is a node. Suggested collocates on page 569 of the Oxford Dictionary (adverbs like idly, carefully, or gingerly + pick something up): "I idly pick up a magazine." So, it will be beneficial if textbook authors tire themselves enough to add suitable collocates to the phrasal verbs in the next publication. Besides, teachers should highlight the topic of combinations and collocations to their students and ask them to find suitable collocations.

The results show that, despite the importance of collocations in helping students become proficient writers and speakers, textbooks fail to adequately cover the topic. The results also showed that word-to-word collocations are more effective than grammar-based ones. That's why it's not shocking that students from different educational systems are so incompetent in English language. The lack of collocations in textbook writing and speech makes the language appear less refined and more alien than it actually is.

This is in line with the research of Shammas (2013), who also expressed disappointment in the level of collocational competence among Master's degree candidates. In a similar vein, Namvar (2012) found graduate students' writing to be lacking due to issues with lexical and grammatical collocations. My students also frequently struggle with collocation. This is in line with the claims made by Bui (2021) and Swan (1995, p. 518), who argued that learning English collocations is particularly challenging for those who are not native speakers of the language.

D. Discussion of the Results Related to the Second Question

The purpose of this study was to investigate the second question and determine if the textbooks' use of collocations is consistent with the standards set forth by the curriculum guidelines. Band II, which includes all possible collocations for the intermediate level (see Table 4, please), is a curriculum guideline used from the seventh to the ninth grades. Tables (5-7) show the quantitative findings, which suggest:

In both Band II of the Ministry of Education (2013) and the three textbooks, there is a significant difference in the number of collocations (verb-noun; verb-preposition; adjective-noun; and adjective-preposition pairings) and other items of lexicon. In other words, single words take precedence over collocations. Band II contains 25 collocations out of 2200 lexical units (0.01) (Table 4). The three textbooks collectively (see Table 8) include 64 collocations out of 2044 lexical items (0.03).

Collocations are used extremely infrequently in both Band II (0.01) and the textbooks, by themselves, as a whole (0.03). Nonetheless, and surprisingly, the majority of books advocate for Band II (0.03: 0.01). Band II (as a source of guidelines) should presumably do better than textbooks, not the other way around.

It is evident that Band II is not a suitable criterion to use as a guide. The extracted findings are consistent with the findings of the previous studies: despite the emphasis of Smith (2005) on the importance of including collocations in the curriculum and despite their importance in advancing EFL learners' proficiency, collocations do not receive sufficient attention inside (and outside of) the language classroom, nor are they adequately taught systematically in EFL textbooks with sufficient associated activities (Vasiljenic, 2014). Nofal (2012) also stated that the curriculum did not emphasize collocations in particular.

IV. CONCLUSION

The present study concluded the following: there is no guiding principle for defining and prioritizing the inclusion of collocations in EFL textbooks; single words are prioritized over collocations; collocations are introduced as an

afterthought rather than the focus of a given activity. Because of this, it can be hard for students of English as a Foreign Language to learn, understand, use and translate collocations, especially grammatical collocations with a wide range of prepositions.

Collocations are difficult to learn because of their rarity, unfamiliarity, lack of common usage, and they are rarely explicitly taught in EFL classrooms. Therefore, Band II cannot be used as a benchmark for teaching collocations because they are not emphasized in the curriculum, no credit for collocations.

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Digital Teaching Materials Development Containing Environmental Education Using Task Based Language Learning (TBLL)

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Abstract—The Covid-19 pandemic results in unavoidable changes in all aspects of life, including education. This pandemic has led to the opportunity to enter digital learning. This study aims to develop digital learning materials based on Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLL) which contains environmental education for senior high school students. This Research & Development (R&D) was based on Plomp's development model. Digital learning materials were developed using the i-Spring application and integrated with the LMS Edmodo. The instruments used were questionnaires, observation sheets, and tests. The results of the study showed that digital learning materials were valid, practical, and effective for use in language learning. Besides, the developed model was validated with a self-validation value of 93.12% and an expert validation value of 93.18%. The developed model was tested for its practicality with a teacher practicality value of 93.54% and student validity of 80.62% with the category of very practical. The learning activity score reached 93.33% with the category of very active learning. Based on statistical data analysis, the developed digital learning materials were effective in improving learning outcomes.

Index Terms—Digital Teaching Materials, TBLL, environmental education, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Online learning is in line with the new era of Industry 4.0 (Van & Thi, 2021). Online learning is believed to be interactive and creates an environment in which students are actively engaged with the material and learn through practical activities and refer to their previous knowledge when receiving new knowledge (Priyadarshani & Jesuiya, 2021). Online learning becomes highly relevant in recent decades and the use of online learning has increased during the COVID-19 pandemic. This pandemic also leads to the use of online learning worldwide for life (Kanthimathi & Raja, 2021). Besides, it changes the concept that “online classes are optional” to “online classes are required” (Priyadarshani & Jesuiya, 2021).

Online learning is a teaching and learning system that utilizes electronic media, especially the use of the internet to access material; interact with the materials, teachers, and other students; and obtain assistance in the learning process to acquire knowledge, create meaning, and progress through experiential learning (Van & Thi, 2021). In this case, the interaction can be carried out through teaching materials. The importance of digital learning materials is an undeniable fact. Studies reveal that the technology and materials used by teachers in the learning process in class make learning more enjoyable (Şimşek & Yazıcı, 2021). To improve academic achievement as the main objective of teaching activities, it is highly recommended to use interesting teaching materials. A meta-analysis study on the use of materials in education shows that computer presentations, physical materials, concept maps, comic strips, and mixed materials have a positive effect on academic achievement (Ilhan et al., 2021).

Teaching materials are tools and resources offered by teachers to students to develop their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values (Akkaya & Al Kapidere, 2021). They can be simple materials such as models and photographs, as well as electronic devices such as computers, audio recorders, and cameras (Akkaya & Al Kapidere, 2021). Digital learning material can increase students' curiosity, creativity, interest, and motivation (Gül & Costu, 2021). Thus, the curriculum, classroom environment, and learning materials must be designed to meet the needs of students (Renzulli & Reis, 2014). Learning materials have to pose challenges for students even after they have left the classroom (VanTassel-Baska, 2011). Therefore, materials do not only play a role in creating knowledge in learning activities but also act as a cue to act (Carvalho & Yeoman, 2021).

As education systems are replacing conventional educational approaches, it is important to prepare the materials according to the digital era to support learning. Teachers who have 21st-century competencies have to design educational materials suitable for the subject (Ilhan et al., 2021). Some of the criteria of learning materials are attracting students' attention, and appealing to different sense organs, according to the program and students' cognitive levels. In selecting the materials, learning outcomes, characteristics of students and teachers, and the learning environment must be considered (Akkaya & Al Kapidere, 2021). Besides, students are also concerned with the ease of access to digital materials, and whether the learning information provided is necessary, correct, and useful (Tsai et al., 2021).

Learning materials improve the quality of education and provide students with a rich learning environment. One of the most emphasized skills in curriculum changes in recent years is the preparation and use of materials. To create an effective, efficient, and active classroom environment, concrete teaching materials supported by new and different methods and techniques are needed for more meaningful learning (Akkaya & Al Kapidere, 2021). Online learning should be considered as a method for transferring knowledge and developing students' professional competence without losing the advantages of face-to-face interaction (Frolova et al., 2021).

Concerning the application of technology, González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) suggest that TBLT can potentially benefit from using ICT resources due to its positive motivational impact on students that can encourage language learning (Rodríguez-peñarroja, 2022). Researchers have tried to incorporate the TBLT approach into online classes (Arslanyilmaz & Pedersen, 2010). In online learning, TBLT is much more challenging than face-to-face learning as it attracts and retains students' attention and promotes community building (Baralt & Morcillo Gómez, 2017; Perveen, 2021). Besides, TBLT can be implemented into more flexible media, not limited to face-to-face learning (Hiromori, 2021), for example, digital learning materials.

Over the last 40 years, TBLT has attracted many language teachers around the world. Some categorize TBLT as an approach, but others consider it as a method of the 'branch of Communicative Language Teaching' (Kararuddin, 2022). TBLT focuses on using authentic language and asking students to perform meaningful tasks using the target language (Ayar, 2021). With the increase in the emphasis on communicative competence and task-based language teaching, language teachers start to provide more open-ended language assignments as pedagogical activities and assessments (Chen, 2018). With the increase in the emphasis on communicative competence and task-based language teaching, language teachers start to provide more open-ended language assignments as pedagogical activities and assessments (Purpura, 2019; Vercellotti & McCormick, 2021). Task engagement has also been considered as the quality of effort and the number of student interactions (Egbert et al., 2021).

TBLT is beneficial as it is more student-centered (Chen, 2018). It allows for more meaningful communication and often offers extra practical linguistic skill development (East, 2019). In TBLT, tasks tend to be familiar to students so they are more likely to engage in learning. Besides, tasks support language acquisition through the required language interaction (Lume & Hisbullah, 2022). This method is beneficial for language learners as it not only helps create a real purpose of use but also provides a natural context for the learner to learn the language (Kamalian et al., 2017; Kanoksilpatham & Saranakkharin, 2019). TBLT helps students learn through activities that prioritize doing tasks using various activities to help students understand and read text clearly (Styati & Khasanah, 2021). Moreover, it is believed that when students learn a language by completing tasks, they are motivated. This method consists of specific constituents such as objectives, procedures, and specific results, and supports content-oriented and meaningful activities rather than linguistic forms (Ifeduba et al., 2022).

TBLT aims to provide opportunities for learners to master the language both spoken and written through learning activities designed to engage learners in the natural, practical, and functional use of language for meaningful purposes (Murat & Hismanoglu, 2015). Through the use of technology for supporting learning, TBLT requires students to engage in more activities in various pedagogical procedures to their skills to solve their linguistic problems in communication (Mufliharsi et al., 2022). In TBLT, students concern with communicating meaning through interaction with tasks (Cutrone & Beh, 2018). When using language for legitimate purposes, students have to think about the form of language as a whole, not just one particular form (Sholeh et al., 2021).

In TBLT, students have to assume greater responsibility than just waiting for bribed information (Nunan, 2004). Students are expected to participate actively in learning activities including completing tasks (Sholeh et al., 2021). The communicative task that encourages learners' actual use of language can be considered part of TBLT including tasks that potentially enable students to utilize what they previously learned in situations they may encounter outside the environment (Kanoksilpatham & Saranakkharin, 2019). In addition, TBLT features emphasize meaningful learning, involvement in the process of using language in the real world, and involvement in cognitive processes (Ellis, 2009).

TBLT provides learners with a natural source of meaningful material, ideal situations for communicative activities, and supportive feedback for more opportunities for language practice (Sun, 2022).

The development of studies on TBLT in varied settings, methods, and theories opens the way for understanding tasks and learning (Murat & Hismanoglu, 2015). Classifying tasks according to different perspectives offers teachers a variety of teaching methods to suit the interests of the learners in order to promote effective teaching and learning (Ardika et al., 2022). In terms of methodology, TBLT has its own learning framework, syllabus design principles, and material development procedures (Willis, 2016). However, they can be modified and innovated according to the needs and situations of students. Therefore, this study aims to develop TBLT-based digital learning materials. For getting interesting and useful materials in addition to knowledge and language skills, digital learning materials also contain environmental education.

Recent technological development has increased opportunities to intervene in nature which has become a significant pressure on the environment (Demirkaya, 2020). The natural environment in which all living things live has existed for many years without any problems in living things' interaction. However, population growth, industrialization, over-consumption, unplanned urbanization, damage to the natural environment, and depletion of natural resources have caused many environmental problems (Hamalosmanoğlu et al., 2020). In return, the earth gives back what we have done through various environmental phenomena which may end our length of stay on this planet if it gets worse (Marpa, 2020). Educating students who are more sensitive to the environment and understanding the importance of preserving nature for future generations through environmental education is expected to address environmental issues (Calis & Yildirim, 2020).

Understanding the environmental education practice and policy both in the formal and informal areas of the educational process allows us to rethink our actions (Pinto & Totti, 2020). Environmental education is a tool for addressing global environmental pressures caused by local or global events (Chen et al., 2018). Globalization causes existing environmental problems to get worse and affects the local, regional, and global environment (Hollstein & Smith, 2020).

Environmental education is a continuous learning process that allows humans to recognize concepts related to their environment, enabling them to develop a positive attitude toward the environment and a high level of sensitivity and awareness of environmental issues (Topal et al., 2020). Environmental education aims to face rapidly changing environmental issues (Arioder et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020). Besides, it provides individuals with environmental attitudes, environmentally-friendly behavior, and skills needed to protect and improve the environment and gain environmental awareness (Yeşilyurt et al., 2020).

One of the reasons for the inclusion of Environmental Education in the curriculum is due to the manifestation of a real socio-environmental crisis, in addition to the actions of the environmental movement and the initiatives themselves, individuals from some schools, because the teaching of Environmental Education, in a certain way, saves a new dimension for inclusion in educational process, bringing reflection on the consequences of environmental change (Marques & Xavier, 2020). Environmental education is one of the main tasks of the school because the process of formal education is more important and valuable for children to gain environmental awareness compared to non-formal education (Ablak & Yeşiltaş, 2020). This activity can effectively improve student learning outcomes on environmental awareness and sensitivity, knowledge of environmental concepts, environmental values and attitudes, environmental action skills, and environmental action experience (Yeşilyurt et al., 2020).

Information technology offers wide opportunities, including in education such as online education, access to educational e-resources, modern scientific publications, lectures by well-known scientists, etc. In this case, digital technologies play an important role in environmental education to shape students' environmental culture (Zakharova et al., 2020). The high school curriculum in Indonesia considers environmental education as a non-specific subject. Therefore, environmental education can be integrated into learning. This study aims to develop a digital learning material model based on TBLT containing environmental education in language learning for senior high schools.

II. METHOD

This Research & Development (R&D) aims to develop a digital learning material based on Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) containing environmental education. The development model was based on Plomp's model (Plomp & Nienke, 2013). This model consisted of three stages, namely, Preliminary Research (needs analysis, student analysis, curriculum analysis, concept analysis, analysis of learning objectives formulation), prototyping stage (product design and validation), and assessment stage (product testing to determine practicality and effectiveness values). This study produced digital learning materials based on model syntax which is innovated first according to the needs of the students and the learning situation. The material was based on the text-based 2013 curriculum. The research was conducted in an online learning setting due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Learning was done synchronously and asynchronously. Synchronous learning was carried out using the Zoom Meeting application and asynchronous learning used the digital teaching materials developed with the Ispring application (Ramadhan et al., 2022).

Product trials were carried out at State Senior High School 2 Padang. This school was selected using a purposive sampling technique with the criteria of students registered at state senior high schools in Padang City; open to accept innovation; can establish good cooperation; and have adequate facilities and infrastructure for conducting the study

(Ramadhan et al., 2022). The trial schedule was adjusted to the school curriculum so that the product developed is suitable for use at that time, namely for odd semesters. The research instruments were questionnaires, observation sheets, and tests. Data were analyzed descriptively and completed with the analysis of the validity, practicality, and effectiveness of the learning model. The selected students as limited trial subjects and wide-scale trial subjects based on the predetermined criteria are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TEST SUBJECT

Free trial class	Total students
Experoment class	30 students
Control Class	30 students

Data were analyzed descriptively for describing the validity and practicality of the developed materials. The effectiveness data in the form of student learning outcomes were analyzed using SPSS 26. The instruments used in data collection can be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Type of data	Data source	Data collection tools
Preliminary research	Teacher & students	Interview guide sheet, questionnaire
Prototyping phase	Validator	Questionnaire
Assessment phase	Teacher & students	Observation sheet, questionnaire, test

III. RESULT

A. Preliminary Research

Preliminary research was to determine the needs of students and learning situations. In this stage, data were collected by distributing questionnaires to teachers and students. Based on the results of the study, learning was carried out online by utilizing technological devices and applications that support the learning process. Based on the questionnaire filled out by the teacher, it can be concluded that. (1) The learning materials used are dominated by printed materials published by the Ministry of Education and Culture and supported by material found online; (2) The learning model is dominated by tasks; (3) Learning is done individually or independently; and (4) The media used are dominated by WhatsApp, YouTube, Google Classroom, and Zoom meeting applications. The learning is done online by utilizing various applications but learning materials are recommended so that students can use them anytime and anywhere.

Based on the results of a questionnaire filled out by the students, students' ability to use technological devices is above average. The majority of students agree that environmental education needs to be integrated into learning. Most students have their own mobile devices, so it is not difficult to use digital learning materials. The digital learning materials were developed using the TBLT model. This model needs to be innovated and tasks are adjusted to the steps of the learning model. Giving tasks without a goal causes learning outcomes less optimal. The results of this stage can be read in the related article (Ramadhan et al., 2021).

B. Prototyping Phase

This stage was to design products in the form of digital learning materials. The learning process using this product was supported by learning media such as Networking Sites (SNS) and Social Networking Learning (SNL). Some SNS and SNL are connected to digital teaching materials and some are not. The learning also used the Zoom meeting application to meet face to face between teacher-students and students. In this study, TBLT-based digital teaching materials were developed using the i-Spring application. This application can help students independently study and can connect various links so that they are connected to class SNL accounts. Besides, the researcher also used the Edmodo application.

Digital learning materials are developed in accordance with the developed syntax as presented in Figure 1 below. The explanation of this model can be seen in the previous studies (Ramadhan et al., 2021). The digital learning materials contain environmental education so the text is related to environmental knowledge in order to raise students' environmental awareness. Figure 2 presents some parts of the learning materials and Figure 3 shows the online learning process.

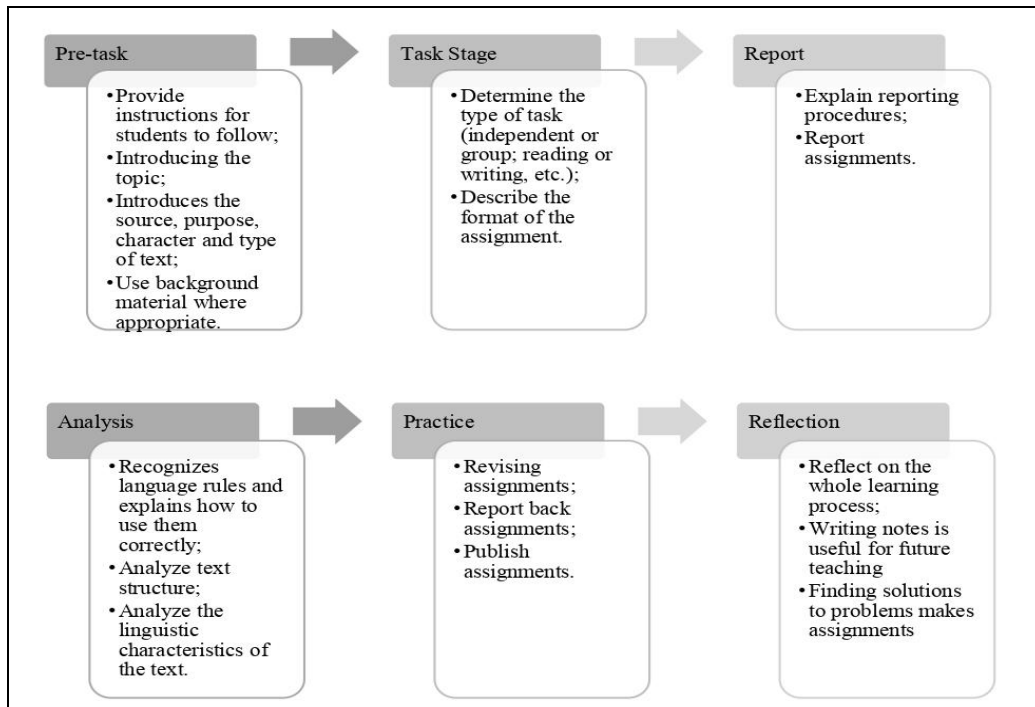


Figure 1. Task-Based Digital Teaching Materials Design

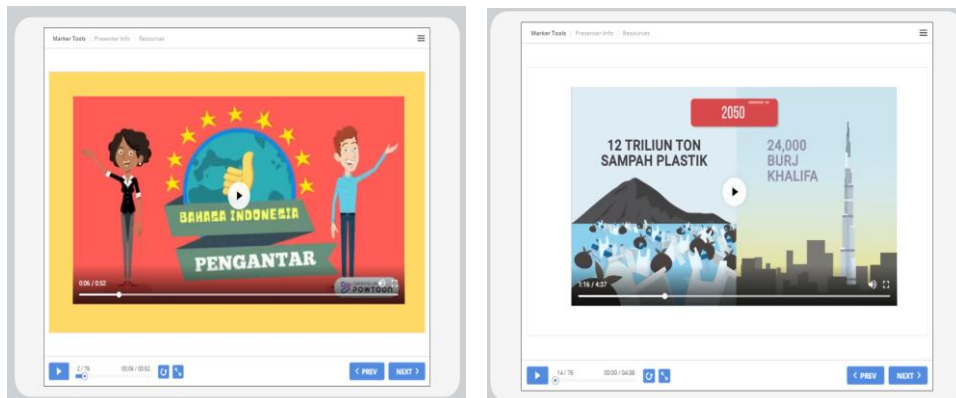


Figure 2. Digital Teaching Materials (Source: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pnuIEGuThsI&t=11s>)

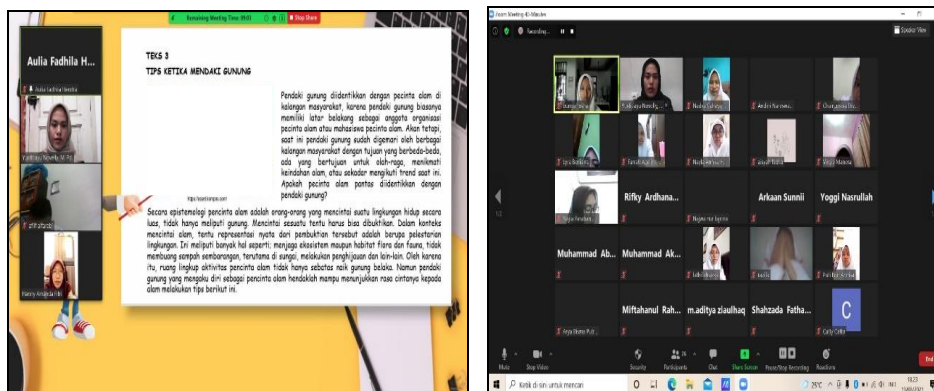


Figure 3. Learning Using Zoom Meeting

After designing the digital learning materials, the developed materials were validated through self-validation and expert validation. Self-validation was carried out by self-assessment using a validation sheet before the product is assessed by the expert. The validation covered the feasibility of the content, language, and presentation. The validity obtained a value of 93.12% with a very valid category. Besides, the product was validated by the expert using a validation sheet. The selected experts to validate the materials were lecturers or teachers. The aspects of validation by the expert covered content, language, presentation, and graphics. The validation sheet was filled out by each expert

according to their expertise. The validation by the expert obtained a value of 93.18% with the very valid category. Thus, the developed digital learning materials can be tested in the field (schools) for use by students to determine the practicality and effectiveness of the developed materials.

C. Assessment Phase

The developed materials that have been declared valid were then tested in the field. The trial was conducted at State Senior High School 2 Padang involving 2 classes, namely the control class and the experimental class. In the control class, the learning process was carried out as usual, while the experimental class used the developed digital learning materials. The learning process was carried out in four meetings and one meeting for testing the effectiveness of the product. The trial was carried out in online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The trial involved Bahasa Indonesia, teachers. The practicality of digital learning materials was assessed by distributing questionnaires after completing the learning process. It is important to know whether the materials are practical teaching materials for use in learning Bahasa Indonesia. The questionnaire contains statement items based on practicality indicators, namely ease of use, and can be studied within the allotted time. Besides, practicality is also seen based on the learning process activities carried out. The results of the practicality of the developed materials are presented in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
PRACTICALITY OF DIGITAL TEACHING MATERIALS

Type of data	Practicality	Category
Practicality by teachers	93.54%	Very practice
Practicality by students	80.62%	Very practice
Students learning activity	93.33%	Very Active

The final stage was to assess the effectiveness of the developed product. It can be seen from the assessment of students' knowledge through cognitive tests, students' attitudes, and students' writing skills. Cognitive tests were carried out by assessing students' knowledge of the developed material, namely procedure texts. This test focused on the ability to understand reading. Students' attitude was assessed by observing students' attitudes during learning. Observations are made by the teacher because it is more objective. The students' writing skills were measured by assessing students' skills in writing procedure texts. The test was carried out after completing the learning process using the developed materials. Through this test, student competence was tested to see the effectiveness of the developed materials. The results of the writing performance were based on predetermined indicators in which each aspect of writing was scored and the total score was counted using a formula. The effectiveness of the product was measured by comparing the control class and the experimental class. The control learned according to the lesson plan, while the experimental class learned by using designed digital learning materials. The effectiveness value can be seen below.

First, the cognitive test to test students' knowledge of the developed materials, namely procedure texts was in the form of multiple choice and essays. The test covered the nature of the text, the purpose of the text, the structure of the text, the linguistic features of the text, and the content of the text. The score was described in descriptive data. The test involved 30 students. In the experimental class, the average score reached 85.55 with the predicate "A". Meanwhile, the average score in the control class was 78.08 with the predicate "B". The experimental class has a higher score than the control class. It can be said that the TBLT-based digital learning materials containing environmental education are effective in increasing student scores.

Second, the attitude assessment was carried out in the experimental class during learning using the developed learning teaching materials. This assessment aims to measure and determine aspects of attitude competency integrated into learning, namely honesty, discipline, responsible, and activeness. Based on the results of the analysis, it can be concluded that the average score of student attitudes in learning using the developed materials was 93.3% with the predicate "A".

The analysis was continued by assessing students' ability to write procedure texts. The test used a performance test sheet consisting of context, instructions, and an assessment rubric. The final test was to determine the effectiveness of the developed materials by looking at differences in learning between the control and experimental classes. The results of the analysis of learning outcomes in the experimental and controls are presented in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS LEARNING OUTCOMES

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Control	66.8653	30	18.67896
Experiment	90.5100	30	7.81843
Total	78.6877	60	18.53854

The experimental class that used the TBLT-based digital learning materials containing environmental education has a higher learning outcome score than the control class. Before testing the hypothesis, a requirements analysis test, namely normality and homogeneity tests should be carried out. The normality test was carried out using SPSS 17. The results of the normality test are presented in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5
TEST OF NORMALITY

	group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Learning outcomes	Control	.191	30	.007	.941	30	.096
	Experiment	.221	30	.001	.862	30	.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Based on the table above, the df values for the experimental and the control classes are 30 students each. This means that the data samples for each group are less than 50. Thus, this study used the Shapiro-Wilk technique to determine the normality of the data with the Sig. value of 0.001 for the experimental class and 0.096 for the control class. As the Sig. value for one group is <0.05 , then as a basis for decision-making in the normality test, it can be concluded that the data on learning outcomes for one of the groups are not normally distributed. Therefore, testing was continued by using a non-parametric test with the Mann-Whitney test and the results are presented in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST

	Learning outcomes
Mann-Whitney U	101.500
Wilcoxon W	566.500
Z	-5.212
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

The basis for making decisions on the Mann-Whitney Test is as follows. (1) If Sig. (2-tailed) > 0.05 , then H_0 is accepted or H_a is rejected. This means that there is no difference in the average learning outcomes between the experimental class and the control class. (2) If Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05 , then H_0 is rejected or H_a is accepted. This means that there is a difference in the average learning outcomes between the experimental class and the control class (Scristia et al., 2020).

Based on the results of the "Mann Whitney Test" the Sig. value (2-tailed) obtained 0.000 < 0.05 so that H_0 is rejected or H_a is accepted. This means that there is a difference in the average learning outcomes between the experimental class and the control class.

IV. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the study, the use of TBLT-based digital learning materials is valid, practical, and effective for online learning of Bahasa Indonesia subjects. Many studies consider the advantages of large-scale digitalization which correlates with improving the quality of education (Gafurov et al., 2020; Malikov et al., 2020; Stokov, 2020; Tavstukha et al., 2021). Digitalization affects all areas of life including education, as one of the most dynamic environments (Andriushchenko, 2018; Tsarapkina, 2021).

Preville (2018) recommends that teachers have to utilize and take advantage of technological development such as digital learning media to engage their students in language learning (in Demir & Sönmez, 2021). Digital learning materials can respond to developmental needs by considering individual student differences and make teaching more fun and effective (Şimşek & Yazıcı, 2021). Yazdi (2012, p. 143) revealed that in the application of digital-based learning, students are required to play an active (initiative) and exploratory role in finding and understanding their learning material. To make learning more meaningful, the developed materials can contain learning models or methods (Atmazaki & Indriyani, 2019; Indriyani & Ramadhan, 2017). In this study, digital learning materials were developed by integrating the TBLT model.

Keyvanfar and Modarresi (2009) explain that task-based activities as an effective, practical, and innovative teaching method. They can increase students' involvement in class activities and improve students' communicative skills (p. 81). It is in line with Dailey (2009) that TBLT is an interesting and interactive method for increasing students' communicative competence. Ellis and Shintani (2014) explain that the TBLT can improve students' language skills due to its ability to promote natural learning in the classroom environment. Other studies also found that task-based activities can increase students' understanding of learning material (Irfan, 2017; Mao, 2012).

Jeon and Hahn (2006) found that TBLT has a significant positive impact on students' English development as it provides learners with a natural source of meaningful material, ideal situations for communicative activities, and supportive feedback enabling greater opportunities to use the language (p. 123). Another study, Liu et al. (2021) found that EFL teachers seem to have a positive view of TBLT and perceive that TBLT provides a variety of advantages to create a more communicative speaking environment in contexts (p. 131). Skehan (1996) claims that when expressing meaning under time pressure to complete a task can help students improve their language fluency. It is also believed to be able to increase students' intrinsic motivation than extrinsic motivation as it is student-centered (in Ho & Huyen, 2020).

During the Covid-19 pandemic, task-based learning has been implemented by some experts. The results showed the use of task-based activities can provide better learning outcomes than the conventional method. This is in line with

Tartavulea et al. (2022) that the task-based teaching method provides a positive impact on the teaching and learning process despite the spread of COVID-19. Teachers can still do an excellent job of teaching if they use appropriate activities (p. 920). Flores (2020) stated that during the COVID-19 pandemic, the online task-based teaching and learning process could effectively help students read details, scan details, and discuss with friends in sync (p. 343). Besides, Ferrucci and Rullani (2020) stated that the use of the task-based approach during the COVID-19 pandemic could teach the academic community how to redesign the knowledge production process to share knowledge (p. 2).

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the discussion, it is important to innovate learning materials according to the needs of students and the current situation. The development of the digital era and the COVID-19 pandemic have changed the educational system which requires adapting to the needs of students and the situation. One alternative that can be used is developing TBLT-based digital learning materials containing environmental education as an alternative to learning. Digital learning materials were developed using the i-Spring application and linked to the Edmodo application so that learning can be done online. The developed product was validated and tested in class. The results showed that the products developed are valid, practical, and effective for use in language learning.

This digital learning material is expected to be an alternative for teachers in language learning. Even though this digital learning material and the TBLT model were developed and tested during the COVID-19 pandemic, the teaching material model can be used in face-to-face learning, blended learning, and online learning. Future studies can develop learning materials by integrating other models in accordance with the needs of teachers and students. Besides, integrating environmental education in language learning can be traced again in other articles.

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A Systematic Review of Second-Person Knowledge Acquisition in First-Encounter Interactions

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Abstract—The acquisition of second-person knowledge in first encounters is a relatively unexplored area of investigation. In this study, we aim to shed light on this topic by systematically reviewing published research articles that describe the strategies and patterns observed when people seek to gain knowledge about one another in first encounters. Drawing on the framework of second-person knowledge and epistemics in conversation, we extracted relevant findings from the selected studies and explained the patterns of interactions in different interactional settings. Our findings showed that there are differences in the way second-person knowledge is acquired in both institutional and mundane settings. In institutional settings, the process is often asymmetrical and initiated by the party with institutional power to achieve institutional goals. Participants' professional roles and expertise are emphasized through the display of their epistemic stance and status. Although the party with a lower authority position mostly provides information within their personal experience domain, there are attempts to gain knowledge about their conversational partner using certain conversational strategies. Whereas in mundane settings, second-person knowledge exchange is reciprocal between conversational partners, and this knowledge serves as both a topic and a facilitator for the continuation of conversations. Sometimes, speakers trespass on their partners' epistemic territories to show an inclination toward creating a common ground. The findings of this review provide a better understanding of how people gain, disclose, withhold, and display knowledge about one another during the first encounter, which is an important communication event in everyday interaction.

Index Terms—second-person knowledge, first encounter interactions, conversation analysis, systematic review, epistemics

I. INTRODUCTION

What actually matters in life is who we know rather than what we know (Talbert, 2014). Understanding others is a crucial aspect of social life, and we often acquire knowledge about others from various sources. It is believed that second-person knowledge acquisition occurs through our interaction with others in order to know something about them (Talbert, 2014). Additionally, establishing mutual contact is crucial for us to claim knowledge about someone (Benton, 2017; Bergamin, 2017). This highlights the need to investigate the process of interaction as an intersubjective experience that is vital to understanding second-person knowledge acquisition.

People commonly obtain second-person knowledge through interactions in various contexts, such as sales, medical consultations, and social events. Research in conversation analysis has focused on how interaction partners display their knowledge about each other and exchange information through actions and sequences of actions (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b; Drew, 2018). However, few studies have focused on second-person knowledge acquisition during first encounters, which are important communication events ranging from social conversations to institutionalized meetings such as job interviews and medical consultations. First encounter interactions may have unique characteristics as familiarity from previous interactions is absent, and failure to exchange knowledge may lead to severe consequences for

the participants.

In this paper, we reviewed previous research on first encounters and personal information exchange by focusing on the analysis of conversations. Using a systematic literature review, we categorized and analyzed the findings within the framework of second-person knowledge acquisition (Talbert, 2014) and epistemics in conversation (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b; Drew, 2018). This review seeks to provide a systematic review of past studies that could offer valuable insights into the current state of research on first-encounter interactions and patterns of second-person knowledge acquisition in various contexts.

Perspectives on Second-Person Knowledge

Studies involving second-person knowledge in social science have long existed since the emergence of the Social Penetration Theory (Altman & Taylor, 1973). The self is seen as a combination of a person's knowledge, feelings, and attitudes. A key concept in Conversation Analysis is self-disclosure; however, the majority of past studies have focused on the process of self-information disclosure (Bangerter, 2000; Svennevig, 2014; Haugh & Carbaugh, 2015) and not the intersubjective process of how people acquire information about others.

Second-person knowledge encompasses at least two factors: "direct, face-to-face interaction" and "an understanding of who that person is in the world" (Talbert, 2017, p. 545). It is founded on the shared realities and experiences of face-to-face interactions. Building on Talbert's ideas, Bergamin (2017) proposed that knowing someone involves both knowledge of how to interact with them (knowledge-how) and propositional facts about them (knowledge-that). Conversation Analysis, which was developed to explain the mechanisms of social interaction through talk, has made important contributions to the understanding of how knowledge about individuals is exchanged in conversation.

Perspectives on Epistemics in Conversation

The distribution of knowledge in talks was first explored in 1957 by Bolinger, who questioned how access to propositional knowledge impacts the meaning and function of an utterance. Labov and Fanshel (1977) identified different epistemic constellations in therapy sessions, including A-events (known to A but not to B), AB-events (known to both A and B), and B-events (known to B but not to A). Pomerantz (1980) defined two types of knowledge: Type 1 refers to what one has the right and duty to know, while Type 2 relates to what has been inferred. Kamio (1997) proposed the term "territories of information," in which people safeguard their knowledge. These notions of knowledge distribution within the process of conversation have provided a foundation for the later development of Epistemics in conversation (Raymond & Heritage, 2006; Heritage, 2012a, 2012b, 2013a, 2013b; Drew, 2018).

Heritage's (2013a) assertion of the centrality of knowledge distribution and attribution in social interaction highlights the role of epistemic status and stance in driving conversation and shaping action formation. Participants' knowledge status about the facts being discussed (epistemic status) and their attitude toward their own knowledge of the facts (epistemic stance) are key factors in forming their actions in interaction (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b, 2013a, 2013b; Drew, 2018). He introduced the concept of the epistemic engine, which propels the progression of conversation based on each participant's unique access to the epistemic domain, which is represented on a gradient scale as K+ (more knowledgeable) or K- (less knowledgeable). The asymmetry in epistemic status of the discussed facts between participants drives the conversations. Participants position themselves as K+ or K- in their utterances, resulting in an epistemic display of information (Goodwin, 1981). Heritage later introduced the notion of "epistemic ecologies" (2013b), where individuals construct communities of their epistemic network and explore knowledge in normative and moral terms while taking into account entitlements, responsibility, imbalances, and norms (Van Dijk, 2014).

Research Objectives and Questions

This paper reviewed past studies on first-encounter interactions and discussed their contributions to the understanding of how interaction partners acquire second-person knowledge during first encounters. It aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What contextual practices pertaining to second-person knowledge acquisition are described in these studies?
2. How do speakers in the interactions position themselves epistemically to acquire second-person knowledge?

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A systematic review method was used in this study due to its advantages, such as reducing bias, eliminating irrelevant studies, and producing reliable conclusions. The review process followed the protocol designed by Bultler et al. (2016) for qualitative studies.

A. *Inclusion Criteria*

The criteria for the inclusion of studies are explained below.

(a) Studies using the Conversation Analysis (CA) framework

This review focuses on the interaction process. The researchers used Conversation Analysis as one of the primary methods to investigate moment-by-moment interaction.

(b) Initial interactions between two persons

The scope of this review is on first-encounter interactions.

(c) Second-person knowledge

The topic of investigation in this review involves the distribution and transmission of knowledge about the speakers

themselves: their background information, personal experience and feelings, and thoughts.

(d) *Journal articles published in the English language*

As a result of limited resources, we were unable to include papers written in languages other than English in this review.

(e) *No publication timeframe*

No publication time frame was imposed in the article search, as the initial search revealed not many articles that could be included.

B. Search Strategy

This review adhered to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews (PRISMA) guidelines and the qualitative systematic review technique proposed by Butler et al. (2016). Three of the most used electronic databases in the social sciences were searched for relevant articles: Web of Science (WoS), Scopus, and ScienceDirect.

All searches were conducted between February 15, 2022, and April 30, 2022, using the Boolean strings listed in Table 1. The search strategy included terms describing the following domains: acquaintanceship (second-person knowledge), first encounter, and conversation analysis (see Table 1). Two raters (the first author and a postgraduate student in Linguistics) independently assessed the full texts for eligible studies. Disagreements were resolved by discussion. The reference lists of selected studies were manually searched for additional relevant papers.

TABLE 1
SEARCH STRATEGIES

Database	Search Terms
Scopus	"first encounter" OR "initial encounter" OR "first conversation" OR "initial conversation" OR "first interaction" OR "initial interaction" OR "first interview" OR "initial interview" OR "blind date" OR "first meeting" OR "initial meeting" OR "first date" [Title/Abstract] AND "conversation analysis" [Abstract/Keywords]
	"acquaint*" OR "rapport" OR "intima*" OR "get to know" [Title/Abstract] AND "conversation analysis" [Abstract/Keywords]
WoS	"personal experience" OR "personal data" OR "personal information" OR "personal background" [Title/Abstract] AND "conversation analysis" [Abstract/Keywords]
ScienceDirect	"job interview" OR "personal interview" OR "opening" OR "beginning" OR "greetings" OR "introduce*" AND "meeting" [Title/Abstract] AND "conversation analysis" [Abstract/Keywords]
	"have not met" OR "unacquainted" OR "stranger" OR "never met" OR "first met" OR "unknown person" [Title/Abstract] AND "conversation analysis" [Abstract/Keywords]

The search of electronic databases identified 372 potentially relevant studies, of which 90 were duplicates. The titles, abstracts, and/or keywords of the remaining 282 articles were initially screened for eligibility. Then, 71 full-text articles were assessed in detail to ensure fulfillment of the inclusion criteria. Finally, 22 articles from 1984 to 2021 that met the criteria were selected (see Figure 1 for the selection process), and their findings underwent data extraction and synthesis.

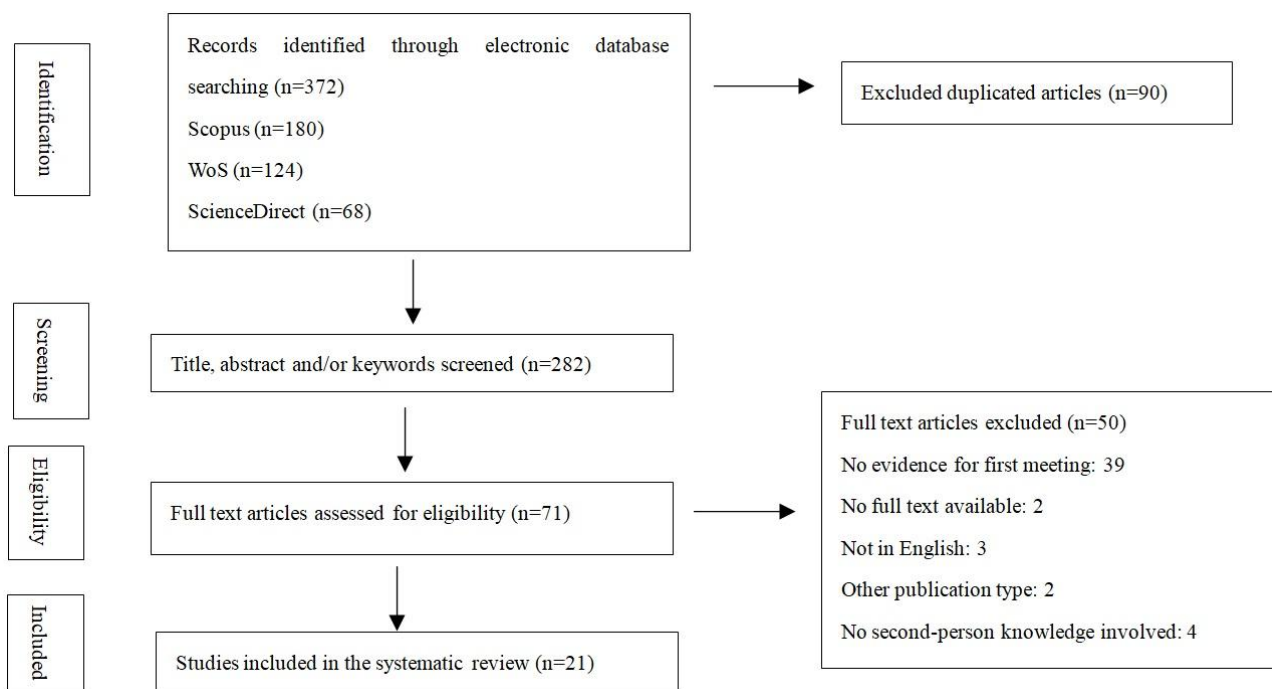


Figure 1. Flow Diagram for the Study Selection

III. DATA EXTRACTION AND SYNTHESIS

Different types of settings for first encounters were identified, which comprised 9 articles on conversations in clinic encounters between patients and doctors, 7 articles on encounters in other institutional settings involving guests and officials or clerks at service or help centers, clients and attorneys, salespersons and customers, students and teachers, interviewers and job candidates, and 5 articles between ordinary people in mundane settings. Findings related to second-knowledge acquisition from these articles were examined and analyzed through the lens of epistemic analysis in conversation.

A. Clinical Encounters

(a). *The Practices of Acquiring Second-Person Knowledge*

Clinic interactions revolve around task-oriented collaborations between doctors and patients, aiming to address the patients' physical or mental issues together (Park, 2021). Second-person knowledge exchange in clinics primarily focuses on the patients' personal experiences and perspectives, with the ultimate goal of establishing a diagnosis (Heath, 1992; Heritage & Sefi, 1992; Maynard, 1992). The conversations are guided by doctors who initiate the interaction (Robinson, 1998; Maharani & Suratno, 2018), beginning with symptoms and progressing toward prescribing appropriate treatments (Opsommer & Schoeb, 2014). Doctors employ open-ended questions to elicit patients' main concerns (Park, 2017), while patients assume a supportive role and collaborate with the doctors. In cases involving referral letters, alignment is achieved through recognition between patients and doctors (White et al., 2014). Video-mediated interactions adhere to the rules of face-to-face consultations, with technical issues resolved through negotiation (Shaw et al., 2020). The interactional dynamics exhibit an asymmetry where doctors initiate most of the opening sequences while patients await new sequence initiation, preparing to address their primary complaint collaboratively.

(b). *Epistemic Positioning in Acquiring Second-Person Knowledge*

In clinical encounters, epistemic positioning embodies a hierarchical status. When doctors and patients interact, they are both aware of the boundaries of their knowledge territories (Scarvaglieri, 2020). Second-person knowledge acquisition is always initiated by doctors deploying a "K-" epistemic stance in the patients' domain of personal experience. During the process, patients position themselves in "K+" status within the domain of their own experience and feelings, whereas doctors place themselves in "K+" status within the field of providing explanations for their patients' feelings and sickness. When patients intend to cross the epistemic boundary and position themselves as having "K+" status within the doctors' epistemic domain, they use indirect ways to avoid confrontation, such as compliments to the doctors' expertise, to show their preferences toward treatments (Hudak et al., 2010).

These epistemic positionings are exemplified in the following excerpts:

Extract 1 from Park (2021, p. 9) DEN=Dentist PAT=Patient

1 ((DEN sits on the chair, and puts on the mask while looking at the x-ray))

2 DEN: ssip-ul ttay etten sik-ulo aphu-se-yo?

How does it hurt when you bite?

3 (1.5)

4 PAT: ku ikhey ttaktak-han ke-1 mos

It's like I can't bite hard things.

5 (1.1)

6 DOC: (ko-) (0.5) ku: (.) ttaktak-haci anh-un pwupwun-un ettay-yo?

(Uh-) (0.5) Uhm: (.) how about the bits that are not hard?

The dentist asks for information (Lines 2 and 6, Extract 1) in the domain of the patient's symptoms. With questioning, he positions himself as having "K-" epistemic status in the stated matter, starts the specific topical agenda to investigate patients' tooth problems, and solicits the information he needs for treatment. The patient follows the dentist's instructions and provides answers in which he shows a "K+" epistemic stance. The dentist continues to lead the conversation with another question (Line 6). The second-person knowledge in their conversation is about the patient's personal experiences, which is one-sidedly acquired by the dentist and serves the interactional goal of identifying the symptoms of the patient's condition accurately and in a time-efficient manner to make a diagnosis.

Extract 2 from Scarvaglieri (2020, p. 5) PA=patient TH=therapist

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1 PA: Ich ah bin auch bereit daw. ••
meine Situation ah verandem zu wollen
I am ready to •• want to change my
situation.</p> <p>2 <i>Recording starts</i></p> <p>3 TH: Ja↑
Yes↑</p> <p>4 ((1,2s))</p> <p>5 PA: (.)Und ah •• ich weiß nicht, wo wir
jetzt anfangen. ne?
(.)And ah •• I don't know. where to
start, right?</p> <p>6 TH: Hm↓hm↑
Uh↓uh↑</p> <p>7 ((4.7))</p> <p>8 PA: Auf... =Ich weiß nicht auf was
Sie jetzt (.) ah (.) gezielt / ((2.5)) ah
On... =I don't know what you
now (.) ah (.) aim/ ((2.5)) ah</p> <p>9 ((2.8))</p> <p>10 PA: hin ah/ wo Sie gezielt jetzt hin
wollen.</p> | <p>aim/ ((2.5)) ah ((2.8)) ah in which direction
you want to go.</p> <p>11 ((12.0))</p> <p>12 PA: Ja kann'S mir da n bissl ah ((2.0))
auf die Sprünge helfen oder so?
Ja could you help me out ((2.0))
with this a bit, or?</p> <p>13 PA: J à((Rausporn)) Das tu ich gem
natürlich. Ja ich würd sagen wir
Y ès. ((Clears his throat)) Of course
I'll do that. Ya I would say</p> <p>14 TH:fangen da an. wo Sie der Schuh
drückt, ne?
we start with where you feel the
problems lie, no?</p> <p>15 PA: Ja ·Der
Y ès. The</p> <p>16 PA: Schuh. wo mich der Schuh drückt.
Ahh Zum ersten ich hab noch einige
problems. where the problems lie.
Ah At first I did bring some.</p> |
|---|---|

In this first encounter in psychotherapy, the patient does not know where to start the conversation and asks for prompts from the therapist three times (Lines 5, 10, and 12, Extract 2). However, the therapist responds with "uh" (Line 6) and a long pause (Line 11) instead of giving an explicit answer. In Line 14, the therapist finally asks the patient to start with where the problem lies. The therapist deliberately positions himself as having "K-" epistemic status in the domain of the patient's own experience and perceptions, which makes the patient fully display his "K+" epistemic status in this domain. In this way, the therapist clearly establishes the territory of the epistemic domain for the patient during the process.

In the next session, it is obvious that the therapist has switched to the role of an expert in the domain of his expertise.

Extract 3 from Scarvaglieri (2020, p. 8) PA=patient TH=therapist

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1 TH: Hm↓hm↑((2,5)) Kann natürlich
(Rauspem) mir
Uh↓uh↑ ((2.5)) I could of course ((clears
throat))</p> <p>2 PA: nein, m öcht ich nicht
no, I do not want that.</p> <p>3 TH: folgendes vorstellen, •• dass dass äh •
• jetzt so nach der Entlassung so das kommt,
Was vorher da war
imagine the following •• that ah •• now
like after being released from the hospital things
reoccur that were there before.</p> <p>4 PA: Ja ()
Yes()</p> <p>5 TH: Weil die Klinik bietet ja doch immer ne
Entlastung und so n gewissen Abstand und äh ••
für Sie ja doch auch so n gewissen Zw áng (.) äh
nach außen zu dokumentieren, [dass es Ihnen</p> | <p>gut geht], damit Sie entlassen werden können
und...</p> <p>Because the hospital always comes with
relief and a certain distance and ah •• for you
also a certain pr éssure (.) äh to show to others,
[that you are fine], so that you can be released
and ...</p> <p>6 PA: [Richtig. Ja (des stimmt)].
[True. Yes (that's right)].</p> <p>7 PA: Ja ich muss sagen in [der] Klinik war des
kein
Ya I must say that the hospital</p> <p>8 TH: [Ah ja]
[Uh yes].</p> <p>9 PA:Zwang, da <u>ging</u> s mir gut. Ja? Des des
was no pressure, but that I did feel fine.
Right? It it</p> |
|---|---|

The therapist deploys a "K+" epistemic stance in the domain of the patient's personal perspective, trying to offer an explanation for the patient's negative feelings after being released from the hospital (Lines 3, 4, and 5, Extract 3). The patient mostly agrees with the therapist's opinions (Lines 4 and 6), though he has epistemic privilege in this domain as the therapist's explanation also comes from the domain of his own expertise. Nonetheless, he demonstrates hierarchical epistemic authority in this domain (Lines 7 and 9) and disagrees with the therapist regarding the pressure imposed by the hospital. With this epistemic display, the patient positions himself as the expert on the experience itself (the "what" of her emotions), while the therapist positions himself as the expert on contextualizing and interpreting this experience (the "why").

Extract 4 from Hudak et al. (2010, p. 789) DR=doctor PT=patient

1	PT: an ↑actually I've ↑heard so many	9	(1.0) ((rustling noise))
	↑wonderful things about you, hh from, (0.6) a	10	DR: wey::ll, (0.6) yihknow what? (1. 1) we
	customer of mine whose name I don't even		kinda do what we have to.
	remember, and from my (0.3) my close friend's	11	[(when it comes to hips.)]
	sister in ()?	12	PT: [well obvious]ly. no kidding.
2	DR: uhah,	13	DR: yiknow? but
3	PT: I guess you did he:r ↑hips er	14	(0.7)
4	DR: yup	15	PT: see that's? that i c[an.
5	PT: a::n (.) doctor Milne sa:ys that you're	16	DR: [you can: yeap
	wonderful because you're not invasive.	17	PT: ()
6	(.)	18	DR: doesn't move. [↑do:e]sn't move well.
7	DR: heh heh heh heh=		yeah. =
8	PT: =course yihknow we all want.	19	PT: [yeah.

In this extract, the patient positions herself in "K+" epistemic status within the doctor's domain of his treatment experience by giving compliments to the doctor (Line 1, Extract 4). In this way, the patient tactfully imposes her request for treatment onto the doctor to appear as not challenging the doctor's authority. However, the doctor shows his hierarchical epistemic authority in this domain and insists that the treatment is constrained and decided by the patient's condition: "We kinda do what we have to" (when it comes to hips) (Lines 10 and 11).

B. Other Institutional Encounters

(a). Encounters Between Customers and Service Staff at Service Counters

According to Mondada (2018), greetings are used to identify the language medium at multilingual help desks. After that, the conversation becomes institutional and task-oriented, with the second-person knowledge focused on customers' identification and their requested service. Customers position themselves in "K+" epistemic status through accounting or self-introduction, while adopting a "K-" epistemic status with interrogations in the staff's knowledge about the service (Mortensen & Hazel, 2014). The transmission of second-person knowledge is one-sided and irreciprocal, with customers providing most of it themselves rather than the officers initiating it as in the case of clinic encounters.

Extract 5 from Mondada (2021, p. 19) CUS=customer OFF=officer
(ASSG_LU_31oct_OPEN_spo6_pers4_montage_01.03.24)

1	CUS: buongiorno
	good morning
2	OFF: giorno
	morning
3	(0.3)
4	CUS: ehm: : do you speak english: : ?
5	OFF: yes: ,=
6	CUS: =yeah (.) oh good. Uh: : (.) I just want some information: ,
7	because I have some friends coming here next week end.

The customer and the officer greet each other in Italian (Lines 1 and 2, Extract 5), which is the manner projected by the country where the counter is located. Later, the customer asks for the availability of English. Once the exchange language is settled, the customer continues with a statement of his or her need (Lines 6 and 7), for which the second-person knowledge serves to fulfill the communication goal: to solve the customer's need. The customer here initiates the second-knowledge transmission and displays a "K+" epistemic stance by stating his or her need and inviting the officer to help him or her.

(b). Encounters Between Clients and Attorneys

Attorney-client interactions in DWUI (Driving While Under the Influence) cases are task-oriented, focusing on solving the clients' legal matters (Kozin, 2007). The acquisition of second-person knowledge primarily revolves around the client's personal experience within the case. The attorney takes the lead in initiating and conducting this knowledge acquisition, which is similar to clinic encounters. The conversation flows through distinct sessions organized by the attorney: small talk, soliciting troubles, animating troubles, formulating problems, and figuring out problems (Kozin, 2007). As these practices unfold, the attorney transitions from a position of lesser knowledge to a legal profession in the client's case by gradually showing his "K+" epistemic status in legal expertise based on his increasing knowledge about the case (Kozin, 2007).

Extract 6 from Kozin (2007, p. 180) A=attorney R=Robert(Client) M=Robert's mother

- | | | | |
|----|--|----|---|
| 1 | A: Okay awright (0.4) okay what | 14 | (1.5) |
| | <u>HA</u> :ppened? | 15 | R: Uhm (.) Friday night? |
| 2 | (2.0) | 16 | M: =Yeah Friday night. |
| 3 | R: Went in the ditch. | 17 | A: =Friday night? Okay (.) so that be |
| 4 | A: Went in the ditch? = | | Friday the |
| 5 | R: =yeah | 18 | eighteenth huh was it before or after |
| 6 | (0.3) | | midnight? |
| 7 | A: uh-okay (.) and the same <u>goddamned</u> cop | 19 | R: After midnight |
| | came and | 20 | A: =Kay-so it was the nineteenth then (0.5) |
| 8 | <u>arrested</u> you righ= | | hu arrested |
| 9 | R: =yeah | 21 | (0.4) by (.) officer what's his name? |
| 10 | (0.4) | 22 | (.) |
| 11 | A: Oh boy (1.2) was he very <u>bad</u> ? Was he | 23 | M: Mason Flying Buck? |
| | a <u>jerk</u> to ya? | 24 | (.) |
| 12 | R: I don't know. | 25 | A: Mason Flying Buck. |
| 13 | A: = Ku oh really? When did this | 26 | (5.1) |
| | <u>HA</u> :ppen? | | |

The attorney starts the conversation with a "what" question and positions himself as having "K-" epistemic status in the domain of the client's DWUI case (Line 1, Extract 6). Then, he gradually demonstrates a more knowledgeable epistemic status with several declarative questions, which display his relevant work experience in these cases (Lines 7, 8, 11, 17, 18, 20, and 21). Despite the fact that the stated matters are within his domain, the client is cooperative and follows the attorney's instructions to offer his knowledge on the case, placing him in a "K+" position during the process.

(c). *Encounters Between Customers and Salesmen*

Kaski et al. (2018) have identified three practices that salespeople adopt in rapport-building with customers: (1) small talk; (2) formulations to align and affiliate with customers; and (3) stories of similar experiences as the customers to endorse their emotional stance and emotional experience. During the interaction, the second-person knowledge, as private topics, is usually initiated by the customers with their "K+" epistemic stance and reciprocated by the salesmen's affiliations by showing a "K+" epistemic stance in formulations or stories of similar experiences.

Extract 7 from Kaski, Niemi, and Pullins (2018, p. 243) SP= salesperson

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | Buyer: (kolme) viikkoo t ^ö ss äja sitte nelj ^ä viikkoo lomalla ja, |
| | (three) weeks at work and then four weeks on holiday and, |
| 2 | SP: . mth |
| 3 | Buyer: sitte< kolome viikkoo t ^ö ss äja sit kaks viikkoo lomalla sit se on (--) |
| | then three weeks at work and then two weeks on holiday then it is (--) |
| 4 | (0. 2) |
| 5 | Buyer: ei oo ihan opettajan kes ^ä omat mut melekei. |
| | not quite like teacher's summer holidays but almost |
| 6 | SP: mutta< e- meleko mukavasti. |
| | but e-quite nice |
| 7 | Buyer: on. on on. |
| | is. is is ((='that is true')) |
| 8 | SP: nii ett ^ä v ^ä ill ^ä ätota k ^ä yv ^ä ään v ^ä ään t ^ö ss ämutta taas sitte niinku jatketaan. |
| | so that every now and then you'll work a little but then again like continue. |
| 9 | Buyer: taas jatketaan harjotuksia. |
| | again, we continue exercises |
| 10 | (0.2) |
| 11 | SP: eik ^ö seki, siin ^ä ki o aina oma homma ett ^ä ään ääp ^ä ääset taas kilykeen tahan nai ja,= |
| | isn't that too, it too has always its own work to get going with this ((work)) again and |
| 12 | Buyer: =o. iha tasan tarkkaa. |
| | =((it)) has. exactly so |
| 13 | SP: nii, |
| | yes |

At the beginning, the buyer uses "k+" epistemic positioning to initiate the talk of telling the salesperson about his upcoming holiday (Lines 1, 3, and 4, Extract 7). The salesperson does not reciprocate his similar experience but tries to align with the buyer by uttering words of understanding in Lines 6, 8, and 11. He adopts a "K+" epistemic stance in the buyer's epistemic domain to show his utmost support for the buyer's side, thus building a rapport with the buyer.

(d). *Job Interviews*

In job interviews, both candidates and interviewers align with the "recruitess" agenda (Llewellyn & Spence, 2009).

Candidates strategically present themselves with a confident "K+" epistemic status, showcasing both personal information and job-related expertise. They understand that the more knowledgeable they appear, the higher their chances of success. Their goal is to project a stronger knowledge stance than their actual epistemic status regarding job competence. Conversely, interviewers adopt an inconsistent epistemic stance with their actual epistemic status, intentionally questioning candidates about their professional knowledge relevant to the position. Through this approach, they assess the candidates' qualifications for the position (Llewellyn & Spence, 2009).

Extract 8 from Llewellyn and Spence (2009, p. 1420) IR=interviewer C=candidate

- 1 IR: could you analyse...the wider implications of the concern for the environment
- 2 (.2)
- 3 C: wider implications, in what sense?
- 4 IR: =in any sense you like
- 5 C: in any sense that I like, huh,

During the assessment process of the candidate, the interviewer shows contradictory epistemic status with his stance. He/she holds "K+" epistemic status about the stated matter (Line 1, Extract 8), but he/she displays a "K-" epistemic stance in order to solicit the answer from the candidate and assess his knowledge on this issue. Hence, the interviewer acquires second-person knowledge of the candidate's qualifications for the position and evaluates his relevant competencies. However, the candidate shows "K-" epistemic status with the question where he asks for more prompts (Line 3) and is refused by the interviewer, who intends to have a fair assessment of the candidate's professional knowledge.

(e). *Encounters Between Foreign Teachers and Students at English Corner*

In English Corner interactions between foreign teachers and students, a familiar classroom pattern emerges: the teacher is the expert and the students are the learners (Nao, 2013). Students often initiate conversations by inquiring about the teachers' foreign origins, assuming a "K+" epistemic status through declarative sentences or a "K-" stance with interrogative sentences, seeking confirmation or answers within the teacher's epistemic domain. Teachers may deliberately position themselves in a "K-" epistemic status regarding their own culture to facilitate discourse and encourage students to speak English (Nao, 2013). Thus, second-person knowledge serves as a topic generator in the conversation.

Extract 9 from Nao (2013, p. 201)

- 1 Makiko: uh: I heard you: are from [(.) Australia.
- 2 Maki: [Australia.
- 3 Ethan: ↑yes that's (^) true
- 4 Makiko: uh: what the famous (.) famous thing of Australia.
- 5 Ethan: hmm:: (..) what do you think?
- 6 Makiko: uh:: (.) sheep?
- 7 Ethan: s(h)heep? o(h)h okay, hah hah
- 8 Makiko: no? (.) [ko- koala?
- 9 Maki: [kangaroo?
- 10 Ethan: kangaroos? koalas, yeah,
- 11 Maki: Ayers Rock.
- 12 Ethan: Ayers Rock,(..)yeah,
- 13 Makiko: oh:: (.) yeah

Makiko, a student, displayed a "K+" epistemic stance in the teacher's (Ethan's) epistemic domain, seeking confirmation. The teacher responded by providing the answer (Line 3, Extract 9). In Line 4, Makiko positioned herself with a "K-" epistemic status through an interrogative sentence. The teacher did not provide the expected answer in Line 5 but instead asked a rhetorical question. This inconsistency allowed the teacher to take the lead in the conversation and encourage Makiko to talk more, generating topics and practicing more English speaking through second-person knowledge.

(f). *Speed Dating*

Turowetz and Hollander (2012) studied participants who shared their speed dating experiences during their 5-minute talks. The participants wish to learn more about their partners based on their assessment of the speed-dating activity. Though they position themselves as knowledgeable in the subject, they also act as newcomers to speed dating, thus maintaining the epistemic ecology and providing reciprocal assessments that are impersonal and delicate. This allows them to find common ground while avoiding disclosing too much personal information. The distribution of second-person knowledge during speed dating is equal, reciprocal, and delicate.

Extract 10 from Turowetz and Hollander (2012, p. 645) T=Tom B=Britney

- | | | | |
|---|--|----|--|
| 1 | T: [so how's the speed- dating going.] .h= | 10 | B: [I know] |
| 2 | B: =h ↑not ba:↓d u(h)[h huh] huh huh! .h= | 11 | (0.3) |
| 3 | T: [arright] | 12 | T: I've never [done] anything like this |
| 4 | T: =having f↑u[n:::] | | before |
| 5 | B: [(I've been a little-) y]:eah | 13 | B: [yeah] |
| | these are- going | 14 | (0.7) |
| 6 | pretty quick actually () [what about | 15 | B: most people our age- (0.5) kinda don't |
| | you?] | | really, |
| 7 | T: [yeah six | 16 | (1.0) |
| | minutes] isn't very long | 17 | B: yeah I don't really see too many speed dating for |
| 8 | (0.3) | | people our [a:ge] |
| 9 | T: mm [yeah] it's been interesting | 18 | T: [mm hmm] |

Tom initiates the conversation with a "how" question about Brittney's opinion on speed dating, positioning himself as having "K-" epistemic status (Line 1, Extract 10). Brittney reciprocates by answering the question and asking Tom about his thoughts (Lines 2 and 5). Tom provides a blurry assessment (Line 9) and then offers unprompted self-disclosure about his experience with speed dating, indicating that he is new to it (Line 12). He positions himself as having "K+" epistemic status, inviting more sharing from Brittney. She aligns herself with him (Lines 15 and 16). The second-person knowledge distribution in speed dating is equal and reciprocal in both amount and content. The participants carefully organized their words to make a good impression.

C. Mundane Encounters

(a). The Practices of Acquiring Second-Person Knowledge

During everyday interactions, speakers often seek demographic and biographic information from each other to alleviate uncertainties (Berger, 1986). Previous studies have identified various strategies for acquiring such knowledge during initial encounters. Svennevig (2014) distinguishes between direct self-presentation, initiated by a speaker's request, and indirect self-presentation, which occurs when the speakers discuss specific topics. Haugh and Carbaugh (2015) differentiate between prompted self-disclosures, which respond to questions, and unprompted self-disclosures, which initiate new sequences or respond to prior disclosures. They further classify self-disclosures as minimal (addressing only the question) or non-minimal (providing extended answers). Flint et al. (2019) show that self-disclosure in conversations can serve as a remedial account in modulating troubles in affiliating. Meanwhile, Maynard and Zimmerman (1984) propose pre-topical sequences as a means for unfamiliar speakers to establish typified knowledge of each other's backgrounds, subsequently generating topics for further discussion. Finally, Kecskes (2019) highlights the differences in the "getting to know a person" process between L1 communication and intercultural communication. In L1, speakers typically follow a predefined pattern of introductory formulas, politeness markers, and getting down to business based on shared knowledge of the same social group. In intercultural communication, however, speakers establish common ground through shared situational experiences.

(b). Epistemic Positioning in Acquiring Second-Person Knowledge

The second-person knowledge gained during the process helps pave the way for people to know how to interact with each other (Talbert, 2014). Thus, in mundane settings, interactions are interpersonal relations-oriented, and second-person knowledge usually serves as a topic generator. In self-presentations, participants position themselves in "K+" epistemic status within the domain of their personal information, aiming to invite their partner to talk on the same topic. The participants also use questions, with which they position themselves as having "K-" epistemic status, to access the domain of another and gain their second-person knowledge. Svennevig (2014) indicates that both participants demonstrate cooperativeness during the process of acquaintanceship. The information requested and given in the area of second-person knowledge in mundane settings is usually reciprocal in terms of both amount and content.

These epistemic positionings can be exemplified by the following excerpts:

Extract 11 from Svennevig (2014, p. 307) L=Lars B=Bjørn

- | | | | |
|---|--|----|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | L: ... (2.5) er du herfra 'byn eller e du? | | [oh yeah] [[righ-]] |
| | ... (2.5) are you from the 'city here or are | 5 | B: [[ja]] |
| | you-- | | [[yeah]] |
| 2 | B: (0) nei nei nei neida. | 6 | L: ja du !har den såvidt ['inne,] |
| | (0) no no no not at all. | | yeah you've !got it ['in there,] |
| 3 | B: ... (1.7) nei jei e= .. øhø... (0.8) fra | 7 | B: [jada] |
| | Kristian'sund .. en 'gang, ... [for--] | 8 | [[ja den e den e&]] |
| | ... (1.7) no I'm= hm hm... (0.8) from | 9 | [yeah] |
| | Kristian'sund .. o'originally, ... [a long --] | | [[yeah it's it's&]] |
| 4 | L: [åja] [[akku-]] | 10 | L: [[den 'ligger der langt 'bak ja.]] |

- [[it's way in the 'back there.]]
- 11 B:...(1.3) &'utvanna asså. ja <P mm P>
 ... (1.3) &'really diluted. yeah <P mm P>
- 12 L:(H) ja
 (H) yeah
- 13 L:... ja men e 'hører den 'bak [der et sted.]
 .. yeah but I 'hear it somewhere [in the'back.]
- 14 B: [mm ja jada] jada
 ja .. nei æ ... (2.0) skal 'opp dit 'no= ... første
 gang på ett par 'år,
 [mm yeah sure]
- 15 sure. ... well I'm ... (2.0) going 'up there
 'now= ... first time in a couple of 'years,
 så æ frykte vel å få 'bank omtrent, .. dæm e
 ganske s ånn& ..
 so I fear I'll be nearly 'beaten up, .. they are
 pretty you know&..
- 16 L: .. ja .. ja [<X det der X>]
 .. yeah .. yeah [<X that X>]
- 17 B: [&nasjon]a'listisk.
 [&nation]a'listic.

During the session, the two speakers exchange second-person knowledge. L initiates the conversation by asking B about his hometown (Line 1, Extract 11). This indicates that "presentation-eliciting questions" are commonly applied as a "topical proffer" in the getting acquainted process (Svennevig, 2014). L aims to access B's epistemic domain of personal background, assuming a "K-" epistemic status in a questioning way. The question is designed to categorize B's membership (Sacks, 1992), hence fostering topics for conversation. However, B's response deviates from expectations, leading to a lack of common ground (Lines 2 and 3). Later, B gives an unprompted self-disclosure (Svennevig, 2014; Haugh & Carbaugh, 2015) about his experience of going to the city (Lines 12 and 13), thus positioning himself in a "K+" epistemic status. Both speakers alternate between assuming "K-" epistemic status through questioning and "K+" epistemic status through self-disclosure, creating topics for interaction.

Extract 12 from Kecskes (2019, p. 129) C=Chinese K=Korean

- 1 C: How long have you been here?
 2 K: Oh like a.... getting to be ... almost one year
 3 C: One year?
 4 K: Yeah, almost one year. But it's like ... ten months ... since I've been here
 5 C: Oh it's good.
 6 K: Two months to go.
 7 C: So you live on campus?
 8 K: Off campus.
 9 C: You live with your classmates or with your friends from Korea?
 10 K: My friend .. he ... she is from Taiwan.
 11 C: And what is your name?
 12 K: I am Hyon. And you?
 13 C: Call me Jianmin.

During an intercultural conversation between Chinese and Korean students, the Chinese student acquires second-person knowledge by positioning themselves as having "K-" epistemic status in the Korean student's domain of personal experience through questioning. In Line 7 of Extract 12, the Chinese student demonstrates a more knowledgeable epistemic stance, assuming the Korean student lives on campus and seeking confirmation to establish a common ground for topics (Kecskes, 2019). Nevertheless, the Korean speaker does not confirm, and the Chinese student moves on with another declarative sentence in a rising tone (Line 9). We can see in intercultural conversations that common ground is generated contingently. In the last three sentences, the sequence goes back to the "skeleton" of intracultural exchanges: introductory formulas.

Extract 13 from Flint et al. (2019, pp. 394-395)

- 1 Bec: =but erm >I s[pend<]=
 2 [((grimace))]=
 3 =spend a lot of time on redd[it.]
 4 [((grimace))]
 5 (0.8)
 6 Lau: ↑h[m::↑]
 7 Bec: [>or on<]
 8 (.)
- 9 Lau: >or buzzfeed< [I'm on .hhh]
 10 Bec: [((shakes head))]
 11 Lau no::?
 12 Bec: . hh .hh I can't do with
 bud-buzzfeed because the thing (.h) (0.8)
 there's (0.7) it- things on the internet kinda take
 a (.) a course a- like a trajectory.=
 13 Lau: = hehe

Becky positions herself as a "K+" epistemic stance by self-disclosing about her habit of using Reddit (Lines 1 to 4, Extract 13). When Becky tries to continue (Line 7), Laura takes over the turn by suggesting "Buzzfeed", which she is currently using (Line 9). In saying so, she positions herself as having a "K+" epistemic stance in Becky's epistemic domain while she actually occupies a "K-" epistemic status. This trespassing of epistemic territories shows that she hopes to create a common ground with Becky. However, Becky's following answers disaffiliate with Laura, and she tries to make a remedial account by disclosing the reason why she cannot do with Buzzfeed (Line 12).

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Following an analysis of 22 articles, this review concludes that second-person knowledge acquisition is present

across all types of interactions in both institutional and mundane settings. However, the transmission of second-person knowledge operates differently in these settings, with different orientations leading to the acquisition of different aspects of second-person knowledge.

In institutional settings, second-person knowledge acquisition is mostly related to personal experiences or thoughts, and it serves the purpose of fulfilling institutional tasks such as solving patients' problems in clinics or customers' problems in law services or at service counters. In these interactions, there are clear boundaries between the epistemic territories of the speakers, and the person with more power (e.g., doctors or attorneys) generally initiates the one-sided acquisition of second-person knowledge. Patients or clients occupy a "K+" epistemic status in the domain of their personal experience or symptoms by answering questions, while doctors or attorneys position themselves as having a "K-" epistemic status when eliciting information from patients and a "K+" epistemic status when offering their expertise. Typically, doctors hold a dominant position within their area of expertise. Nonetheless, on certain occasions, patients may offer compliments to doctors in order to gain access to their epistemic domain and potentially influence the course of their treatment.

In mundane settings, the interactions are mainly focused on interpersonal relationships. The participants intend to acquire background information about each other to facilitate better understanding and interaction. Second-person knowledge functions as both a facilitator and a topic of discussion, with the exchange of information being reciprocal in both amount and content. Speakers use self-disclosure or questions to acquire second-person knowledge, positioning themselves as having "K+" epistemic status when sharing their own information and "K-" epistemic status when asking questions. Sometimes, speakers trespass their partners' epistemic territories by positioning themselves in a "K+" stance during interactions while they actually hold the "K-" status. This serves the purpose of showing an inclination to seek common ground and facilitates the talks.

On some less formal occasions, like the encounters between salespeople and customers, foreign teachers and students at English corners, and participants in speed dating, the second-person knowledge exchanges are also as reciprocal and interpersonal relations-driven as they are in ordinary settings.

According to Talbert (2014), the second-person knowledge we gain from our interactions with others helps shape our beliefs about society and the world. Understanding how we acquire second-person knowledge can provide valuable insights on how to improve our interactions and make them more predictable. However, further research is needed to better understand how this knowledge is shared and transmitted within different social contexts and how people navigate each other's knowledge territories during interactions.

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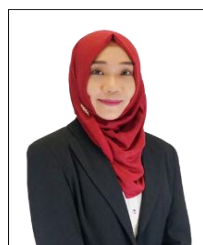
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The Nearly Hundred-Year Gap in Finding the New Arab Woman: Fadia Faqir's *Pillars of Salt* and F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*

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Abstract—The study aims to explore the representation of Arab women in Fadia Faqir's novel, *Pillars of Salt* and the representation of Western women in F. Scott Fitzgerald's novel, *The Great Gatsby*. The study also attempts to compare and contrast between the two writers' representations of women. To achieve the objectives of the study, the theory of feminism is applied to both novels to analyse them in terms of how women are represented. Moreover, the results of the study show that the representation of women in the writings of some Arab authors today resembles the representation of Western women written by authors in their writings over 100 years ago. The significance of the current study stems from the fact that it sheds light on literary works that are written by two different authors from different times, countries, and consequently different cultural backgrounds.

Index Terms—feminism, *Great Gatsby*, Fadia Faqir, F. Scott Fitzgerald

I. INTRODUCTION

The study aims to explore how Arab women are represented by the Arab British writer, Fadia Faqir in her novel *Pillars of Salt*, and the representation of Western women by American writer F. Scott Fitzgerald in his novel *The Great Gatsby*. Though these two novels were published one hundred years apart from one another, the study attempts to reveal how women are represented in the same way in both novels. The significance of the current study stems from the fact that it sheds light on literary works that are written by two different authors from two different times, countries, and consequently, two different cultural backgrounds. In addition, through the lens of feminism, the present study attempts to show that the representation of women by some Arab writers such as Faqir in her novel *Pillars of Salt* resembles F. Scott Fitzgerald's representation of women in *The Great Gatsby* which was published nearly a century ago. There have been many studies conducted separately on the two novels, but up to the researcher's knowledge, there have been no studies that have tackled the two novels together and how they each represent women.

Today, there is a significant gap between the status of women in the Middle East and the status of women in the West. Even though women all around the world are still fighting for their rights to improve their status, Western women stand at the forefront of that fight, while Arab women seem decades behind them. Such controversial topics between the East and West or amongst women from different cultures are clearly palpable in literary works because literature reflects reality.

Women in the Middle East have reached a stage where they have gained their basic rights but still have not been able to overcome the restrictive patriarchal traditions and norms of their culture. While it's true that there are some highly educated women within the Middle Eastern culture who have been promoted to higher positions, this certainly cannot be generalised to all women in the Middle East. Simply by being an Arab and belonging to certain tribes or communities, most Arab women are expected to behave within a predetermined structure and are never permitted to seek their desires outside of certain limits including those that their society deems acceptable and honourable and those that are forced upon them.

It is the patriarchal ideology that controls the core of norms, customs, traditions, and values and, ultimately, the females in Arab society. Furthermore, this male dominance over women in the Arab world starts within the closest unit - the family. Abudabbeh (1996) states that the "Arab family can be described as patriarchal, pyramidically hierarchal with regard to age and sex, and extended" family (p. 427). Male relatives - fathers, brothers and husbands - control the rights of women as well as their status. El Saadawi (2007) argues that the superiority of men over women is evident in Arabic society, whether in class relations or even within the family. This is all due to the infused patriarchal beliefs. She also adds that the Arab woman has lost her human essence by turning into a controlled object set to achieve fixed aims. For instance, an Arab woman must marry and bear children - and preferably boys. Furthermore, she must be obedient,

pious and submissive to please her Arab husband (and she must be young enough to even find a husband in the first place). As a result, girls are often closely watched so that they stay under the family's control.

Moreover, in male-dominated societies such as those found in the Middle East, the empowerment of men over women is seen in all aspects of the community. Men are positioned as leaders and, thus, decision-makers. This applies to making decisions for the entire family, and especially anything related to the women in their family when it comes to seeking education, choosing whom to marry and even behaving with a certain demeanour. According to the recent Congressional Research Service 2019 survey on women's rights in 15 Arab countries titled *Arab Barometer*, researchers found that "the majority of the survey respondents believed that men are better leaders and should have greater say in family decision making" (p. 1).

On the contrary, Western women today reside in liberal societies, where they are free to make their own decisions, to continue their education or not, to get married or not, to have children or not, to seek careers as they wish, and so on. Ever since the emergence of the Suffragette and the feminist movement in the 19th century, women have succeeded in rejecting traditional roles such as being the obedient housewife that were forced upon them in the past. The modern Western woman has also been liberated from the shackles of false femininity that were imposed by orthodox masculine ideals based on patriarchal tradition. For example, according to patriarchal beliefs, women need to be kind, humble, sensible, and sweet; however, men should be logical, strong, and reasonable, therefore, masculine (Tong & Botts, 2016). False traditional gender roles are obstacles that have been overcome by Western women; unfortunately, however, this has yet to happen in the Middle East where women still face these obstacles.

The representation of Western and Eastern women in literary works is subsequently opposing. In both Western and Eastern literature, Arabian women are shown as oppressed, uneducated, submissive, domestic, and weak (weak in terms of power, not physical strength). Abu Baker (2021) says Arab women are shown as fragile, frail, and abused. Further, he believes they are traumatised and suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder. They also have not been permitted to hold any position of authority and are erroneously seen as incapable of decision-making, thus are not allowed to do so.

On the contrary, modern-day Western women are presented differently. Whether in novels, films or even children's books, contemporary Western women characters can be seen as confident, sensible and in leadership positions. For instance, Gao (2021) views *The Great Gatsby's* female characters as powerful, daring, and brave women who stand against society's norms by rejecting typical relationships between men and women. And whether it is Daisy's affair despite her husband's knowledge or Jordan's masculine behaviour, these are all traits once attributed to only men.

One Arab diasporic writer who highlights the status of Arab women in the Middle East is Fadia Faqir, a Jordanian Bedouin-Brit. Her books often evoke feminist issues in the Arab world such as the oppression of women, and the relationships between men and women, and are quite evident in her *Pillars of Salt* (1997). The novel is set in Jordan, which was under British Mandate and is narrated by a male, Sami, and presents the voices of two repressed Arab females, Maha and Um Saad. "The 'apocalyptic vision' of the novel refers to the continuing repression of Arab women whose daily contributions to the economy and struggle to survive in a male-dominated society have largely been overlooked" (Faqir, 2017, p. 3). Faqir presents her main female character, Maha, as witty and resilient, yet she does not become the head of the family although she is more responsible than her reckless brother who takes control of everything. Thus, her role in her family, and subsequently in society, is limited because of her family's paternal beliefs.

Similar themes are seen in F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*. Fitzgerald is an American novelist who comes from an aristocratic family. His love for his wife Zelda both inspired and motivated him to write many of his works (Mizener, 2019), one of which is his most notable - *The Great Gatsby*. The novel takes place in the early 1920s, otherwise known as the "Roaring Twenties", an era of great openness and change in American ideals and society which included, among other things, the "New Woman". In *The Great Gatsby*, Fitzgerald portrays three different female figures - Daisy, Jordan, and Myrtle. On the surface, these women appear to be happy and powerful, but they are ruled by males who dominate their lives due to the internalised patriarchy of society. For instance, Daisy hopes her infant daughter turns out to be a "fool - that's the best thing a girl can be in this world, a beautiful little fool" (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 16).

Although published in different times, the women in both novels, are subjected to male dominance due to the archaic values of patriarchy that are embodied in the societies and norms leaving their women with only fragments of rights and freedoms. In other words, "Arab women are oppressed in a certain way, but Western women are [too...]" (Moore, 2011, p. 8). Faqir, in her novel, *Pillars of Salt*, shows the lives of two Arab women; a Jordanian and a Syrian, who seem extremely strong and independent, yet at the same time are granted limited freedom, especially when it comes to marriage or running the family's trade. Equivalently, in *The Great Gatsby*, the female characters are presented as very powerful and determined, but they are still subjected to male-dominancy due to the patriarchal society of that time.

II. ANALYSIS

A. *The Representation of Women in Fitzgerald's The Great Gatsby*

The works of F. Scott Fitzgerald's are greatly appreciated by many, and perhaps none more than *The Great Gatsby*. However, his representation of women is highly negative and submissive as all the novel's female characters are suffering from the control and abuse by men because of their society's patriarchal beliefs.

First, on the surface, Daisy seems as if she lives a nice, comfortable life with her loving husband by her side; however, the opposite rings true as seen in her words: “And I hope she’ll be a fool - that’s the best thing a girl can be in this world, a beautiful little fool” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 11). Her wish for her daughter is to be nothing more than an unintelligent, silly girl who is pleasing to the eyes expresses Daisy’s character and inner thoughts. Here, it is obvious that she aims to satisfy men by looking beautiful and acting empty-headed because that is what men of her society prefer.

This also reflects her relationship with her husband, Tom, who is an example of the paternal man. Tom is not bothered by his wife’s relationship with another man because to him adultery is not a reason to lose his trophy wife. To him, acting as if he has a perfect marriage in front of others is more important than working on the marriage itself as he tries to manifest a show as a happy and handsome couple to his other rich friends with his trophy wife by his side. Though both are, indeed, beautiful, they are both also shallow in the sense that they are vain, without goals or ambitions and are interested only in wealth. Added to that, the couple never discuss the issues between them nor try to amend matters. In fact, even when Daisy has a chance at a real committed and loving relationship, she still chooses to remain in a miserable, loveless marriage rather than asking for a divorce due to the fact that she is socially structured to seem happy even if she is not.

Similarly, Bao-feng and Xue-ying (2015) suggest that men in the novel are represented positively as they are well-achieved, intelligent, and hold high positions both at work and in society, while women are weak, fragile, and vain. The contrast between the two representations shows the gender gap between men and women. This could explain why these women are unable to leave their abusive condescending men simply because they have no other option, and they are hardwired so as just to accept their fates. Also, these women are represented as not wanting to struggle further by defying society or its norms.

The novel continues with the negative representation of its women due to the bad description of its men. For example, in Chapter 2, Tom has a conversation with Myrtle about how much she likes dogs and wants one. She asks if the dog is a male or a female, Tom replies “It’s a bitch,” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 17). Therefore, the men in the novel want to demean any female, even if that female just happens to be an animal. Then, Tom continues his scorn of women when he tells Myrtle “Here’s your money. Go and buy ten more dogs with it” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 17).

In that same chapter, the narrator, Nick Carraway uses the word “feminine” to belittle a man named Mr. McKee by describing him as a “feminine man from the flat below” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 18). Such words convey damaging stereotypes about women as they imply that they are less worthy than men - as if they come right behind men rather than beside them - which explains the use of the term “feminine” in a derogatory manner.

On the other hand, more powerful vocabulary is used to describe men. For instance, when talking about Jay Gatsby, he is projected to the audience as powerful, strong and frightening when Myrtle’s younger sister Catherine says, “I’m scared of him. I’d hate to have him get anything on me” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 20). Seda (2020) suggests that the women, and especially Myrtle and Daisy, are under the influence of men. Daisy is the rich woman from the upper class, who is contrasted by Myrtle, a poor lower-class housewife. Yet, despite their differences, they are controlled by the same man - Tom Buchanan. Moreover, with neither woman having an occupation or career, they are financially dependent on men, thereby giving men even more power and authority over them.

The insulting representation also suggests that women are shallow creatures with no hopes, dreams or ambitions. Myrtle for example is not given worth but for her physical appearance alone. She is introduced as a poor woman, whose only purpose in life is to either destroy Daisy or become her. “Daisy! Daisy! Daisy!” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 22), she exclaims as if her vanity does not entertain the thought of Daisy and Daisy’s life.

Later in the novel, the narrator (Nick Carraway) keeps his view of women as he compares them to “moths” when he says, “girls came and went like moths” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 24) which proves that even the narrator himself is just another patriarchal man who looks down on women. Even when Nick talks about his girlfriend, Jordan Baker, he does not praise her. Instead, he says she has “avoided clever, shrewd men,” but is “dishonest,” too (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 36).

Women are also described as fools who cry out suddenly for no valid reason to indicate that they are emotional creatures whose feelings control them. For instance, in Chapter 5, Daisy starts crying the moment she sees beautiful shirts at Jay Gatsby’s mansion (Fitzgerald, 2010). Such descriptions trick readers into believing that women are empty-headed with hormonal changes that control them and their behaviours.

Moreover, the power of the novel’s narrative is evident in its men. While women cry for no reason, the man is a “son of God” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 61) which is another strong positive connotation associated with men only. In addition, the leading three women in Fitzgerald’s novel are the only ones ridiculed. This becomes especially clear when Tom uses stereotyping messages to talk about women like he does in Chapter 6: “...women get these notions in their heads” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 74). Even though Tom is a wealthy, educated man who is married to a wealthy, educated woman, he still tries to enforce negative stereotypes on women as many other men do as well.

Later in the novel, signs of physical and mental abuse against women are extremely clear in the relationship of the Wilson couple. George Wilson hits his wife, shouts at her and locks her in their house. And he is proud of it as he flaunts his abuse: “I’ve got my wife locked in up there,” he says (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 85).

As the story unravels, it reaches its worst description of women in Chapter 7 when Myrtle dies. “Michaelis (George Wilson’s friend who owns a coffee shop near George’s garage in the ash heaps) and this man reached her first, but

when they had torn open her shirtwaist, still damp with perspiration... The mouth was wide open and ripped at the corners, as though she had choked a little in giving up the tremendous vitality she had stored for so long” (Fitzgerald, 2010, p. 86). This quote describes the physical condition of the body of Myrtle as highly sexualized although she is bleeding and has departed. Such a representation implies that women are judged and assessed based solely on their physical appearance even after they die as proven by both Nick, the male narrator, and Fitzgerald, the male author. Therefore, women, living and dead, have been objectified in this text to indirectly hint at a woman’s status according to patriarchal men - to serve his desires as he pleases.

Just as this researcher does, many other researchers and critics share the same views regarding *The Great Gatsby*. First, in his thesis, Hicks (1992) explores females and feminism in Fitzgerald’s works. He believes that the author of this novel projects women characters in a negative way. Hicks says, “society views Fitzgerald as a chauvinist” (p. 62) as a result of his representation of women. For example, he forces an image of a delicate feminine female through Daisy, a shy beautiful girl whose lover goes off to war, her social circle forcing her to marry a rich man from her same class. Daisy also does the same to her daughter as she raises her to be the delicate, feminine fool of a girl society expects. Also, Yaoye (2021) declares that Fitzgerald has depicted women as corrupt, crooked, untrustworthy, vain, fake, and even flamboyant, although they seem physically beautiful and attract men with their beauty.

Furthermore, the distortion of women’s images does not appear only in the novel and from its author, but it continues with its film adaptations. In his paper, Yuwen (2016) criticises a film adaptation of the famous novel saying that the film presents deformed images of women by showing Daisy Buchanan as an exploiter who follows only money by any means possible. He goes on to say that Myrtle Wilson is presented as a silly, foolish woman who is willingly used by Tom Buchanan to fulfil her goal - money. He also adds that Jordan Baker is supposed to be a representative of the 1920s “New Woman”, yet she is seen as conceited and self-centred. Zhu concludes in his journal article by claiming that *The Great Gatsby* is misogynistic and says:

No matter the movie or the novel The Great Gatsby is both for males. The three females’ characters are regarded as low morale. From the male’s aspect, Daisy is indifferent, selfish and vanity. She always pursues money and luxurious life and for these she would rather abandon her love with Gatsby and get married to Tom who she does not love. Jordan is an egoist and has independent spirit. She has lower morality for her impenitence and lies and she always ignores others’ interests. Myrtle is a ridiculous character in the movie. Although she has already been married to Wilson, she still becomes the lover of Tom. She attempts to close the upper class society of Tom’s status. She shows off her parasitic life and is killed in the end. All the three characters reflect misogyny in that era. (Yuwen, 2016, p. 98)

This reveals that *The Great Gatsby* is, in fact, an oppressive novel and serves the best interest of men by deceiving its women into indirectly obeying men. In the end, the women in it are exploited for their beauty or status to attend the needs of the men.

B. The Representation of Women in Faqir’s *Pillars of Salt*

As in the Fitzgerald’s *The Great Gatsby*, women in *Pillars of Salt* are also represented negatively as a result of male dominance that is imposed on them due to patriarchal ideologies in Arab society. First, the character Maha manifests how deeply patriarchal beliefs are planted in Jordanian society and other societies alike. Maha seems to be a strong-willed and smart woman. In fact, her father describes her as “a tigress” (Faqir, 1997, p. 11). As the story unravels, the readers see how she manages to take excellent care of her family, seen in the way she cares her elderly father. Additionally, she finishes household chores like cooking and tends to the family’s business: farming, sheep breeding, and sheep-rearing. In fact, Maha even says, “I was the only one who took care of the young gloves” (Faqir, 1997, p. 20) and “We started sweeping at sunrise and finished at sunset” (Faqir, 1997, p. 94). Although this seems as a positive representation, especially at the beginning of the novel, she is later deprived of everything because of her brother, her father and the Pasha. Her brother is a controller as a result of the power given to him by both his father and society as well. The Pasha has control due to his high official rank and his close friendship with Maha’s brother. The father, of course, is the head of the family; therefore, he has the absolute power over all. When her father passes away, her brother, Daffash, becomes the head of the family immediately even although he is abusive. “He dug out quarrels from under his fingernails. Where was his dagger, his breakfast, dog? Where were his sandals? He yanked my hair. ‘Filthy rat, ugliest woman on earth. Do what I tell you.’ All that would check the flow of insults and slaps was my father’s long wooden stick. Then, Daffash would apologize and give me a packet of foreign chocolates” (Faqir, 1997, p. 21).

Daffash was also corrupt to a point where he rapes a woman and is not held responsible for it. Maha describes the incident by saying: “My friend had lost her virginity, her honour, her life. She was nothing now. No longer a virgin, absolutely nothing” (Faqir, 1997, p. 11). Still, the vile Daffash becomes the owner of the family’s business despite his lack of morality and work experience.

Additionally, Maha’s suffering does not end at this point, but continues until her marriage. She marries a man whom she loves – a forbidden love unknown to her family for which they may both get killed as expected by family and society. Still, she is scorned for not instantly bearing a child after “Just five months without pregnancy and the people of Hamia started adding, ‘May Allah give you a son,’ after every greeting” (Faqir, 1997, p. 67). Still, she succeeds in having a child, but then her husband dies. This is another turning point in her life as the villagers hold her in disdain for being a widow and a single mother, her brother included. Not surprisingly, Daffash continues his physical abuse of

Maha for days, even trying to wed her off to the Pasha. When his plan fails, he then sends her to a mental hospital because she is seen as a “disobedient girl” (Faqir, 1997, p. 165). Yousef (2016) agrees that the novel shows oppressed women in a patriarchal Arab community and links it to colonialism - a notion supported by the novel as well - suggesting that both patriarchal communities and patriarchal colonialism cooperate to subjugate women.

Although Maha stands against her brother, the tyrant, and runs away to escape her forced marriage to the Pasha, she is still seen as a foul woman by everyone for daring to say no to the man of the family who “has priority” (Faqir, 1997, p. 201). Thus, as a result of her rebellious acts, she must be silenced along with everyone who helped her escape. Maha and the women who aided her are attacked verbally and physically while everyone watches. “Beat them up” (Faqir, 1997, p. 217).

The humiliation of the women in public under society’s consent is because they are considered half-citizens with “No brain and no faith” (Faqir, 1997, p. 217). Thus, despite being strong-willed, Maha remains oppressed by the men in her society beginning from her brother to the foreign Pasha and even by both the men in the village and the men working at the hospital. She tries her best to escape from the abuse she faces but fails ultimately because of the authorities granted to men as a result of patriarchal values in Middle Eastern societies.

During her stay at the hospital, she meets another woman who has also been abused and violated - Um Saad, or Haniyyah, Um Saad's premarital name. Haniyyah is an urban woman who lives in Amman, the capital of Jordan. She also suffers because of patriarchal authority -first at the hands of her father and later at the hands of her husband. Haniyyah fell in love with a non-Arab man and once her family found this out after her beloved proposes to her, her family refused as he was a Circassian. As a result, she was beaten and forced to marry to an old man. “Without uttering a word,” she says “without opening my mouth, I ate about a hundred lashes. My father’s belt reduced me to a heap of flayed meat” (Faqir, 1997, p. 100). She is then married off in the most horrid of ways. Her family tells her to get dressed to go to a party with them, she rejoices because she has been permitted to leave the house, but little did she know that she is going to her own wedding to a man named Abu Saad, a man she does not know and is many years older than her (Faqir, 1997). Her father physically abuses her to force her to marry as a way to resist her begging and refusal.

Later, her husband treats her in a similar manner - if not worse (Faqir, 1997, p. 109). “I will never forget one thing. At night, that man, my husband, who afterwards I discovered was called Abu Saad, chased me and ripped my dress apart. Then he asked me in a weak, thin voice that made the bulk of his body look like a mistake, ‘Have you had your period?’” This shows that Haniyyah is too young to get married and has faced great physical, verbal, and sexual abuse because she is the weaker part – a mere woman.

El Bwitel (2015) says that *Pillars of Salt* expresses the unjust treatment and the awful problems facing women in patriarchal societies. Much like the female characters in the novel, many women live in misery under male dominance where men are prioritized while women are treated as inferiors. Thus, men look down upon women just as in the cases of Haniyyah and Maha. Men treat them badly, use them, and abuse them because they have the power to do so and can do as they please.

Yet, unlike Maha, Haniyyah’s marriage is not a happy one; she is treated as a slave who is ordered to do things, clean, cook, bathe, and speak. She says she “used to place his feet in a bowl and wash them with soap and water... I used to spend hours scrubbing and cleaning ... a damp stink which reminded me of death and sewage” (Faqir, 1997, p. 121). She continues to describe her marriage: “We never ever talked, Abu Saad and I. He gave me orders and I listened” (Faqir, 1997, p. 151). Yet, after all Um Saad gives to Abu Saad, one may think he will reward her; on the contrary, he goes and finds a new younger wife because Um Saad is looking old. Just as her father does, her husband introduces her to his second bride suddenly without any notice: “Yusra, my new wife” (Faqir, 1997, p. 178). She is then devastated, especially when she sees this other woman in her house with her husband and children, taking her room, and throwing her belongings in a pile on the floor. So, like a maid, she starts sleeping on the kitchen floor – an act which bothers no one, not even her children. Still, she keeps cooking and cleaning just as she used to until she breaks down and runs away. Later, she is sent to an insane asylum, but even there, the women are treated badly. For example, they shave Haniyyah’s head to try shock treatments on her even though they did not attempt to treat her or listen to her story indicating the abuse continues along with no one listening to her voice.

Clearly, the abuse of women by men continues whether from the family or even at a hospital because patriarchal men have the absolute power to treat women as inferiors. The patriarchal thinking is deeply embedded in Arab society where abuse seems ordinary, just like it is presented in the novel. Men have all the authority and women are granted fractions of the rights to remain under men’s supervision. If a woman tries to rebel, she is then shunned by men and their society for daring to say no to those in power, whether they be fathers, brothers, or husbands.

Patriarchy in the Middle East resembles patriarchy that existed in the ancient times of Greece where women were treated as second class citizens with limited rights under the rule of men. “It can be clearly established that women in ancient Greece had an inferior position to men” (Auezove, 2020). When a woman does something, a man disapproves of, she is hysterical, crazy and ought to be sent away to gain her sanity back - just as Maha and Haniyyah. Therefore, the ancient concept of patriarchy is seen in contemporary literary works because it still exists in contemporary societies. The ideology sets certain roles for men and women that are socially constructed from the ancient times of Greece and are still ongoing today.

Moreover, all of the previously mentioned evidence is supported by many researchers, including Conwell (2011) and Abu Orouq (2021). Conwell (2011) believes that Maha is an oppressed character in spite of her tremendous efforts to fight against oppressors like her brother Daffash, for example. Conwell concludes her thesis by saying, “Daffash wishes to marry her off again for political reasons” (p. 49). This shows the depth of embedded patriarchal beliefs in Jordan and the Middle East – beliefs their women are fighting against even today.

Likewise, Abu Orouq (2021) shares a similar vision as he explores the violence against Maha and Haniyyah in his article. He says that the protagonists of the novel undergo extreme subjugation as a result of patriarchy and patriarchal traditions. He thinks that “Faqir’s text exhibits accumulated forms of physical, psychological, sexual and political violence that jointly work in the framework of an oppressive cycle over the indigenous women” (p. 76). He says that Faqir focuses on women of the Middle East, whose voices are less heard than the others as they go under extreme circumstances of oppression and subjugation (Abu Orouq, 2021).

Awajan et al. (2018) also describes the Arab family as the main unit in society, whether in the past or now. She continues by adding that the husband-wife relationship, the parent-child relationship, and the brother-sister relationship are key elements in Arab families, just as in the case of Maha and Haniyyah. This explains the power vested to families and how strong they can be, especially if used erroneously when they are extremely oppressive.

Abu Sharkh (2023) states that some women in Jordan seem oppressed based on her own analysis. There are striking similarities between the Bedouin Maha, the urban Haniyyah and the modern-day conditions of many women in Jordan as suggested by Abu Sharkh’s observations and study results. All of the women mentioned have similar duties such as working at home, having children, and obeying the men in their lives. Abu Sharkh adds that all of the women have taken the role of superwomen where they have to have children, they have to work because their men only want jobs at offices in the capital and they have to do household chores.

III. CONCLUSION

Both the Jordanian-British novelist Faqir and the American writer Fitzgerald show their male and female characters from a patriarchal point of view. The women in Faqir’s novel, published in 1997, are oppressed, abused and are under the control of the men in their lives - their brothers, husbands, and fathers - who have the absolute power and authority bestowed to them by patriarchal ideologies in patriarchal Arab societies.

Similarly, Fitzgerald’s novel shows women as submissive, subjugated and exploited by their men, especially their husbands. Just as in Faqir’s novel, Fitzgerald’s *The Great Gatsby*, published in 1925, portrays the unlimited powers men have because they are given great privileges due to the dominated patriarchy in the Western culture. Also, the comparison between the two books exemplifies a great similarity between Middle Eastern women in contemporary times and Western women during the early 1920s, whether in literary works or in real life, which indicates that the gap between the two groups of women is approximate to a century.

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Philosophical Meaning and Educational Values in *Sari Swara* as a Textbook for Appreciating Children's Literature

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Abstract—This study specifically aims to examine the philosophical meaning and educational values contained in the *Serat Sari Swara* by Ki Hajar Dewantara (KHD). *Serat Sari Swara* is an old literary work (1930) written directly by KHD using Javanese script and in Javanese poetry/*tembang* type. Studying old literary works is crucial, considering that many moral teachings and educational values are implicit. Based on the format and character, this descriptive qualitative research used an interactive model of data analysis method, with a literary interpretive perspective content analysis method. The primary data sources of this research came from the *Serat Sari Swara* script and the results of interviews with informants. The research findings revealed the philosophical meanings and values of the five *Serat Sari Swara* poetry as follows. Based on data analysis on the philosophical meaning and educational values of *Serat Sari Swara*, it can be summarized as follows. 1) *Sekar Gula Ganthi* contains philosophical and educational values of religious education and the value of discipline education (discipline in carrying out its duties, hard work and responsibility to carry out the task of completing the mission it carries). 2) *Langen Siswa* contains philosophical meanings and the value of character education of thank God and value togetherness and solidarity. 3) *Tembang Puji Santosa* has philosophical and educational values of obey the teacher, students must be serious if they study, everything must be carried out sincerely, do not like to be sad, do not be lazy, always be grateful, 4) *Tembang Ima-Ima* contains the educational value of decency and politeness in an association. 5) *Sekar Ageng Salyarini* contains the philosophical meaning of nationalist spirit and willing to sacrifice. The results of this study will later be developed into a textbook material for children's literature appreciation for the Elementary School Teacher Education Study Program.

Index Terms—*philosophical meaning, educational values, Sari Swara, textbook appreciating children's literature, content analysis*

I. INTRODUCTION

Serat Sari Swara is one of Ki Hajar Dewantara's (KHD) literary works. His work contains the character teaching/education by using *gending* literature as outlined in children's poetry (*tembang lare*), classical Javanese poetry (*sekar gendhing*), and *macapat* poetry; thus, this literary work can be classified as children's literature. Children's literature is a literary work for children that contains entertainment and moral education elements (Lukens, 1998), which other terms are called sweet and useful (Nurgiyantoro, 2010). *Serat Sari Swara* comprises many characters' education values that are relevant to be taught and internalized in education and daily life to create a pious society, has a noble character, is competent, and has a national perspective.

Ki Hajar Dewantara also added that science has two kinds of influence: effective knowledge in sharpening or educating intellectuals and effective knowledge in deepening and refining character (Dewantara, 2013b). The concept of cultivating Ki Hajar Dewantara's character can be achieved with *Tri-Nga-* (*ngerti- ngrasa- nglakoni*) or understanding, feeling- acting). This is in line with Lickona's statement in his book *Educating for Character* that character has three interrelated parts: moral knowledge, feelings, and actions (Lickona, 2015).

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In addition, Hasanuddin (2015) stated that in a dichotomy, children's literature could be interpreted as literary works that are "worthy" to be read, heard, or consumed by children. Krissandi et al. (2018) also explained that children's literature is conceptually not much different from literature or adult literacy. Both are equal in literature and cover all of life with emotions, thoughts, and insights into life. Children's literature is also a form of imaginative creation expressed in light language, describes the world of imagination, presents understanding and experience, and contains aesthetic value for children, which can be created by adults and by children. Accordingly, there is no need to argue that children's literature is written by adults for children's reading or written by children for their circles.

Furthermore, Hunt (2006) asserted that children's books are different from adult books, where children's books (children's literature) are written for different readers with different skills, needs, and readings. Children's books are often shorter; children tend to prefer active rather than passive treatment, with dialogue and incidents rather than description and introspection; stories develop clear moral schemes and are often overlooked by adult fiction (McDowell, 1973). Children's literature uses simple vocabulary and has a purpose for fun (Babbitt, 1973; Egoff, 1987).

The language employed in children's literature is tailored to children's intellectual and emotional growth, and it is also strongly tied to the world of children. Thus, through children's literature, readers (children) can learn the meaning of life from the values contained in literary works. Currently, children's literature is widely produced through media production, both as remediation of printed stories and originally produced in digital form (Dhayapari Perumal et al., 2021). Through depictions of ethnic nationalism, their research exposed a postcolonial aesthetic that is heavily influenced by the ruling class ideology or culture.

Huck et al. (1987) explained that the benefits of literature for children are to give a sense of joy, develop imagination, arouse children's curiosity, and broaden children's horizons with new experiences. Agreeing with Huck above, Anafiah (2017) suggests six benefits that can be obtained from children's literature: 1) children's literature provides enjoyment, fun, and joy to children; 2) children's literature can develop children's imagination; 3) children's literature provides a new experience for children as if they had already experienced it; 4) children's literature can develop children's knowledge and insight into human behaviors; 5) children's literature can introduce the universality of experience to children's lives; 6) literature can be an effort to pass on knowledge and wisdom from one generation to the next.

One of the literary genres is poetry. Poetry by Kennedy (1971) is defined as a rhythmic arrangement of words that expresses a poet's feelings and thoughts to elicit an emotional response. Perrine and Arp (1963) revealed that poetry is a type of literature that uses language more powerfully (density and full of meaning) than ordinary language (everyday language). In more detail, Sayuti (2014) explained the notion of poetry as a form of language expression that takes into account aspects of the sound in it, expressing the imaginative, emotional, and intellectual power of the poet, which is his individual and social experience and insight so that the poem evokes certain experiences in the reader or listener.

In its expression, poetry usually contains a philosophical meaning. Philosophical meaning is looking at a problem from the point of view of philosophy and trying to answer and solve the problem using speculative analysis. Philosophy is radical and universal systematic thinking (Roni et al., 2021). Based on this opinion, it can be synthesized that philosophical meaning is an effort to find a phenomenon's deep meaning to try to answer and solve problems with a philosophical review.

Moreover, literature, a fictitious reflection of life, contains educational values implied in moral, religious, social, philosophical, and cultural values. These educational values can all be found, either explicitly or implicitly, in literary works. These literary works are not only fictitious, imaginative, and fantastical but also reflect the reality of the life of a character. It explains that literature also contains a mandate or educational value apart from an aesthetic value (Ahmadi & Uhbiyati, 1991; Semi, 1993). In this case, the educational value is closely related to literary works. Noble values that are advantageous to the reader are always present in good literary works. Literary works with high value are also literary works containing philosophy or teachings/guidelines of life, human values, and educational values (Waluyo, 2002). Hence, literary works always contain values or messages comprising mandate or advice.

From some definitions above, it can be synthesized that the educational values in literary works are the values of good and bad in a literary work in the form of philosophy/teachings/or guidelines for life, moral, human, cultural, and educational values. Dwijatmoko's (2018) research revealed that the concept of honesty that Indonesians have, as reflected in Indonesian literature, is influenced by several social and cultural factors. Literary works also contain various values of life that can educate humans, with the intention that humans achieve a better life by adding to the educational values contained in them. Thus, literary works always contain values or messages comprising mandate or advice. Through the results of his work, the creator of literary works tries to influence the reader's mindset.

For this reason, this study specifically aims to examine the philosophical meaning and educational values contained in the *Serat Sari Swara* by Ki Hajar Dewantara (KHD). KHD is known as the Father of Indonesian National Education and the founder of the National *Onderwijs Instituut Tamansiswa*. *Serat Sari Swara* is an old literary work by KHD written and printed in 1930 using Javanese script and in Javanese poetry/*tembang* type. In this case, studying old literary works is vital, considering that they have many moral teachings and educational values implied in this poetry. This analysis can then be developed into a textbook for literary appreciation (children's poetry) based on philosophical meaning and educational values, especially those containing Ki Hajar Dewantara's *Serat Sari Swara*.

II. METHOD

This research belongs to the qualitative descriptive type, using data in a descriptive form in words, which focuses more on the research process than the results (Bogdan & Biklen, 1997; Taylor et al., 2015). This research concerns interpretative meaning (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Yin, 2015). This inductive research also seeks to develop data-based concepts, insights, and understandings (Sugiyono, 2020).

The object of this research was a literary work, so it can be said that the research could use descriptive qualitative methods. According to Semi (1993), the object of literary research is an effort to seek knowledge and give meaning carefully and critically to literary problems continuously. This qualitative research was based on hermeneutic/interpretative theory, leading to the author's expression interpretation in his work and examining the meaning behind the written text. The hermeneutic study emphasizes that every literary work has a meaning and interpretation of the author, wherein the interpretation and meaning of work will continue to be explored by researchers with an interpretation as close as possible to the author's intention. It is also supported by the opinion of Lingling (2020), Three methods are proposed by frame theory to transmit implicit information: literal translation, free translation based on a coordinated framework, and direct exposure of implicit information.

Based on the target object, this research included document or text research using the content analysis method. This research's target document and data source were the *Serat Sari Swara* by Ki Hajar Dewantara. This research was carried out with the continuous investigation of the study focused on analyzing the data through careful reading and recording and data identification, which was then presented according to the facts in the manuscript. Meanwhile, the data intended in this study was a series of words, poems, and lyrics in the stanzas of *tembang*/poetry. In addition, the data sources of this research were divided into two: objective data sources originating from the *Serat Sari Swara* manuscript and affective data sources in the form of informants from literary critics or academics as key informants, who are expected to respond to the studies.

The data collection technique for this research used non-interactive technique through content analysis and interactive technique through in-depth interview data mining with resource persons. All data obtained from different sources were classified based on the research problem (Widodo, 2020). To test the validity of the data successfully extracted and collected by the researchers, triangulation techniques were employed. Meanwhile, the triangulation technique to check the validity of the data here utilized the data source triangulation technique. Data source triangulation is a technique used to check the data validity by checking other data sources. In this case, the primary data sources were the Javanese version of *Serat Sari Swara*, the supporting sources of the Latin written version of *Serat Sari Swara*, and the results of in-depth interviews with several resource persons. The data obtained from one source can be re-controlled by other sources (Sugiyono, 2020). Then, the data analysis technique used in this study was an interactive model. According to Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014), there are three steps in conducting interactive analysis: (1) the data reduction/ condensation process, (2) the presenting data/data display process, and (3) drawing conclusions or data verification.

III. ANALYSIS RESULT

Analysis of philosophical meaning and educational values in the *Serat Sari Swara* poem by Ki Hajar Dewantara

As a Javanese printed manuscript, *Serat Sariswara* is one of the literary works of Ki Hadjar Dewantara (KHD). There are two versions of *Serat Sariswara*. The first edition was written in Javanese script and published in The Hague, Netherlands, in 1930. The second edition, published in Jakarta by the publisher Pradnjaparamita in 1964, was written in Latin script. He uses *gendhing* literature in the form of children's poetry, traditional Javanese poetry, and song's *macapat* in his teaching and educational approaches. The main points are as follows: "gendhing literature," part of *Sariswara*; *Gendhing minangka Panggulawentah* "Gending exercise as education" (Dewantara, 2013a). The following is an introductory quote from *Serat Sari Swara* by KHD.

...bilih wulangan sekar utawi gendhing Jawi tumpraing murid Jawi punika, miturut wewatoning kawruh panggulawentah, ageng sanget dayanipun tumonja dhateng alusing budi, kamaremaning raos kabangsanipun tuwin lepasing pasinaon kasusastran. Pramila ing nagari pundi kemawon wulangan sekar punika ing salebeting pamulangan kalebet prakawis ingkang sanget dipunwigatosaken. (1930)

Meaning: ...that the teaching of Javanese poetry or *gendhing* to pupils is based on educational science rules, which has a significant impact on refinement/nobility of mind (sensitivity of taste), cultivating a sense of pride in the spirit of nationalism, and literary understanding. As a result, any country should place the highest focus on teaching poetry in the classroom. (1930)

The statement made by KHD in Ki Hadjar Dewantara Volume 1 (Education) that *gendhing* literature is a concept of taste and "refines the mind with art", is relevant to KHD's thoughts on *gendhing* literature (*Sari Swara*). Additionally, teaching youngsters Javanese *gendhing* is beneficial for developing and refining their feeling of national identity. (2013b). It is consistent with the research of Tomczak and Lew (2019), stating that Songs can help children learn vocabulary in an effective way. The song encourages language acquisition. The following is the justification: Songs

have the following qualities: they are simple to find, simple to recall, even simple to memorize, repetitive, link to common human experiences and emotions, and catchy. The arguments in favor of teaching foreign languages through songs have affective, cognitive, linguistic and didactic bases. It seems that using songs as a teaching tool can also bring many positive benefits to students and teachers.

In this instance, children are singing the *tembang dolanan*, a traditional Javanese song, as they play with their pals. Widijanto et al. (2020) explain that this concept means that literary works cannot be separated from the cultural context and dialectical process. It is supported by the opinion of Suherman et al. (2019) that at an early age, children begin to learn a group of motor skills known as Fundamental Motor Skills (FMS). The following is an analysis of the philosophical meaning and educational values contained in the quotation from *Serat Sari Swara*.

DATA 1		
No	Translation of Javanese - Latin Script from <i>Serat Sari Swara</i>	Translate in English
1	<p><i>Sekar Gula Ganthi</i> <i>Sekaran Lar éminangka pangundhi, sinten ingkang kedhawahhan dhenggunng kedah nyekar</i></p> <p><i>Gula ganthi pantes asinjang loka</i></p> <p><i>Kampuh kendhala jenggi</i> <i>Jeruk gulung anom</i> <i>Jeruk gulung mentiyung kabotan mendhung</i> <i>éwa- éwa anom</i> <i>éwa- éwa kat ða isin émrice</i> <i>Kocar-kacir anom</i> <i>Kocar-kacir si Jaka kak ðhan piker</i> <i>Pari mandi anom</i> <i>Pari mandi mercici pari gol ðkan</i> <i>Sapa ketiban denggunng, macaa angidunga</i> <i>Aninong-nganinga patra rokok</i> <i>dawa tali sutra</i> <i>Rokok cendhak tali blarak</i> <i>bedhang-bedhung tiba sapa</i></p>	<p><i>Gula Ganthi</i> Songs for children as a lottery (toys), whoever gets a lottery in the form of stones (pebbles) must sing</p> <p><i>Gula ganthi</i> (a kind of empon-empon) It is appropriate to wear earth cloth Cloth (jarit) <i>kendhala</i> to hold a child Large orangeslike young grapefruit Curved grapefruit overcast objection Young people's cheers The cheers of the cassava stuffed with pepper scattered young scattered the trail mostly thinks Padi Sakti Muda Milky rice is like the sought-after rice Who gets the stone, read it sing (bunyinya) <i>aninong-nganinga</i> kerosene cigarettes The length of the rope is silk Cigarette <i>pendhek ropenya</i> old coconut leaves This (rock/pebble) will fall to whom</p>

Song's *Gula Ganthi* is one of the names of songs in *Serat Sariswara* which means that people are obliged to seek knowledge. *Gula* is the epitome of sweet, *ganthi* a kind of empon-empon bitter taste. This means that education is initially bitter but in the end it will become sweet (when it has achieved its goals/ ideals). Ideals are symbolized by *asinjang loka* (intended target). Wearing earth cloth/ *asinjang Loka* is the epitome of ideals. Goals can be obtained if we study at school. *Mendhung* the symbol of misery. It means that if we do not demand knowledge, surely our life forward will be miserable. Therefore, young people must be enthusiastic about school (*ewa-ewa anom*). This poetry also demonstrates the sense of unity not to be divided, and humans cannot live alone. It is related to research Dewi's (2018) research revealed that concern for ecology was still low among most students because they did not understand the impending danger of environmental degradation. Thus, the self-regulation learning approach is suitable for increasing students' social and ecological awareness.

The poem of *Gula Ganthi* song when examined contains the value of **religious education** and the value of **discipline education**. Religious education is covered in the word *macaa - angidunga* (read and pray). Reading religious scriptures, reading signs of God's greatness, reading God's destiny given to him, Praying is a means of remembering God / God, and is a means of believing God's will for the best of his destiny. The value of discipline and responsibility is symbolized by the child who is drawn / appointed as a play, so he must be willing and disciplined to carry out his duties, hard work and responsibility to carry out the task of completing the mission he carries. Here, each translation results from a particular interpretation of the original text, in each case being strongly influenced by the individual translator's cognitive background, beliefs, interests, views, situation, and knowledge (Lahiani, 2020).

DATA 2		
No	Translation of Javanese - Latin Script from <i>Serat Sari Swara</i>	Translate in English
2	<p><i>Langen Siswa</i> <i>Sekaran Lar ésumrambah</i></p> <p><i>Siswa samya lelangen ing jaba</i> <i>Padhang bulan rangsedheng ngira purnama</i> <i>Iku yogya mang énggar- énggaring driya</i></p> <p>*) <i>Sekaran lar épunika sampun dipunbangun dados sekar gendhing, nama: langen gita, ugi kawrat ing buku ngriki.)</i></p>	<p><i>Langen siswa</i> Songs for all children</p> <p><i>Students together have fun outside</i> <i>The moon shines brightly during the full moon</i> <i>It's better to please the heart</i></p> <p>*) <i>This kid's song has been made sekar gendhing (Songs accompanied by gamelan) under the name Langen Gita.)</i></p>

Langen siswa is a song that describes students or children having fun during the full moon. They have fun, playing outdoors or in the front yard under the light of the full moon. The philosophical meaning that can be taken from this song about the beautiful full moon at night emits light making the night atmosphere bright, this contains the philosophical character of the moon that provides peace and happiness for the universe. The shady full moon light gives the meaning of soul shade and peace to those around him. Song's *Langen Siswa* also teaches us about gratitude for God Almighty's creation of the beauty of the full moon and being able to use it in positive things, in addition to contemplating the greatness of the Divine, one of which is the occurrence of the full moon. Philosophical meaning contained in song's *Langen Siswa* are the lives of children interact and socialize a lot with their peers so that in addition to fostering a sense of solidarity, being sensitive to the environment, they also get pleasure from playing with friends.

The value of education that can be taken in the poem above is a message about the importance of the value of **togetherness and solidarity**. Hal it can be shown from the quotation of the poem "*siswa samya lelangen ing jaba*", this gives children the opportunity to enjoy their childhood with fun, excitement, and active play. Playing together can indirectly train cohesiveness and teamwork and care for friends and their environment. Because by playing together, Children can train children's psychomotor skills, hone children's thinking patterns, and learn to solve problems. As a result, the child's world is a world of play, learning activities can be inserted in children's play activities, so that learning can feel fun.

DATA 3

No	Translation of Javanese - Latin Script from Serat Sari Swara	Translate in English
3	<i>Puji Santosa</i>	Puji Santosa
	<i>S ðbet byar para siswa ing pawiyatan, Cantrik c ðk ð manguju lan pra jejanggan, Angadhep risang Begawan, Samya mangajab wangsitana,</i>	Every morning the students at school, Various disciples and priests, Facing the teacher Together hope the word of his fragrance
	<i>Nora suw é sang Dwijawara ngandika, Sarwi sar ðn wedalira kang warsita, Pra-siswa meleng ing cipta, Sang Resi rum sabdanira.</i>	Not long the teachersaid, What plan is pronounced, The students centered their creation, The sage is good to hear his words
	<i>Padha gat ðkna kulup ingsun wewarah, D ðn bisa pasrah lan bungah ajwa susah, Aja wegah lesu lesah, Gulangen panggah ing manah.</i>	All pay attention son, I'll teach you, In order to be sincere and happy, don't be sad Do not be lazy to get tired Soak and imprint it in your heart

Tembang Puji Santosa is a symbol of a teacher's hope for his students to succeed quickly. In addition, it is the obedience and sincerity of students to their teachers in receiving lessons (teacher's words). The teacher gives many teachings to his students that all things should be sincere in all things, do not be sad, do not be **lazy, always be grateful, do not be careful or worry, remember the justice of God**. Living in the world is a balance between joy and sorrow, between luck and woe, man's position in the world is equal in God's eyes whether rich or poor, young or old, officials or people. Do not like to complain, difficult to be happy comes from the heart of each human being, always act well, always process feelings and thoughts so that they run in balance, the heart is always stable and strong, brave if right, do not talk much, dexterous in work, life is always useful for others, always beautify yourself meaning do not make yourself miserable, uphold a sense of loyalty and love, and remember to fellow humans so as not to be arbitrary. Mukhuba (2017) according to the author, poetry is a type of literary work that reflects society. It may be used to critique political, psychological, social, and cultural concerns by using symbols and other natural aspects to conceptualize, construct, and express different thoughts regarding issues of justice.

The educational value that can be learned from this *song* is that students must obey the teacher, students must be serious if studying, everything must be carried out sincerely, do not like to be sad, do not be lazy, always be grateful, do not worry or worry, while remembering that God is most just, life in the world must be Balanced, in the world of the same human degree, don't likes to complain, always do good, always cultivate feelings, think so that it runs balanced, the heart is always stable and strong, dare if it is true, do not talk much, be dexterous in working, life is always useful for others, always beautify yourself meaning do not make yourself miserable, uphold loyalty and love, and remember Seama human being so don't be arbitrary.

DATA 4

No	Translation of Javanese - Latin Script from Serat Sari Swara	Translate in English
4	<p>IMA-IMA <i>Sekaran Lar écengkok Surakarta</i> <i>Kembang Setaman</i></p> <p><i>(Ima-ima) *) kembang mawar,</i> <i>Lir p éndah ratuning sekar,</i> <i>Ya bapak (ya ndara) *)</i> <i>Ngambar-ambar ngambar-ambar,</i> <i>Arum éngebaki latar, (Ndara) *)</i> <i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p> <p>**) <i>Sri-asri éndah,</i> <i>Nir su nir sah,</i> <i>Gumregah atin ébungah.</i></p> <p><i>(Ima-ima) kembang menur,</i> <i>tinadur pinggiring sumur,</i> <i>Ya bapak (ya Ndara),</i> <i>Mambak mawur, mambak mawur,</i> <i>Agawe asrining pungkur, (ndara),</i> <i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p> <p><i>(ima-ima) Kembang mlati,</i> <i>Lir suweng ceplik kang p éni,</i> <i>Ya bapak (ya Ndara)</i> <i>Ganda wangi-ganda wangi,</i> <i>Rinajut ing rikma putri, (ndara).</i> <i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p> <p><i>(Ima-ima) Kembang Kanthil,</i> <i>Kumanthil papan é'inggil,</i> <i>Ya bapak, (ya ndara)</i> <i>Tan pinethil, tan pinethil</i> <i>Tiba dh éw ésarwa gampil, (ndara),</i> <i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p> <p><i>(ima-ima) kembang Nangka,</i> <i>Lir godhong ijo warnanya,</i> <i>Ya bapak, (ya ndara),</i> <i>Ngambra-ambra, ngambra-ambra,</i> <i>Agaw ésrining d ésa, (ndara),</i> <i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p> <p><i>(ima-ima) kembang waru,</i> <i>Warna asri y éni dinulu,</i> <i>Ya bapak, (ya ndara),</i> <i>Bareng ngambu, bareng ngambu,</i> <i>Wekasan cuwa ing kalbu, (ndara)</i></p> <p><i>Alok-alok: hos é!</i></p>	<p>Ima-Ima Nyanyain Anak Surakarta style Garden flowers</p> <p>(Song of Ima-Ima *) roses, Like the queen of flowers Yes father (yes sir) *) Fragrant smell The smell fills the yard, (master) *) Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p> <p>**) Asri-Asri Beautiful Lost heart Resurrecting the heart becomes happy</p> <p>(Song Ima-Ima) flower menur Planted on the edge of the well Yes father (yes sir), Evenly spread, evenly spread Make his asri back, (sir) Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p> <p>(Song of Ima-Ima) jasmine flower, Like beautiful little earrings Yes father (yes sir), Smelling good – smelling good Knitted in the hair of the ladies, (master). Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p> <p>(Song of Ima-Ima) Cantilevers Dangling in high places Yes father, (yes sir) Can't be picked, can't be picked Fall yourself all easy, (sir) Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p> <p>(Ima-Ima song) jackfruit flower, Like green leaves, the color is Yes father, (yes sir), evenly, evenly distributed make the village beautiful, (master). Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p> <p>(Ima-Ima Song) Waru Flower Beautiful colors when viewed Yes father, (yes sir) After kissing, after kissing, Finally disappointed in the heart, (sir)</p> <p>Cheers: hurray! (excited and happy)</p>

Ima-Ima means cloudy or meaning sadness. This song can be used to meghibur people who are being bullied by sadness. The sadness and joy of the heart begin with oneself. So cultivate the heart so that sadness does not come, make yourself happy with gratitude by what is around us and what God has created. If people are happy, then life will be spirited. The value of education that can be learned from the song *Ima-ima* is that in life you must always **be patient and grateful**. Be patient when meeting trials / burdens / sorrows, and be grateful when you get the gift of happiness. Khosravi et al. (2017) said that poems that reflect ethics and represent the important role of humility in shaping the sense of responsibility towards the wild and revealing the ideology of ecocriticism that examines the relationship between humans and nature.

Young people who must know how to communicate by applying three things—maintaining a decent face, smooth speech and not bothersome, and not hurting other people's hearts, much alone being critical and arrogant—are considered as receiving moral education. On the other hand, his behavior needs to be admirable, straightforward, unassuming, and agreeable to people who witness or interact with him. It is also supported by the opinion of Winarni and Lutan (2020) that the values of empathy and tolerance can be developed through cooperative learning compared to classical learning models, considering tolerance is a character representation to respect or accept opinions, ideas, attitudes, habits, or even beliefs that harmoniously opposite.

DATA 5

No	Translation of Javanese - Latin Script from Serat Sari Swara	Translate in English
5	<p><i>Salyarini</i> *) Sekar Ageng ingkang sumrambah dados Sekaran Lar é</p> <p><i>ájing bidhal gumuruh, Saking nagri Wiratha, K ðh ingkang bala kuswa, Abra busananira, Lir surya wedalira,</i></p> <p><i>Saking ing Jalandhi Arsa madhangi jagad, Duk mungup-mungup an ðng, N ðng pucak ingkang wukir, Sumirat sumamburat, K ðging soroting surya, M ðga lan gunung-gunung.</i></p>	<p><i>Salyarini</i> *) Sekar Ageng (Tembang in Kawi language) the commonplace menjadi children's singing</p> <p>The morning leaves crowded, Dar Wirata country, Many armies / soldiers, Glittering her clothes, Like the sun coming out/rising,</p> <p>From the ocean That illuminates the highway, When it looks out, On the top of the mountain, Glittering radiating Gets sunlight, Mega and mountains.</p>

Sekar Ageng Salyarini, his poem describes the soldiers of Wirata State who traveled/left in the morning. The soldiers are many and crowded. Her clothes glittered like the rising sun. Its luster emits a ray like illuminating the universe. Especially if you get sunlight, mega, and if you walk in the mountains, it adds to the chirp. The educational value that can be gleaned from this song is the nationalist spirit because of the depiction of soldiers who serve their king by departing en masse from the land of Wiratha. In addition, it also contains the value of loyalty, devotion to the country that is sincere and willing to sacrifice. The actualization of puppet figures and stories, according to Nurgiyantoro and Efendi (2017) argue that the actualization of puppet characters and stories is generally used as a cultural reference in terms of naming, comparison (metaphorical), and children's education. Then, the values in stories and puppet characters are widely taken as a source of reference and a means of educating children by parents.

Sekar Ageng Salyarini's educational principles center on the spiritual importance of approaching God as one's own servant. It is described in the poetry's text as occurring in the middle of the night due of the puppet scene's early morning timing (Anggoro, 2018; Diwan et al., 2019). The educational value that can be gleaned from this song is the **national and nationalist spirit** because of the depiction of soldiers who serve their king by departing en masse from the land of Wiratha. In addition, it also contains the value of loyalty, devotion to the country that is **sincere** and **willing to sacrifice**.

IV. DISCUSSION

The cause of the failure to teach literary appreciation in elementary schools is due to the absence of guidelines or basis for teaching literature in schools and the decline in the ability of literary appreciation in students. This is also due to the lack of books or teaching materials for children's literary appreciation which are guidelines for teaching literary appreciation at the elementary school level. In addition, many teachers have difficulty in learning literature because of lack of knowledge, ability, and skills in appreciating literature (Saefuddin, 2022). Furthermore, he also said that literary teaching is expected to be a medium for ethical education, moral education, or character education. This is very appropriate and supports the purpose of this research, namely the development of literary appreciation textbooks containing philosophical meanings and the value of character / ethics education.

Hafizah et al. (2022) suggest that the implementation of character growth in elementary school children through children's literature can be done through three things, namely learning subjects, teaching materials, and learning strategies. Children's literature teaching materials that will be taught to children must contain elements of character education. This shows how important the analysis of the needs and conditions of the textbook to be developed must be in accordance with the learning and character growth of students. The development of Literary Appreciation textbooks that are more applicable, representative, and in accordance with the background and needs of students can improve the quality of literary appreciation learning (Ridlwani & Hamsia, 2019). The stages of textbook development carried out by Ridlwani & Hamsia include: *define, design, and development*.

Research that supports this paper was also conveyed by Gunansyah (2015) which states that children literature is developed based on local cultural excellence with moral cultivation orientation. This local culture is a very valuable relic and a reflection of the nation's character. Thus, it is hoped that through local culture-based children's literature it can be a means of cultural inheritance to the next generation of the nation (Gunansyah, 2015).

Textbooks have an important role in supporting the learning process and development of science, this is as the opinion conveyed by Desiani et al. (2023) states that the success of the learning process is influenced by textbooks. Therefore, a good textbook must pay attention to important aspects ranging from the suitability of the material content with the curriculum, the coherence of the material, the depth and breadth of the material.

Textbooks can be one of the media or learning resources commonly used in teaching and learning activities. It is as stated by Sitepu (2014) that textbooks are used as a source of learning in the teaching and learning process for students.

The information contained in the textbook should be able to help achieve competence or learning objectives. Therefore, this study will be used as a textbook in Elementary Indonesian Language and Literature lectures, especially in the material for appreciation of children's literature for the Elementary School Teacher Education Study Program. It confirms the statement made by Puspita et al. (2019) that textbooks containing character education values are assessed as effective learning instruments at the tertiary level.

Chen (2013) stated that in Taiwan, textbooks are considered one of the important learning resources, similar to teachers in supporting the success of learning activities. Textbooks are everything (materials, teaching materials, and learning resources) that can facilitate teachers and students in teaching and learning activities (Tomlinson, 2012). Textbooks can also be interpreted as one type of printed teaching material containing the main teaching materials used in learning (Su'udiah et al., 2016). Based on the statements put forward by several experts above, it can be synthesized that textbooks are vital in supporting learning activities containing teaching materials used as references or learning resources following basic competencies in certain disciplines or subjects so that they can support the achievement learning objectives. In this case, this textbook applied the basic needs of users, i.e., lecturers and students in Yogyakarta Special Region Province, with exploratory studies through interviews and focus group discussion activities.

Waluyo (2011) asserted that literary appreciation activities include activities to understand children's literary works and action appreciation activities, such as reading poetry, reading short stories, and others. Furthermore, Winarni (2014) explained the notion of appreciation as a series of activities to explore literary works to grow understanding, appreciation, and sensitivity of one's critical mind in evaluating or appreciating literary works. In line with the opinion above, Kurniawan (2013) described that literary appreciation consists of activities regarding the interpretation, analysis, assessment, and production of literary works. Thus, it can be synthesized that literary appreciation is an activity of providing an assessment and appreciation of a literary work. Howard and Major (2014) further elucidated that a good textbook must contain the following requirements: 1) according to learning needs, 2) according to the curriculum and context, 3) functioning as a learning resource that facilitates the learning process, 4) able to guide learning independently to achieve competence, 5) having interrelated and integrated materials, and 6) having clear operational guidelines.

V. CONCLUSION

Literary works are created not only to be enjoyed but also to be understood and taken advantage of. Literary works are not just meaningless inanimate objects but contain teaching in the form of life values and goodness messages that can increase human insight in understanding life. Literature also contains many messages and pieces of guidance. It aligns with the research results of Novianti (2017), demonstrating how character identification and literary appreciation exercises can help students internalize the importance of virtue in literary works. It takes careful contemplation, consideration, and literary work analysis to discover the noble values in literary works. Based on the findings and discussion, it can be concluded that of the five universities of the Yogyakarta Special Region Province, literary appreciation textbooks containing philosophical meanings and educational values are crucial and need to be developed.

Based on data analysis on the philosophical meaning and educational values of *Serat Sari Swara*, it can be summarized as follows. 1) *Sekar Gula Ganthi* contains philosophical and educational values of religious education and the value of discipline education (discipline in carrying out its duties, hard work and responsibility to carry out the task of completing the mission it carries). 2) *Langen Siswa* contains philosophical meanings and the value of character education of thank God and value togetherness and solidarity. 3) *Tembang Puji Santosa* has philosophical and educational values of obey the teacher, students must be serious if they study, everything must be carried out sincerely, do not like to be sad, do not be lazy, always be grateful, don't likes to complain, and always does good 4) *Tembang Ima-Ima* contains the educational value of decency and politeness in an association. 5) *Sekar Ageng Salyarini* contains the philosophical meaning of nationalist spirit and willing to sacrifice.

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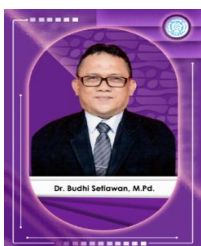
Several books have been produced: *Pemahaman dan Kajian Psikolinguistik* [Understanding and Study of Psycholinguistics] (2020); *Lanskap Linguistik Kota Malang* [Malang City Linguistic Landscape] (2021); *Rekomendasi Kebijakan Realisasi Eksistensial Humanistik untuk Pembelajaran Kesantunan Berbahasa Indonesia di Kawasan Urban dan Rural* [Humanistic Existential Realization Policy Recommendations for Learning Indonesian Politeness in Urban and Rural Areas] (2022).



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Books ever produced: *Saya Mahir Berbahasa Jawa* diterbitkan UNS Press (2008); *Bahasa Indonesia untuk Mahasiswa*, Penerbit Widya Sari (2010); *Analisis Wacana*, Penerbit Widya Sari (2011); *Analisis Wacana dan Pembelajaran Bahasa*, penerbit Widya Sari Press (2011); *Pragmatik Sebuah Pengantar*, penerbit Widya Sari Press (2012).



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Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced by Translators in Translating the Qur'ānic Arabic I-ḥazana' الْحَزَن Words Into English: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—In this study, the researchers aimed to investigate the underlying linguistic problems experienced by three notable translators: Abdel Haleem (2004), Khan and AL-Hilali (1996), and Pickthall (1930) when rendering the Qur'ānic الْحَزَن I-ḥazana' words into English, and to identify the types of semantic loss produced by their renderings. Corpus-based research was conducted as the study examined three renditions of the Holy Qur'an that were sourced from the Qur'ānic Arabic Corpus (QAC) and books of Qur'ānic translation of the abovementioned translators. Based on the descriptive analytical approach, the researchers analyzed the underlying linguistic problems encountered by the aforementioned translators. Findings showed that the linguistic problems encountered when translating the Qur'ānic الْحَزَن I-ḥazana' words into English are the result of the linguistic gap arising from the cultural differences between the two source language text (Arabic) and target language text (English). Divergences in and loss of meaning are inevitable when translating the Holy Qur'an into English in general and Qur'ānic الْحَزَن I-ḥazana' words in particular. It was also found that Arabic Qur'ānic الْحَزَن I-ḥazana' words are associated with distinctive rhetorical devices, literary style, and elegant technique which cannot be captured faithfully in English translations.

Index Terms—experienced, الْحَزَن I-ḥazana', linguistic problems, translating, The Holy Qur'an

I. INTRODUCTION

Translating the Holy Qur'an into other languages, particularly English, has always been a problematic and intricate task. Undoubtedly, the translation of the Holy Qur'an presents enormous challenges for translators. It has been contended that Qur'anic text cannot be replicated in any other language or foreign tongue (Abdul-Raof, 2004; El-Hadary, 2008; Alhaj, 2022). Translating the Holy Qur'an from its native language, Arabic, into any other language, such as English for instance, is attended by sundry linguistic difficulties and problems because there are no two, similar languages in terms of either content or form (Nida, 2003; Lakoff, 1972). The Holy Qur'an is characterized by many linguistic, eloquent, and oratorical features that produce a compelling, convincing, and forceful style. All in all, to achieve an adequate interpretation of the Qur'anic ayat [verses], the translators of the Holy Qur'an should examine and carefully consider various exegeses of this holy text (Alhaj, 2022).

The Holy Qur'an is considered the most exceptional, and magnificent example of Arabic literature along with its religious importance to all Muslims around the globe (Chejne, 1968; Leaman, 2006). The Holy Qur'an is regarded as the only sacred book that has influenced and continues to influence human faith, thinking, ethics, civilization, and way of life. Interestingly, the universal reach of the Holy Qur'an, transcending the barriers of language, can be traced back to its origin in several divine ayahs (Reynolds, 2004; Hidayat & Solihin, 2019). Its everlasting message is intended for all humanity and addresses all of humankind. Because the Holy Qur'an is the ultimate revelation that has come directly from Allah Almighty, Muslims assert and perpetuate the belief that this holy source of guidance is not only for Islamic believers. Throughout the Holy Qur'an, Allah Almighty addresses all mankind, transcending all impediments created by language, kind, religion, group, race, time, and place. To attain this, sacred instructions explicitly state that the Holy Qur'an is to be accessible to all mankind irrespective of language. In reality, this means that the divine message needs to be translated into various languages.

The Holy Qur'an's divine message, despite it being in Arabic, has a potentially huge influence on everyone both directly or indirectly (Alqahtani, 2018; Hidayat & Solihin, 2019). Hence, the Holy Qur'an needs to be translated into diverse universal languages to make spiritual guidance accessible to non-Arabic speakers (Al-Jabari, 2008; Omer, 2021). Arabic is the original language of the Holy Qur'an which has been rendered into many languages worldwide. However, the rendering of the Holy Qur'an into international contemporary languages such as English is an arduous and intricate

issue in terms of the religion of Islam; consequently, the Qur'ānic text should be rendered to faithfully reflect its real form and true style (Abdul-Raof, 2004; Siddiek, 2012). The rendering of the Holy Qur'ān into the English language is not a simple, effortless task. Sometimes even native speakers of Arabic acknowledge that some Qur'ānic ayahs are difficult to comprehend, particularly when the ayat [verses] have more than one implication (Abdelaal, 2019).

One of the underlying linguistic problems encountered when translating the Holy Qur'ān into English is the endeavor to render some of the untranslatable Qur'ān-specific lexis which do not have English equivalents. For example, the Qur'ānic word صلاة التراويح *salat altarawih* [Tarawih or Taraweeh], does not have an equivalent word in English. Because Arabic and English are the languages of two different cultures, this causes problems and difficulties when translating Qur'ānic texts because, in the Arabic text, there might not be an accurate English equivalent, producing linguistic disharmony and incongruity between the Arabic and English version of the text (Ahmed, 2009; Mansoor, 2017; Allaithy, 2013). Therefore, when translating accordingly, when exerting every effort and endeavor not made to translate this Qur'ān-specific word into English, its true meaning might be lost unless every effort is made to translate the word correctly to convey its intended meaning (Abdelaal & Md Rashid, 2015; Iqbal, 2000). There are several reasons for the inadequacies and inconsistencies in some translations of the Holy Qur'ān. The translator: has not carefully examined and thought about various exegeses of the Holy Qur'ān; has insufficient knowledge of and expertise in the Arabic language; and/or has been unable to translate the text faithfully to capture the implications of Qur'ān-specific words (Judeh, 2017; Abdelaal, 2020).

Several studies have been conducted to examine the phenomena of loss of meaning in translation, incorrect interpretation, and linguistic issues such as syntactic-semantic losses in some ayat [verses] (Hashemi, 2023; Al-Wazani, 2018; Abdelaal & Rashid, 2015; Hassan, 2014). However, these investigations have tended to examine the semantic loss in only particular ayat [verses] containing Qur'ān-specific words such as Qur'ānic heart words, Qur'ān-love words, Qur'ān-patience words, Qur'ānic-specific lexica "Alkyed" from various chapters of the Holy Qur'ān, and problems faced by translators when translating the Qur'ān- Arabic hope words *l-amalu* (Alhaj & Alwadai, 2022; Nouraldeen, 2021). To date, little research has been conducted on the loss of meaning in English translations of Qur'ān-specific words such as Qur'ānic 'الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*'. For this reason, it is important to conduct studies that focus on analyzing the translation losses in the renditions of the Qur'ānic-specific lexica "الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*' words" into English by three translators of the Holy Qur'ān: Abdel -Haleem (2004), Pickthall (1930), Khan and Al-Hilali (1996).

A. Objectives of the Study

The current study sought to (a) examine the specific underlying linguistic problems experienced by the aforementioned translators when translating the Qur'ānic "الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*" words into English in some ayat [verses]; (b) identify the types of losses of meaning evident in the three translations of the Holy Qur'ān by Abdel -Haleem (2004), Pickthall (1930), Khan and Al-Hilali (1996) and (c) discover the possible causes of the identified underlying linguistic problems encountered when translating the Qur'ānic 'الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*' words into English in some ayat [verses].

B. Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

RQ1. What are the underlying linguistic problems that impede the accurate translation of the Qur'ānic 'الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*' words into English?

RQ2. To what extent do the translators adequately translate the implied meaning of the Qur'ānic 'الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*' word into English?

RQ3. What are the unique translation strategies used by each of the three translators when rendering the Qur'ānic 'الْحَزَن' *l-ḥazana*' words into English?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Underlying Linguistic Problems in the Translation of the Holy Qur'ān Into English: Critical Background

Translation has always played a pivotal role in human interactions, helping to fulfill people's cultural, commercial, industrial, and business demands in addition to bridging the linguistic divide and social boundaries between different cultures and nations. Also, translation has been a crucial and inter-civilization development; it has played a prominent role in safeguarding, conserving, and disseminating education, ideas, and knowledge despite linguistic divergences and cultural constraints (Katan, 2014; Bassnett & Lefevere, 1998).

Nonequivalence can arise from the default of the literariness or connotative meaning of the source text—in this case, the Arabic language. Translators sometimes do not see the connotative meaning or analogy in both the source language and the target language. Also, they sometimes do not notice the cultural context and, consequently, a loss in cultural translation at the word level takes place (Venuti, 2018; Hermans, 2009; Baker, 2019). This also relates to the Holy Qur'ān whose language is more intricate and difficult than other literary works. Quandaries and predicaments in translation that give rise to translation loss may include semantic and syntactic problems. Essentially, the grammatical construction of Arabic is markedly different from the English language, which makes it arduous to render many facets of the Arabic text. However, translating the Holy Qur'ān into English in general and the Qur'ānic-specific lexica in particular, constitutes a different problem—the problem of finding appropriate expressions and accurate vocabulary in

English that idiomatically is not fully available in terms of Islamic equivalence (Allsopp & Allsopp, 2003; Sechrest & Zaidi, 1972; Shojaei, 2012). Although there are Arabic words for which there do exist equivalent words in English, they do not capture the same semantic range and depth, or they give different meanings in terms of religious connotations: for example, the word *Al Qiblah*, *Al Halal* when rendered into English becomes 'prayer direction' and 'permissible' respectively. Hence, many researchers assert that Islamic terms are cultural-specific items that do not have a perfect equivalent in English. They are a type of non-equivalent rendering since they cannot be adequately translated by using their dictionary meaning or denotative meaning (Kashgary, 2011; Farghal & Shunnaq, 1999). These Islamic terms cannot be rendered and should therefore be transliterated "التفخرة" *alnaqhara* into English as they are.

In a general sense, the Holy Qur'an utilizes a broader array and regularity of connotative linguistic features than any other style - former or current. It uses the highest level of rhetorical Arabic together with an abundance of classical devices, the characteristic of any literary masterpiece (Nayef & Wahab, 2018; Kazemi et al., 2004; Andopa et al., 2018). Doctrine and ethics play a significant role in the Holy Qur'an translator's choice of language and content. For instance, translators of the Holy Qur'an may utilize various translation strategies to enhance the text they are translating, expressly or by implication. Some of these strategies are unique to sacred discourse (Hatim & Mason, 2005; As-Safi, 2011; Venuti, 2013; Hashemi, 2023).

In general, it should be taken into account the fact that translation does not involve only the replacement of lexemic and syntactic items; there are also cultural and contextual factors that should be kept in mind as cultures and contexts are sometimes if not often, not the same in dissimilar languages (Ardakani et al., 2015; Hermans, 2007). Contextual factors are of particular significance in the Qur'anic framework as these pertain to the context of the situation when a special verse or surah is revealed. Hence, its context-specific relevance is highly significant when it is being translated into a different language. Likewise, the Holy Qur'an is filled with Arabic culture-specific words that are unknown, inexplicable, and obscure to both non-Arabic-speaking Muslims and people who identify as non-Muslims. This is because the Holy Qur'an was revealed in Arabic and the Arabic culture is unknown to both non-Arabic speakers and non-Islamic people (Turner, 2011; Khan, 2010). All in all, Qur'anic cultural items are intertwined with Arabic-specific linguistic variety. Furthermore, there are implicative meanings in the cultural and communicative Arabic patterns. This suggests that Qur'anic-specific cultural aspects are translation-resistant (Taghian, 2013; Zubia, 1998).

To conclude, some Qur'anic Arabic culture-specific lexes have implicative meanings that are intertwined with the context, and denotative meanings or external structure (surface structure) cannot convey the exact meaning of a specified Ayah (verse).

There are several different approaches that scholars can take when carrying out a linguistic study of literary works. However, this current study research makes use of linguistic analysis such as semantic analysis, syntactic analysis, etc., to explore the underlying linguistic problems encountered when translating Qur'anic words into English.

B. Previous Studies

To date, not many studies have been conducted to examine the underlying linguistic problems encountered by the translators of the Holy Qur'an when rendering into English the Qur'anic-specific lexes, such as *الْحَزَن* 'I-ḥazana' words. Hence, this study was conducted to investigate various problems caused by the aforementioned issues when translating the Holy Qur'an into English. It is important to note that a plethora of studies has been carried out in the Arabic language to explore the phenomena of Qur'anic-specific lexica, sorrow 'الْحَزَن' I-ḥazana' words'. For example, Al-Maliki (2010) studied (in Arabic) the word grief and its meaning in the Holy Qur'an. The findings of the study showed that the meaning of the word 'sadness' from the linguistic perspective is not far from the idiomatic feature, both of which connote asperity and harshness. In the Arabic language, 'sadness' denotes the thickness and compactness of the earth, and idiomatically, hardness in the soul, pain, and an illusion that grieves a person. Also, the results of the study showed that the Holy Qur'an mentions sadness idiomatically, not linguistically. Salman (2016) explored grief and sorrow in the Holy Qur'an. Section one of the study examines the concept of 'grief' in the Holy Qur'an, revealing the implicative tokens of one's grief. About forty-two implicative tokens were divided connotatively based on their position in the texts. Section two of the study deals with the four implicative tokens in the Holy Qur'an that connote 'sorrow'. Kalantari et al. (2020) also studied the concept of sadness in the Holy Qur'an. The results of the study showed that the sadness mentioned in the Holy Qur'an is a multifaceted abstraction and diverse strategies have been employed to explicate it. That is why all mankind, given the high rate of melancholy and sadness, have to pay more attention to this concept and, to overcome sadness, they have to acknowledge that all things in the universe occur under Allah's lordship.

Fayyazet et al. (2021) studied the definition of depression in the Holy Qur'an. The findings of the study indicated that the causes of global sadness mentioned in the Holy Qur'an are the same symptoms as those of sadness in the realm of psychology. Maghrabi (2020) studied sorrow, its effect, and its cure in the Holy Qur'an. The findings of the study revealed that sorrow is the torment of loss or grieving. Likewise, sadness controls the principles ruling these emotions. Furthermore, the absence of sadness is the result of a person accomplishing a great and good deed. Also, it is important to fight off sadness, and not to yield to it because it negatively affects the way of life and cripples the spirit. Finally, the supplication and worship of Allah have a great impact on the fight against sadness. It is highly recommended that recitation of the Holy Qur'an be encouraged.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

In the current paper, the researchers utilized the descriptive-analytical method. Close readings and careful examinations of the translations were conducted to determine the underlying linguistic problem encountered by the aforementioned chosen translators (Abdel- Haleem, 2004; Pickthall, 1930; Khan & Al-Hilali, 1996). When translating the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words into English. These three translators were chosen as they have different cultural backgrounds: Islamic and non-Islamic. Close reading and analysis of the translations have been done to identify the stylistic features and the processes by which they have been translated.

The study also follows a corpus-based approach in that the study data were extracted from the Qur'an Arabic Corpus (Qassem, 2021; Alhaj, 2022) which includes the major works in English translations of the meaning of the Holy Qur'an by the selected translators who rendered the Qur'an-specific lexica, for instance, the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words into English. Translations of the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words in these three renderings are the focus of the current paper. The different renditions were analyzed using the descriptive analytical approach to the context-based, linguistic interpretation and exegesis of the Holy Qur'an.

B. Status of Intended Translators Included in the Study

This section presents the linguistic and religious backgrounds of each of the aforementioned translators, together with the translation strategies they adopt, which undoubtedly play a significant role in determining the quality of their renditions (Qassem, 2021). The three notable translators chosen for the study are eminent Muslim scholars. However, Pickthall (1930) was English and converted Muslim, and his efforts in rendering the Qur'an into English are considerable and widely acknowledged. His translation provided the groundwork for the history of the Qur'an translations. The translation is meant entirely for an English audience, possibly nearer to what Muslims maintain to be the meaning of the Arabic Qur'an. AL-Hilali and Khan are also prominent translators in the history of English translations of the Holy Qur'an (El-Zeiny, 2011; Qassem, 2021; Nassimi, 2008). Pickthall's (1930) translation is a literal one but is nevertheless acceptable for the TL readers or language recipient. Abdel Haleem (2004) is an Egyptian Islamic studies scholar whose translation is reputed to be "the best available English-language translation", giving him an excellent reputation and acclaim as a translator (Hassanein, 2017). This highly-renowned Muslim scholar produced a translation of the Qur'an that was described by Oxford University Press (OUP) as "one of the most highly regarded translations by English-speaking scholars [...] written in contemporary language [...] making the text understandable while retaining its eloquence" (quoted in Hassanein, 2017). Abdel Haleem adopted a free-translation method that produced a reader-friendly, target-oriented rendition that was a great improvement on its predecessors.

C. Investigative Procedure

For this research paper, the English translation of the meaning of the Holy Qur'an by the aforesaid translators was gathered by the researchers for examination and analysis. First, the Surahs containing the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words" their Qur'anic interpretation in the exegesis books such as those of Ibn Kathir (2009), Alt-Tabari (1981), Tafsir AlJalalayn (2008) and Tafsir al Qurtubi (2004) were used as the pivotal exegetic and interpretive resources to examine the explication of the translated ayahs (verses) which were identified by investigating the translations of the Surahs containing the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words by the aforementioned translators. After that, the renditions were analyzed to identify Qur'anic-specific lexica, the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words in the verses of some chapters of the Holy Qur'an containing the same Qur'anic-specific lexica of interest in this study. In the final analysis, an investigation involving comparisons was carried out for the implicit and explicit meanings of the Arabic Qur'anic-specific lexica, the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words in the renderings, and the accurate meaning or specific sense of words in the exegesis books and the Arabic monolingual dictionaries of Al-Mu'jam Al-Waseet (2004) and Al-Mawrid: Kāmūs Injelīzī-'Arabā (1969, 2000), Al Balbaki Dictionary of Flags Al-Mawred (1992).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data on which this research is based is comprised of ayahs extracted from three renditions of the Holy Qur'an. One was rendered by Abdel -Haleem (2004), the second was translated by Pickthall (1990) and the third was rendered by Khan and Al-Hilali (1996). Also, this data consists of four Qur'anic ayahs containing Arabic Qur'anic-specific lexica, the *الْحَزَنُ* 'I-ḥazana' words.

Example One

Source Surrah: فاطر: Faatir, verse 34,

ST وَقَالُوا الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ الَّذِي أَذْهَبَ عَنَّا الْحَزْنَ إِنَّ رَبَّنَا لَغَفُورٌ شَكُورٌ (فاطر: 34)

Target Text:

- (1) **Abdelhaleem:** "They will say, 'Praise be to God, who has separated us from all sorrow! Our Lord is truly most forgiving, most appreciative:" (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 439).

- (2) **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "And they will say: "All the praises and thanks be to Allah, Who has removed from us (all) grief. Verily, our Lord is indeed Oft -Forgiving, Most Ready to appreciate "good deeds and to recompense" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 388).
- (3) **Pickthall:** " And they say: Praise be to Allah Who hath put grief away from us. Lo! Our Lord is Forgiving, Bountiful" (Pickthall, 2001, 1930, p. 313).

1. The Analysis

The General Intended Meaning of the Ayah

This ayah refers to all that is feared. Allah has comforted us and removed us from all that we used to fear and apprehend in the life of this world and the hereafter (Ibn Kathir, Vol. 3).

2. Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced when translating the Qur’ānic Arabic l-ḥazana' الحزن Words in Surrah: فاطر, Faatir, verse, 34

The translations above indicate that Abdelhaleem, Khan and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall utilized the literal translation method which tries to create for the readers of the English text the same impact that it had on the translators who attempted to capture the rich meaning of the Arabic Qur’ānic-specific lexica, 'sorrow' l-ḥazana'. It was discovered that the three translators rendered the lexeme into 'sorrow', 'grief', and 'grief' respectively which is acceptable to the TL readers or language recipient.

Semantically speaking, grief and sorrow seem to be analogous, and there is little difference between the two lexemes. Grief is heavy sadness and great sorrow and is what the heart accedes to when someone has experienced a loss. Sorrow is the emotion that the heart feels (reason for) when experiencing great sadness and/or immense regret. From a translational standpoint, Khan and Al-Hilali's and Pickthall's rendering for the Arabic Qur’ān-specific lexica, 'grief' l-ḥazana' is the best because they rendered it as 'grief', whereas Abdelhaleem rendered it as 'sorrow'.

Once again, this brings the discussion back to the issue of equivalence which is crucial in the renderings of the Arabic Qur’ān-specific lexica, 'l-ḥazana' in attempts to convey the sacred word accurately. The three translators encountered several linguistic problems when translating the Qur’ānic 'l-ḥazana' words into English. Hence, when translating, they chose from several available strategies. It was found that Khan, Al-Hilali, and Pickthall adopted the same strategies for their translations.

To approximate the meaning of the Arabic Qur’ān-specific lexis, 'l-ḥazana grief' in the Surat Fatir, ayah (34) all three translators used the literal translation strategy which produces a high degree of literal translation as shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
TRANSLATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED WHEN TRANSLATING THE QUR’ĀNIC 'الْحَزْن' L-ḤAZANA' WORDS IN SURRAH: فاطر, FATIR, VERSE 34

Type Translation No.	Semantic translation			Literal translation		
	High	Average	Low	High	Average	Low
Trans. 1 Sorrow				+		
Trans. 2 Grief				+		
Trans .3 Grief				+		

To conclude, in the above example showing the translation of the Arabic Qur’ān-specific lexica, l-ḥazana' 'grief', the analysis revealed that all three translators are confronting a linguistic dilemma: to maintain the fidelity of the linguistic transfer or to adapt it to meet the linguistic constraints. In the same way, a translation is a culture-bound phenomenon regardless of the semantic value produced by the translated text. The three translators were required to consider the target culture and adapt the translation to the intended audience or language recipient.

Example Two

Source Surrah: القصص, Al-Qasas, verse 8,

ST (8: القصص: فَالْتَقَطَهُ آلُ فِرْعَوْنَ لِيَكُونَ لَهُمْ عَدُوًّا وَحَزَنًا إِنَّ فِرْعَوْنَ وَهَامَانَ وَجُنُودَهُمَا كَانُوا خَاطِبِينَ

Target Text:

- (1) **Abdelhaleem:** "Pharaoh’s household picked him up—later became an enemy and a source of grief for them" (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 387).
- (2) **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "Then the household of Fir'aun (Pharaoh) picked him up, that he might become for them an enemy and a (cause of) grief. Verily! Fir'aun (Pharaoh), Haman, and their hosts were sinners." (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 517).
- (3) **Pickthall:** "And the family of Pharaoh took him up, that he might become for them an enemy and a sorrow, Lo! Pharaoh and Haman and their hosts were ever sinning" (Pickthall, 2001, p. 278).

1. The Analysis

The General Intended Meaning of the Ayah

This is why Allah says: " Then the household of Fir'aun (Pharaoh) picked him up, that he might become for them an enemy and a (cause of) grief. " In this phrase: (he might become) the word that expresses the results, i.e., what will come of him, not the reason, because they did not pick him so that he would cause them to grieve and be their enemy (Ibn Kathir, vol. 3).

2. Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced in Translating the Qur'ānic Arabic

I-ḥazana' الْحَزْنُ Words in Surrah: القصص, Al-Qasas, verse 8,

On examining the three renderings given above, it is evident that Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali used a semantic translation method to render the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, I-ḥazana' grief into English. It was found that they translated the lexis into an 'a source of grief' and a cause of grief', respectively. Whereas, Pickthall used the literal translation method to render the same lexis into 'a sorrow'. In their renderings, Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali reduced the semantic constraints of translating the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words in English. Pickthall's selection of equivalent for the meaning of the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words is thoroughly inaccurate. Whereas, Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali's renderings give a better possible sense of the intended meaning in the target language TL (English). The additional utilization of noun phrases 'a source of ' and cause of' have been used adequately and regularly. Unlike Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali, Pickthall omitted both additional noun phrases which influence the intensity of the message. Conveying the meaning of the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words, which are strongly associated with the religious side of the Qur'ānic Arabic language, is more difficult than translating other words which have equivalents in the Arabic and English languages.

It was found that the three translators faced linguistic problems when translating the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words into English because the meaning of the lexis الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' is inherent to the Islamic culture and Muslim faith. The difficulty of the translation arises when a translator has to translate these words into English with any level of accuracy, a task so great in terms of meaning, so sententious regarding idiom and formulas, so powerful in style and so artful in its connotation as the Holy Qur'ān in general and the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words in particular. To avoid losing vibrancy, and power, to tackle the linguistic problems when translating the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words meanings into English, Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali adopted an additional translation strategy when the two translators often added two lexical words 'source of ' and 'a cause of ' in the translated texts. Pickthall did not succeed in rendering the true meaning of the Qur'ānic 'grief الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words meanings, largely because English expressions are unable to convey the core concepts of the Holy Qur'ān in general and Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis' grief الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' in particular. Pickthall merely renders his knowledge (Ilm at- tafsir: Qur'ān interpretation science) and awareness of the Qur'ānic text but loses some meaning in translation due to the differences between the source language (Arabic) and the target language (English), and cultural differences.

To approach the meaning of the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, ' I-ḥazana' الجزن' in the Surat Al-Qasas, ayah (8) Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali utilized the semantic translation method which achieves a high degree of accuracy, whereas Pickthall utilized the literal translation method which produces a translation of average quality, as shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2

TRANSLATION STRATEGY EMPLOYED WHEN TRANSLATING THE QUR'ĀNIC ' الْحَزْنُ ' I-ḥAZANA' WORDS IN SURRAH: القصص, AL-QASAS, VERSE 8

Type	Semantic translation			Literal translation		
	High	Average	Low	High	Average	Low
Translation No.						
Trans. 1 a source of grief	+					
Trans. 2 a (cause of) grief	+					
Trans. 3 a sorrow					+	

To conclude, the additions between parentheses (cause of) done by Khan and Al-Hilali which are missing in Abdelhaleem's and Pickthall's translation and which serve as interpretations of the Qur'ānic ' grief الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' words, such as 'sorrow'. Khan and Al-Hilali also utilized the additions between brackets to give further clarification of the Arabic Qur'ān-specific lexis, ' I-ḥazana' grief, to explicate the Islamic lexicon, or to focus attention on differences between the Islamic religion and other religions. Khan and Al-Hilali also utilized the additions translation strategy to maintain the cultural load of the Qur'ānic ' الْحَزْنُ I-ḥazana' word as well. Additional translation strategy between brackets is extremely valuable and useful to the language recipient and creates an intensity in their renditions besides giving a true sense of the intended meaning of the Qur'ānic message. Pickthall, and Abdelhaleem, on the other hand, directly rendered it as a sorrow' and a source of grief', respectively.

Example Three

Source Surrah: يوسف, Yusuf /Joseph/, verse 86,

ST قَالَ إِنَّمَا أَشْكُو بَثِّي وَحُزْنِي إِلَى اللَّهِ وَأَعْلَمُ مِنَ اللَّهِ مَا لَا تَعْلَمُونَ (يوسف: 86)

Target Text:

- (1) **Abdelhaleem:** "He said, 'I plead my grief and sorrow before God. I have knowledge from God that you do not have", (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 240).
- (2) **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "He said: "I only complain of my grief and sorrow to Allah, and I know from Allah that which you know not " (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 315).
- (3) **Pickthall:** "He said: I expose my distress and anguish only unto Allah, and I know from Allah that which ye know not" (Pickthall, 2001, p. 180).

1. The Analysis

The General Intended Meaning of the Ayah

He said: "I only complain of my grief and sorrow to Allah," i.e., he (peace be upon him) answer them." It is only "to Allah" that I complain about my sorrow and grief, and that "I know from Allah that which you know not" i.e., from Allah, I await every type of goodness, or that the vision which was to Yusuf displayed in his childhood is truthful to the fact that Allah will set it to reality (Ibn Kathir, Vol. 2).

2. Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced when Translating the Qur'ānic Arabic

I-ḥazana' الحزن Words in Surrah يوسف, Yusuf /Joseph/, verse, 86

From the aforementioned translations, it is evident that Pickthall (1930) has rendered the Arabic Qur'ānic Sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word into 'anguish', which does not communicate the exact sense of the Arabic equivalent, which shows that renderings are not pertinent to the real explication of الحزن I-ḥazana' as in Tafsir Ibn Kathir (2002) and Al-Jalalayn (2007) which indicate the meaning of الحزن I-ḥazana' referring to "sorrow" not "anguish" which carries a different meaning. Hence, his rendering is completely out of context and does not capture the true meaning of the word الحزن I-ḥazana'. He used literal translation to translate the meaning of this lexis. Thus, his literal rendition does not convey the essential meaning of the word الحزن I-ḥazana' which, in this cultural context, means sorrow or grief, not anguish). Hence, Pickthall's literal translation is quite poor (see Table 3).

In this context, the 'sorrow' used by both Abdelhaleem (2004) and Khan and Al-Hilali (1996) may be the most appropriate equivalent of the Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word. They align with the general purpose of the Holy Qur'an, and most of the exegeses such as Al-Jalalayn (2007) and Al-Tabari (1981), to name just two, who alluded to the fact that the Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word implies, in its linguistic and cultural context in the above-mentioned ayah, the meaning of sorrow or grief. Abdelhaleem and Khan and Al-Hilali's rendering of this Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word are adequate because some of the exegeses of the Holy Qur'an stated that the word sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' in this ayah means sorrow or grief.

To approximate the meaning of the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ' in the Surat Yusuf /Joseph, ayah (86) Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali utilized the semantic translation method which has a high level of accuracy, whereas Pickthall utilized literal translations method which produced a poorer translation as shown in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
TRANSLATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED WHEN TRANSLATING THE QUR'ĀNIC 'الحزن' L-ḥAZANA' WORDS IN SURRAH, YUSUF /JOSEPH/, VERSE, 86

Type Translation No.	Semantic translation			Literal translation		
	High	Average	Low	High	Average	Low
Trans. 1 sorrow	+					
Trans. 2 sorrow	+					
Trans. 3 anguish						+

To conclude, linguistically speaking, Abdelhaleem and Khan, and Al-Hilali's renderings seem to be more faithful while Pickthall's rendering appears to be weaker linguistically. This reveals that, consistently, the three translators encounter linguistic problems when translating Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ' in the Surat Yusuf /Joseph, ayah (86). These underlying linguistic problems continue, and how does this Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ' affect the process of translating Arabic into English? To facilitate the process of analyzing the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ' in Surat Yusuf /Joseph, in their Qur'ānic context, the researchers recommend several books on translation theories along with Qur'ānic exegeses (tafsīr). Furthermore, the investigation found that Abdel-Haleem and Khan, and Al-Hilali as well as Pickthall, encountered many linguistic problems when translating the Holy Qur'an in general and the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ', in particular. The research found that these linguistic problems result from context-specific, linguistic factors which are significant and produce a target text (English) that lacks lexicalization.

Example Four

Source Surrah: التوبة, I-tawbah (The Repentance) verse 40.

ST إِذْ يَقُولُ لِصَاحِبِهِ لَا تَحْزَنْ إِنَّ اللَّهَ مَعَنَا (التوبة: 40)

Target Text:

- (1) **Abdelhaleem:** "When the two of them were in the cave, he [Muhammad] said to his companion, 'Do not worry, God is with us,'" (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 120).
- (2) **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "And he (P.B.U.H) said to his companion (Abu Bakr radhiallahu'anhu): 'Be not sad (or afraid)', surely Allah is with us" (Khan and Al-Hilali, p. 308).
- (3) **Pickthall:** "When he said unto his comrade: 'Grieve not. Lo! Allah is with us.'" (Pickthall, p. 177).

1. The Analysis

The General Intended Meaning of the Ayah

During the year of the Hijrah (migration from Makkah to Al- Madinah), when the polytheists tried to kill, imprison or expel him (PBUH), he (PBUH) escaped with his friend and companion, Abu Bakr Ibn Abi Quhafah. They took shelter in the cave of Thawr for three days until those who were sent in their pursuit, returned disappointed (to Makkah). The

Prophet (PBUH), accompanied by Abu Bakr, proceeded to Al-Madinah. All the while, Abu Bakr was terrified lest any of those who were in their pursuit should discover their place and some harm might touch the Messenger of Allāh (PBUH). The Prophet (PBUH) kept reassuring him and strengthening his resolve, saying: "O Abu Bakr What do you think about two, with Allāh as their third "Then Allāh sent down His Sakinah upon him" i.e. Allāh sent His support and triumph to His Messenger (PBUH), or they say it refers to Abu Bakr (Ibn Kathir, Vol. 2).

2. Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced in Translating the Qur'ānic Arabic I-ḥazana' الحزن Words in Surrah I-tawbah (The Repentance) verse 40

From the translations above, we note that Abdelhaleem (2004) adopted a free translation method which maintains that the difference between Arabic and English languages leads to different cultural connotations and forms of expression. When the form impedes the rendering, Abdelhaleem appears to favor the free translation method when translating the Holy Qur'ān in general and the Arabic Qur'ānic Sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' in particular. Thereby, he maintained the richness and accuracy of the rendition at the expense of the form of the Arabic Qur'ānic language. He produced an appropriate rendering of the Arabic Qur'ānic Sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word that conveyed its true sense accurately. Abdel-Haleem rendered the Arabic Qur'ānic Sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' into "Do not worry" which indicated his renderings are close to the real interpretation of الحزن I-ḥazana' of Tafsir Ibn Kathir (2002) and Al-Jalalayn (2007) which suggest the meaning of (الحزن I-ḥazana') is "sorrow" or "worry". Hence, his rendering is acceptable and captures the true meaning of the word (الحزن I-ḥazana'). Abdelhaleem's utilization of free translation conveyed the inherent meaning of the word (الحزن I-ḥazana') which, in this cultural context, implies worry. The amount of Abdelhaleem's free translation is high (see Table 4).

In this connection, the two renditions produced by Khan and Al-Hilali (1996) and Pickthall of the Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' words are "Be not sad" and "Grieve not", respectively, possibly the most appropriate equivalent of the Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word in Surah I-tawbah (The Repentance) verse 40. They are found in a considerable number of exegeses including those of Al-Jalalayn (2007), and Al-Tabari (1981; to cite but a few) who suggested that the Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word indicates, in its linguistic and cultural context the meaning of sadness or grief. Pickthall's and Khan and Al-Hilali's rendering of this Arabic Qur'ānic sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' word are appropriate because some of the exegeses of the Holy Qur'ān such as those of Al-Jalalayn (2007) and Al-Tabari (1981) specified that the word sorrow' الحزن I-ḥazana' in this ayah means 'sadness' or 'grief'.

To approximate the meaning of the Arabic Qur'ānic-specific lexis, 'I-ḥazana' الحزن ' in the in Surrah I-tawbah (The Repentance, verse 40) Khan and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall, adopted the semantic translation method to a great extent (see Table 4).

TABLE 4
TRANSLATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED WHEN TRANSLATING THE QUR'ĀNIC 'الحزن' L-ḤAZANA' WORDS IN SURAH L-TAWBAH (THE REPENTANCE) VERSE 40

Type Translation No.	Semantic translation			Free translation		
	High	Average	Low	High	Average	Low
Trans. 1 Do not worry				+		
Trans. 2 Be not sad (or afraid)	+					
Trans. 3 Grieve not	+					

As seen from Table 4, the three translators express the true meaning of the Qur'ānic 'الحزن' I-ḥazana' words in Surah I-tawbah (The Repentance) verse 40 which means 'worry, sadness, fear, grief' based on exegeses of the Holy Qur'ān such as those of Al-Jalalayn (2007) and Al-Tabari (1981).

To conclude, the Qur'ānic translator must be aware of and understand the uniqueness of many Qur'ānic words to produce better translations of their intended meanings for the target readers and language recipients.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the underlying linguistic problems experienced by the Qur'ānic translator when translating the Qur'ānic grief الحزن I-ḥazana' words into English are a result of the linguistic gap arising from the cultural disparities between the source language text (Arabic) and target language text (English). Hence, a loss of meaning would be inevitable when translating the Holy Qur'ān into English in general and Qur'ānic الحزن I-ḥazana' words in particular. The issues analyzed in this investigation demonstrate the loss of meaning in rendering Arabic Qur'ānic الحزن I-ḥazana' words into English at linguistic words levels. The linguistic obstacles that arise when translating these Arabic Qur'ān terms stem from the cultural referencing that causes the discrepancies that are evident in the translations. Hence, translators need to consider the cultural aspects to capture the uniqueness which characterizes the religion of Islam. In general, the loss of meaning that occurs when translating the Holy Qur'ān into English is inevitable, particularly when it comes to Qur'ānic grief الحزن I-ḥazana' words. Qur'ānic translators like Khan and Al-Hilali utilized free translation and semantic strategies that are extremely useful to the language recipient, and strengthen their renderings of Qur'ānic grief الحزن I-ḥazana' words as well as giving a true sense of the intended meaning of the Qur'ān message. The findings of the

study indicated that rendering grief الحَزَن l-ḥazana' words in a sacred text like the Holy Qur'ān is even more strenuous and challenging than rendering الحَزَن l-ḥazana' words in other literary genres because the religious and sacred genre, to which the Holy Qur'ān belongs, has more contextual meaning and therefore such expressions cannot be fully and accurately rendered.

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Positive Politeness Strategies Employed by Jordanian Facebook Users: A Case From Comments on the Roya News Facebook Page

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Abstract—The present study aims to investigate positive politeness strategies used by Jordanian males and females through their Facebook comments on the Roya news page. It further aims to explore the effects of gender and news topics on the use of these strategies. Analysis of 389 comments is drawn - in light of Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory. The results reveal a better understanding of the use of positive politeness strategies by Jordanians in their Facebook comments on four news topics: education, crime, economy, and weather. Further, gender seems to affect the way Jordanians use politeness strategies in their online comments. For instance, a statistically significant correlation between gender and strategy type shows that the most frequently used strategy by Jordanian males is asserting common ground while their female counterparts tend to use joking as their predominant strategy. The news topic appears not to affect the use of politeness strategies by both genders.

Index Terms—comments, gender, Jordanian, news topic, politeness strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, individuals have been engaged in online discourse on various media platforms and web pages, such as news-themed pages on the social network website Facebook. Comments on such pages display messages of communication and denote degrees of politeness. Therefore with access to this kind of information, researchers have recently been paying attention to these comments, as they represent a rich source for research in different fields of study, especially pragmatics (Bader & Obeidat, 2020; Hameed, 2020). Facebook has become the largest and the most popular social network site as it contains more than one billion users (Ellison et al., 2007). Facebook was introduced as one of the three types of the cyber community by Coley (2006), in which individuals have their profiles with their secure information - to make new friends and maintain old ones.

Yule (2006) defines politeness as a term describing our ideas about being tactful, modest and nice to other people, taking into consideration the "face" concept which is essential in linguistic politeness. "Face" refers to one's self-worth or self-image that an individual seeks to maintain or enhance, while avoiding being threatened or damaged (Abdul-Majeed, 2009). Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish two different aspects of face desires or wants; viz., positive face (the desire to be respected by others) and negative face (the desire to be unimpeded by others in one's action). To do so, a speaker implicates some degree of politeness. Politeness is of three main types: (a) positive politeness, (b) negative politeness, and (c) off-record politeness (ibid: 103-129).

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 101) define positive politeness as "redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/acquisitions/values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable". Positive politeness includes strategies used to preserve the positive face of the hearer, and it can be fulfilled

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through using three main strategies: claiming common ground, conveying that speaker (S) and hearer (H) are trying to be cooperative, and fulfilling the hearer's wants (See Brown and Levinson, 1987 for more information).

These strategies are utilized by the speaker to indicate closeness to the hearer and to show that they both have common ground; the strategies can be achieved by the use of the following 15 sub-strategies (adapted from Brown and Levinson, 1987):

1. Noticing, and attending to the hearer (his wants, interests, needs, goods)
2. Exaggerating (interests, approval, sympathy with hearer)
3. Intensifying interest toward hearer
4. Usage of group identity markers
5. Avoiding disagreement
6. Presuppose/assert/common ground
7. Seeking agreement
8. Joking
9. Asserting knowledge of the hearer's wants
10. Offer/promise
11. Being optimistic
12. Including speaker and hearer in the activity
13. Give/ask for a reason
14. Assume/assert reciprocity
15. Giving gifts to the hearer

A. *Roya TV Channel*

Roya is a Jordanian TV channel that has an official news page on Facebook "Roya" <https://web.facebook.com/Royatv/>. This page is concerned with posting news on different topics related to Jordanian concerns e.g. entertainment, politics, education, society, etc. It is one of the most popular news pages followed by Jordanians (around 9.4 followers) and one of the most credible news sources in Jordan.

B. *Research Objectives and Questions*

A descriptive qualitative and quantitative research design is used to investigate the positive politeness strategies employed by Jordanian male and female Facebook users on news related to four different topics based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. It also aims to investigate the potential effects of gender and news topics on using such strategies in the online comments. Therefore, the present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequently positive politeness strategies used by Jordanian male and female Facebook users in their comments on each news topic?
2. What are the most frequently positive politeness strategies used by Jordanian male and female Facebook users in their comments on all news topics?
3. What are the most frequently positive politeness strategies used by Jordanian Facebook users in their online comments regardless of the news topic and gender?
4. What are the potential correlations between the news topic, gender, and strategy type in the use of the positive politeness strategies by Jordanian Facebook users?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Facebook comments provide researchers with a rich source for qualitative data on online interactions. Among online communities, it has been argued that Facebook is the most commonly used social network site. Therefore, Facebook comments have been investigated from different perspectives, such as online language use and patterns (Stapa & Shaari, 2012), pragmatic studies on positive and negative politeness strategies (Noor, 2013; Zarei, 2013; Rosyidah & Sofwan, 2017; Salman et al., 2022), language strategies for offering condolences (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013; Kuang & Hei, 2017; Al-Manduriy, 2021; Hamdan & Al-Sayyed, 2021; Bayo, 2021), and the effects of gender on the language use of Facebook comments (Nazir, 2012; Al Sad, 2021; Lai et al., 2015; Al-Sadi & Yunus, 2020; Alshakhanbeh & Alghazo, 2022).

Stapa and Shaari (2012) investigated the language features and patterns of online communicative language used by young Malaysian users of Facebook. The study showed that language usage was seen as an ongoing process, and the development of language use was described as unpredictable. Regarding gender, Nazir (2012) examined similarities and differences in using Facebook - among males and females. In his analysis, Nazir explored the language choice of both genders. The results showed that females were polite in using Facebook to keep their existing relationships. However, males use Facebook to look for new relationships. As for the politeness strategies used in online discourse, Noor (2013) pointed out that positive and negative politeness strategies were used in conversations on the internet, particularly chatting on Facebook. His discussion showed that language styles used in this type of chatting are related to knowing a politeness strategy.

Furthermore, Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) investigated Facebook's comments of Jordanian Arabic-speaking users on condolences statuses, in particular, an obituary status for the commentary of a deceased contemporary Jordanian actor. The findings revealed that the comments referred to seven major strategies employed by Jordanian Facebook users: reciting Qur'anic verses, praying for God's mercy and forgiveness for the deceased, offering condolences, and using proverbs and sayings, among others. They further suggested that these strategies were of religious orientation and that most comments of condolence were attributed to faith and religious beliefs. Another study of politeness, which explored the effects of social factors on acquiring politeness, was carried out by Zarei (2013) who investigated the effect of gender on applying politeness strategies in computer-mediated discourse. The results showed discrepancies between males and females in applying politeness strategies. Regarding positive politeness, Zarei suggested that males used 'in-group identities' more than females to keep the conversation going on.

Further, Lai et al. (2015) explored politeness strategies employed by students in UiTM Kelantan on their Facebook wall posts. They also aimed to investigate the effect of gender on such posts and to find out any differences or similarities between the two genders' posts in terms of language patterns and politeness strategies. The study sample comprised 100 posts by male and female students enrolled in different diploma courses. The results showed that the students used different politeness strategies in their conversations on Facebook (e.g. bald-on record, positive politeness, negative politeness and of-record or indirectness). Moreover, the results showed that female students tended to be more polite in their conversation and thus used more positive politeness strategies than male students. The results also showed that female students were more conservative than male students in expressing their language. This was clear in their use of super-polite language, tag questions, honorific markers, frequent apologies, and indirect requests. However, the results demonstrated that in some contexts e.g. when the communication is about tasks, both male and female students employed similar politeness strategies, namely, bald-on record. Further, in their casual conversations, both genders tended to use negative politeness strategies.

Rosyidah and Sofwan (2017) analyzed the politeness strategies in the Facebook comments posted on three Facebook accounts (The Wall Street Journal, NBC, and CNN channels), regarding the visit of the president of the United States of America (Obama) to Hiroshima. The results revealed that among the positive politeness strategies used by Facebook users, the 'presuppose strategy' was the most frequently used one. In contrast, the least frequently used strategy was 'intensify interest'. Furthermore, the results showed that the highest percentages of the politeness strategies and scales were clear on CNN's Facebook account.

Most recently, Hamdan and Al-Sayyed (2021) explored nine strategies used by Jordanian Facebook users in their comments on the death anniversary of a former well-known Prime Minister Wasfi al-Tal. Examples of these strategies included praying for God's mercy while mentioning the unique and unforgettable virtues and situations of the deceased, praying for God's mercy with a wish to abide the deceased in paradise, praying for God's mercy and acknowledging the deceased as a martyr, and casting damnation for those who assassinated the deceased.

Furthermore, a very recent study, which tackled gender as a main variable in a pragmatic analysis of Facebook and Twitter posts by Jordanians, was conducted by Alshakhanbeh and Alghazo (2022). They analyzed the strategies of criticism Jordanian Facebook and Twitter users used in their comments on Jordanian Government policies. The pragmatic analysis was applied to around 300 posts, tweets, and comments posted by both genders. Their results revealed that Jordanians' most frequently used strategies were sarcasm, problem identification, complaining to Allah, and negative evaluation. The results also showed that there are gender differences in the use of criticism strategies. For instance, the most frequently used strategies by females were complaining to Allah and using pictures/emojis whereas males tended to use expressions of uncertainty and asserting or presupposing.

In sum, the review of the literature above has revealed different studies which tackled Facebook comments from different angles and topics. However, some of these studies have focused on only one topic while others have neglected the gender variable. The present study is different in that it aims to further investigate the use of positive politeness strategies by Jordanian males and females, following the online comments on the Facebook news page "Roya" in four different news topics. Moreover, it aims to determine the social effects or roles of gender, news topic, and strategy type, in the use of these strategies.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample of the Study

There are 389 comments collected from four different news posts on the official Facebook page of Roya News. The posts were on the following topics:

1. Education

ʁbeidat: maddit ʁalfalsafa qad tabnii ʁasʁana fii ʁaql ʁatʁʁalib mina ʁalʁishaʁa. dʁadal ʁawla ʁidxaal madat ʁalfalsafa filmanaahidʁ, (English Translation: Philosophy would protect students' minds from frivolous distractions. A debate considering the addition of Philosophy in the Jordanian school curriculum).

https://fb.watch/fw2iByY_K5/

<https://fb.watch/fw23RKGv7F/>

2. Crime

shaxs^f jut^fliq [?]annar [?]alaa [?]fattaah [?]fii [?]ihda [?]aldzaami^fat al[?]urdunija. [?]al[?]amin: [?]halit [?]alfatah [?]sajji[?]a [?]wamut^fliq [?]annar [?]laa [?]ð [?]bifaraar, (English Translation: A girl was shot in one of the Jordanian Universities. The security: The girl's health condition is critical and the shooter escaped).

<https://www.facebook.com/RoyaNews/photos/a.133542563384970/7968865946519220/?type=3>

3. Economy

[?]al[?]hukuuma: [?]irtifaa^f [?]si^fr [?]albanziin [?]binaw[?]aih [?]saalamijjan, (English Translation: The government: An international increase in the price of petrol).

<https://www.facebook.com/132254670180426/posts/7921106317961850/?d=n>

(4) Weather

[?]al[?]udun [?]ma^f [?]maw^fid [?]ma^f [?]darad[?]aat [?]haraara [?]tulaamis [?]al[?]arbi^fiin, (English Translation: Jordan expects the weather temperature to reach 40 degrees Celcius).

<https://www.facebook.com/132254670180426/posts/7934316249974190/?d=n>

The Facebook comments by Jordanian females and males on each of these topics were collected. Specifically, the researchers collected 50 comments written by Jordanian males and 50 comments written by Jordanian females for each of these topics except for the economic topic where the comments were 50 and 39 by Jordanian males and females, respectively (i.e., a total of 389 comments for all topics). The comments were selected randomly. That is, the first 50 comments that appeared on the comments' list posted by males and females were selected. The unrelated comments were excluded and replaced by other related ones. The researchers checked the accounts of the user of each comment to make sure that they are not fake accounts. This was done easily by checking the personal information, including the name, the profile picture, the number of friends, and the activity log because fake accounts do not usually include personal information or a profile picture of their users. These fake accounts are usually suspicious and can be noticed easily.

B. Data Analysis

This study is a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The data were analyzed based on Levinson and Brown's (1987) theory. The researchers first classified the comments posted by both Jordanian males and females under the 15 strategies and then calculated the numbers and percentages of each of these strategies for each news topic. It is worth noting that to classify the comments under the examined strategies, the data was divided equally by the researchers. To verify the reliability of the classifications of the data, the comments were given to two Arabic-speaking linguists to classify them. After that, the inter-rater reliability of the data analysis provided by the researchers and the two helpful linguists was calculated and it was 85 percent. Data analysis also involved inferential statistics (i.e., chi-square test) to find whether there were any statistically significant effects or interactions of gender, news topic, and strategy type on the use of the positive politeness strategies. The qualitative method included the discussion and the analysis of the data in relation to the positive politeness strategies employed by both male and female Jordanians, to understand the social relations and closeness among Jordanians and to describe the pragmatic strategies used by Jordanians to minimize the threat to their interlocutors and to strengthen the solidarity and their belonging to a particular group.

IV. RESULTS

This section aims to present the tabulated data collected from the official page of Roya News as follows: first, it describes the results of the distribution of the comments posted by male and female Jordanian Facebook users on each news topic (education, crime, economy, and weather). Then, it shows the results of the distribution of the comments for each positive politeness strategy posted by male and female Jordanian Facebook users regardless of the news topic. After that, it provides the results of the distribution of the comments for positive politeness strategies regardless of news topic and gender. Finally, it presents the potentially statistically significant correlations among the study variables (gender, news topic, and strategy type).

Table 1 displays the numbers and percentages of the comments posted by Jordanian males and females for the news topic related to education for each positive politeness strategy.

TABLE 1
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMMENTS POSTED BY JORDANIAN MALES AND FEMALES FOR THE NEWS TOPIC OF EDUCATION FOR EACH POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGY

Number	Strategy Type	Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	1	1	1	1
2	Exaggerating interests	0	0	0	0
3	Intensifying interest	4	8	5	10
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	0	0	2	4
5	Seeking agreement	0	0	1	1
6	Avoiding disagreement	0	0	2	4
7	Asserting common ground	11	22	3	6
8	Joking	0	0	11	22
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	6	12	2	4
10	Offer/promise	8	16	5	10
11	Being optimistic	0	0	0	0
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	4	8	7	14
13	Giving/asking for a reason	0	0	2	4
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	11	22	5	10
15	Giving gifts to hearer	5	10	4	8
	Total	50	100	50	100

Table 1 reveals that the highest numbers and percentages of the use of the positive politeness strategies for the topic of education by Jordanian males are for both asserting common ground and asserting reciprocity (n=11;22%) followed by making offers (n=8; 16%) and asserting knowledge of hearer's wants (n=6;12%). However, the lowest numbers and percentages are for noticing/attending to hearer's wants (n=1; 1%), including speaker and hearer in the activity and intensifying interest (n=4; 8%), and giving gifts to the hearer (n=5; 10%). Table 1 indicates that none of the Jordanian males used the strategies of exaggerating interests, using in-group markers, seeking agreement, avoiding disagreement, joking, being optimistic, and giving or asking for a reason.

On the other hand, the table shows that the highest numbers and percentages of the use of the positive politeness strategies for the topic of education by Jordanian females are for joking (n=11; 22%), then including speaker and hearer in the activity (n=7; 14%), followed equally by intensifying interest, offering and assuming/asserting reciprocity strategies (n=5; 10%). However, the lowest numbers and percentages are noticing/attending to hearer's wants and seeking agreement (n=1; 1%), followed equally by using in-group identity markers, avoiding disagreement, asserting knowledge of hearer's wants, and asking or giving a reason (n=2; 4%), then asserting common ground (n=3; 6%) and finally giving gifts to hearer (n=4; 8%). Table 1 also shows that none of the Jordanian females, similar to Jordanian males, used the strategies of exaggerating interests and being optimistic.

Table 2 shows the numbers and percentages of the comments posted by Jordanian males and females for the news topic related to the crime topic for each positive politeness strategy.

TABLE 2
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMMENTS POSTED BY JORDANIAN MALES AND FEMALES FOR THE NEWS TOPIC OF CRIME FOR EACH POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGY

Number	Strategy Type	Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	0	0	0	0
2	Exaggerating interests	0	0	0	0
3	Intensifying interest	4	8	7	14
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	0	0	0	0
5	Seeking agreement	0	0	0	0
6	Avoiding disagreement	1	1	6	12
7	Asserting common ground	3	6	0	0
8	Joking	7	14	11	22
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	3	6	0	0
10	Offer/promise	7	14	4	8
11	Being optimistic	0	0	0	0
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	2	4	3	6
13	Giving/asking for a reason	17	34	15	30
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	3	6	0	0
15	Giving gifts to hearer	3	6	4	8
	Total	50	100	50	100

Table 2 demonstrates that the highest numbers and percentages of the use of the positive politeness strategies for the topic of crime by Jordanian males are for giving reasons (n=17; 34), followed equally by joking and making offers (n=7; 14%). The lowest numbers and percentages are for avoiding disagreement (n=1; 1%), including speaker and hearer in the activity (n=2; 4%), giving gifts to hearers, asserting common ground, asserting knowledge of hearers wants, asserting reciprocity (3; 6%) and intensifying interest (4; 8%). However, noticing/attending to hearer's wants,

exaggerating interest, using in-group identity markers, seeking agreement, and being optimistic had no comments by the Jordanian males.

On the other hand, Table 2 shows that the highest numbers and percentages of the comments posted by Jordanian females on the news topic of crime are for the strategy of giving reasons (n=15; 30%), then joking (n=11; 22%) followed by intensify interest (n=7; 14%) and finally avoiding disagreement (n=6; 12%). The lowest numbers and percentages are for including the speaker and the hearer in the activity (n=3; 6%) and then offering and giving gifts to hearer (n=4; 8%). However, the Jordanian females had no comments on some strategies, such as noticing/attending to hearer's wants, exaggerating interest, using in-group identity markers, seeking agreement, asserting common ground, asserting knowledge of hearer's wants, being optimistic, and asserting reciprocity.

Table 3 shows the numbers and percentages of the comments posted by Jordanian males and females for the news topic related to economy for each positive politeness strategy.

TABLE 3
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMMENTS POSTED BY JORDANIAN MALES AND FEMALES FOR THE NEWS TOPIC OF ECONOMY FOR EACH POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGY

Number	Strategy type	Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	2	4	3	6
2	Exaggerating interests	5	10	11	22
3	Intensifying interest	0	0	0	0
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	0	0	2	4
5	Seeking agreement	6	12	1	1
6	Avoiding disagreement	2	4	3	6
7	Asserting common ground	6	12	2	4
8	Joking	7	14	2	4
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	2	4	0	0
10	Offer/promise	5	10	2	4
11	Being optimistic	2	4	0	0
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	3	6	6	12
13	Giving/asking for a reason	1	1	1	1
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	7	14	5	10
15	Giving gifts to hearer	3	6	1	.05
	Total	50	100	39	78

Table 3 reveals that the highest numbers and percentages of the use of the positive politeness strategies in the comments on the topic of economy by Jordanian males are for joking and asserting reciprocity (n=7; 14%), seeking agreement and asserting common ground strategies (n=6; 12%), and offering and exaggerating interest strategies (n=5;10%). On the other hand, the lowest numbers and percentages are for giving a reason (n=1; 1%), noticing/attending to hearer's wants, being optimistic, avoiding disagreement, asserting knowledge of hearer's wants (n=2; 4%), including speaker and hearer, and giving gifts to hearer strategies (n=3; 6%). However, the strategies of intensifying interest and using in-group identity markers were not used.

In contrast, Table 3 indicates that Jordanian females used the strategy of exaggerating interest most frequently (n=11; 22%), then including speaker and hearer in the activity (n=6; 12%) followed by the strategy of asserting reciprocity (n=5; 10%). However, the least frequently used strategies are giving or asking for a reason, giving gifts to hearer, and seeking agreement (n=1; 1), followed by using in-group identity markers, asserting common ground, joking, making offers (n=2; 4%), noticing/attending to hearer's wants, and avoiding disagreement (n=3; 6%). Table 3 also shows that females did not use the strategies of intensifying interest, asserting knowledge of hearer's wants, and being optimistic in their comments on the economy.

Table 4 shows the numbers and percentages of the comments posted by Jordanian males and females for the news topic related to weather for each positive politeness strategy.

TABLE 4
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMMENTS POSTED BY JORDANIAN MALES AND FEMALES FOR THE NEWS TOPIC OF WEATHER FOR EACH POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGY

Number	Strategy Type	Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	6	12	5	10
2	Exaggerating interests	4	8	5	10
3	Intensifying interest	0	0	0	0
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	1	1	0	0
5	Seeking agreement	0	0	0	0
6	Avoiding disagreement	6	12	9	18
7	Asserting common ground	2	4	3	6
8	Joking	7	14	7	14
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	0	0	0	0
10	Offer/promise	0	0	0	0
11	Being optimistic	17	34	16	32
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	5	10	2	4
13	Giving/asking for a reason	0	0	1	1
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	1	1	2	4
15	Giving gifts to hearer	1	1	0	0
	Total	50	100	50	100

Table 4 shows that the most frequently used positive politeness strategies by Jordanian males for the topic of weather are being optimistic (n=17; 22%), joking (n=7; 14%), noticing/attending to hearer's wants and avoiding disagreement (n=6; 12%), and including speaker and hearer in the activity (n=5; 10%). However, the least frequently used strategies are those of using in-group identity markers (n=1; 1%), asserting reciprocity (n=1; 1%), and giving gifts to the hearer (n=1; 1%), asserting common ground (2; 4%), and exaggerating interest (n=4; 8%). Table 4 also shows no comments on the strategies of making offers, intensifying interest, asserting knowledge of the hearer's wants, giving or asking for a reason, and seeking agreement.

On the other hand, Table 4 indicates that the most frequently used positive politeness strategies by females for the topic of weather are being optimistic (n=16; 32%), avoiding disagreement (n=9; 18%), joking (n=7; 14%), and noticing/attending to hearer's wants and exaggerating interest (n=5; 10%). In contrast, the least frequently used strategy is giving or asking for a reason (n=1; 1%), asserting reciprocity and including speaker and hearer in the activity (2; 4%), and asserting common ground (n=3; 6%). Table 4 also shows that the strategies of intensifying interest, seeking agreement, using in-group identity markers, asserting knowledge of hearer's wants, making offers, and giving or asking for a reason had no comments.

Table 5 presents the overall numbers and percentages of the comments posted by both male and female Jordanian Facebook users for each positive politeness strategy for all topics.

TABLE 5
OVERALL NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMMENTS POSTED BY BOTH MALE AND FEMALES JORDANIAN FACEBOOK USERS FOR EACH POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGIES REGARDLESS OF NEWS TOPICS

Number	Strategy Type	No.	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	18	4.6
2	Exaggerating interests	25	6.4
3	Intensifying interest	22	5.7
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	5	1.3
5	Seeking agreement	8	2.1
6	Avoiding disagreement	29	7.5
7	Asserting common ground	30	7.7
8	Joking	51	13.1
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	13	3.3
10	Offer/promise	31	8.0
11	Being optimistic	35	9.0
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	32	8.2
13	Giving/asking for a reason	37	9.5
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	32	8.2
15	Giving gifts to hearer	21	5.4
	Total	389	100

Table 5 reveals that the most frequently used positive politeness strategies by both genders for all topics are joking (n=51; 13.1%), asking or giving a reason (n=37; 9.5%), being optimistic (n=35; 9%), including speaker and hearer in the activity and assuming reciprocity (n=32; 8.2%), making offers/promises (n=31; 8%), and asserting common ground (n=30; 7.7%). The table also reveals that the least frequently used positive politeness strategy in the output of both genders for all topics are using in-group identity markers (n=5; 1.3%), seeking agreement (n=8; 2.1%), asserting knowledge of hearer's wants (n=13; 3.3%), noticing/attending to hearer's wants (n=18; 4.6%), giving gifts to hearer (n=21; 5.4%), intensifying interest (n=22; 5.7%), exaggerating interest (n=25; 6.4%), and avoiding disagreement (n=29; 7.5%), respectively.

To explore the possible correlation between gender and news topic, Table 6 presents the overall numbers and percentages of the positive politeness strategies employed by male and female Jordanians in each news topic.

TABLE 6
OVERALL NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE POSITIVE POLITENESS STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY MALE AND FEMALE JORDANIANS IN EACH NEWS TOPIC

Number	News Topic	Male		Female		Total percentages for both gender
		N	%	N	%	
1	Education	50	12.9	50	12.9	25.71
2	Crime	50	12.9	50	12.9	25.71
3	Economy	50	12.9	39	10.00	22.88
4	Weather	50	12.9	50	12.9	25.71
Total		200	51.4	189	48.6	100%

Table 6 shows that male and female Jordanian Facebook users employ equal numbers and percentages of positive politeness strategies in three news topics: education, crime, and weather. However, males show higher numbers and percentages of positive politeness strategies than females in the news topic of economy. Based on the data in Table 6, a chi-square test was conducted to test whether there are any statistically significant correlations in the overall use of the positive politeness strategies between gender and news topic. Table 7 shows the chi-square test results regarding the interaction between gender and news topic.

TABLE 7
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN GENDER AND NEWS TOPIC

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.049 ^a	3	.789
N of Valid Cases	389		non-sig

*sig= p≤ 0.05

Table 7 reveals that there are not any statistically significant correlations in the use of the positive politeness strategies between gender and news topic i.e. the chi-square value is (1.049^a) and the p value = (0.789) i.e. $P > \alpha = 0.05$. This means that both genders show similar behavior in the use of the positive politeness strategies in relation to the topic of news.

To investigate the correlation between gender and strategy type, Table 8 presents the overall numbers and percentages of the use of each politeness strategy for male and female Jordanian Facebook users regardless of the news topic.

TABLE 8
OVERALL NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THE USE OF EACH POLITENESS STRATEGY BY MALE AND FEMALE JORDANIANS FACEBOOK USERS REGARDLESS OF THE NEWS TOPIC

Number	Strategy Type	Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
1	Noticing/attending to hearer's wants	9	2.3	9	2.3
2	Exaggerating interests	9	2.3	16	4.1
3	Intensifying interest	10	2.6	12	3.1
4	Usage of in-group identity markers	1	0.3	4	1.0
5	Seeking agreement	6	1.5	2	0.5
6	Avoiding disagreement	9	2.3	20	5.1
7	Asserting common ground	22	5.7	8	2.1
8	Joking	20	5.1	31	8.0
9	Asserting knowledge of hearer's wants	11	2.8	2	1.0
10	Offer/promise	20	5.1	11	2.8
11	Being optimistic	19	4.9	16	4.1
12	Including speaker and hearer in the activity	14	3.6	18	4.6
13	Giving/asking for a reason	18	4.8	19	4.9
14	Assuming/asserting reciprocity	20	5.1	12	3.1
15	Giving gifts to hearer	12	3.1	9	2.3
Total		200	51.4	189	48.6

Table 8 demonstrates that Jordanian male and female Facebook users show different pragmatic behaviors in the use of the positive politeness strategies in their online comments on all news topics. For instance, the most frequently used positive politeness strategy among males is asserting common ground (n=22; 5.7%), and the least frequently used one is using in-group identity markers (n=1; 0.3%). The table also reveals that the most commonly used positive politeness strategy among females is joking (n= 31; 8%), and the least frequently used ones are seeking agreement and asserting knowledge of hearer's wants (n=2; 0.5%).

Based on the data in Table 8, a chi-square test was run to test whether there are statistically significant correlations between the type of the politeness strategy and gender. Table 9 shows the chi-square test results.

TABLE 9
RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR THE CORRELATION BETWEEN GENDER AND STRATEGY TYPE

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30.790 ^a	14	.006
N of Valid Cases	389		sig

*sig= $p \leq 0.05$

Table 9 indicates that there are statistically significant correlations between the type of strategy used and the gender of the Facebook user i.e., the chi-square value is (30.790^a), and the p-value is = (0.006) i.e., $P < 0.05$. This means that gender affects the type of the strategy used by Facebook users, and thus it can be concluded that the strategy type is gender-specific even in online communications.

V. DISCUSSION

The current study aims to investigate the positive politeness strategies employed by Jordanian Facebook users of both genders in their online comments on the Roya news page. It also seeks to explore the effects of gender, news topic, and strategy type on the use of the positive politeness strategies. 389 Facebook comments were collected from four news topics: education, crime, economy, and weather. The results demonstrated that males and females showed differences and similarities in the use of the positive politeness strategies, when discussing the four topics.

To begin with, males and females showed some differences in the type of strategy used for the education news topic, concerning introducing a new school subject (Philosophy) to the Jordanian school curriculum, and an expert in education stated that introducing this subject would protect students' minds from frivolous distractions (e.g., circulating rumours). Examining comments on such an educational topic revealed that the most frequently used strategies by males were asserting common ground (see (1) and (2) below) and asserting reciprocity (see (3) and (4)):

1. naṣam kanat madit ʔalfalsafa tuddarras fii muqararaat lilfiriṣ ʔilʔadabii fii ʕaam1997; English translation: Yes, philosophy used to be taught for the Literary Stream in 1997.

2. ʔalfalsafa hija ʔalbaḥaḥ ʕan ʔalhaqiiqa wa hija madaaris w maḍahib mutaṣaddida; English translation: Philosophy is seeking the truth and has different schools of thought.

3. muṣkiltak yaa ʔustaaḍ tutʕaalib bilhiwaar wa taqabbul ʔlraʔii ʔalʔaaxar walaakinnaka laa tuḥaawir wala taqbal bilfikr ʔalʔislaamii ʔalmultazim; English translation: You call for dialogue and accepting others' opinions, but you neither engage in dialogue nor accept religious ideas.

4. ʔalquraan fuu wadʕu biqawaaniin wazarat ʔattarbija wattaṣliim; English translation: Where does the Holy Qur'an stand in the Ministry of Education's charter?

On the other hand, the data revealed that the least frequently used strategy by Jordanian males was attending to hearer's wants, as shown in (5) below:

5. maddit ʔalfalsafa madda tuddaras baṣda tadriis ʕuluuum ʔalṣaqiida watawḥiid walfizjaa? liʔannah maadda taquud ʔila ʔattaṣkiik bilmusallamaat; English translation: Philosophy should never be taught before teaching the sciences of belief, monotheism, and physics because it is a subject that leads to questioning established norms!

In contrast, the most frequently used strategy by females for the same topic was joking (see (6-7) below), followed by including speaker and hearer in the activity (8-9):

6. xaliiha hiṣʕa taasʕa; English translation: Let it be the ninth class! (note: a typical school day consists of less than 9 classes).

7. bilʔaxir muṣallim ʔirjaadʕa raḥ jidarrisha; English Translation: At the end of the day, the teacher of physical education (PE) will teach it!

8. tʕulaabna maa bidhum falsafa; English translation: our students do not want the Philosophy subject to be included!

9. miṣ nagisʕna yiir kamaan minhaadʕ; English translation: We do not want extra subjects.

However, similar to Jordanian males, the least frequent strategy used by females was attending to hearer's wants (see 10):

10. lilʔasaf ʔilmaada ʔattarbawijja qaaṣima ʔalaa ʔattalqiin duun ʔitaahit ʔalfursʕa lilʔidʕtihaad ʔa ḍhnii wattafkiir walʔistinbaatʕ; English translation: Unfortunately, the educational material is like spoon-feeding, i.e., it does not focus on mental effort, critical thinking, and deduction.

It is obvious that males and females employed different strategies to interact with an educational topic although both genders attempted to minimize the threat to the interlocutor's positive "face". According to what has been mentioned above, the findings revealed that males were more interactive, argumentative, and serious about this news topic. They also tried to assert and presuppose common knowledge and reciprocity with the hearer to explain the topic further. However, Jordanian females seemed less interested in such topics as they were much funnier and tried to deal with the topic using jokes. Using jokes might be a strategy that females resorted to in order to show that they are meek and less argumentative than males, which is in line with prior studies describing the same behavior of both genders (see Lakoff, 1973; Al-Shloul, 2016; Pakzadian & Tootkaboni, 2018).

Moving to the news topic of crime, we found that both genders shared the same most frequently used type of strategy in their comments which was giving or asking for a reason. The crime was about a university girl who was shot on the

university campus, and the shooter managed to escape for some time before being arrested. Examples of some of these comments by males (11-13) and females (14-16) are given below:

11. *ʔinnaha ʔalmuxaddaraat jaa saadah*; English translation: Sirs, it is drugs that might have caused such behavior!

12. *ha ʔhi natiidʒat ʔalwaastʔaat bitaʔjiin ridʒaal ʔalʔamin ʔaldʒaamiʔi*; English translation: This is the result of the nepotism in appointing university security men.

13. *ʔildʒahil wal buʔd ʔan ʔaddiin biʔmal ʔaktar min hejk*; English translation: Being ignorant and not following religious teachings (that prevent killing innocent people) might make people commit crimes!

14. *ʔindamaa yaaba ʔalqasʔaasʔ haanat ʔalʔarwaah*; English translation: When retribution disappeared, souls became worthless (in the eyes of criminals).

15. *keif laa ʔa bilfarrar minildʒaamʔa*; English translation: How did he manage to escape from the university and not get arrested immediately?

16. *ʔilsabab ʔilwaʔhiid bisʔaraaha ʔattahaawun bilʔahkaam dʔid ʔalmudʒrimiin*; English translation: Frankly speaking, the only reason is the leniency of court sentences against criminals.

In contrast, the least frequently used strategy which was used by males was different from that used by females. It was avoiding disagreement for males (see (17)) and including speaker and hearer in the activity for females (see (18)):

17. *Allah jiʔhaʔak jaa baladii*; English translation: May Allah protect my country!

18. *ʔihnaa ʔilbaʔar muxtaliin ʔaqlijjan jaʔni ʔilwaahad raah yutʔlub ʔilʔilim bilaagi haalu majjit*; English translation: We humans, are mentally disturbed. In other words, one goes to seek knowledge at the university and finds himself dead (note: this refers to the crime in which one student was at the university when killed by a criminal).

Using the strategy of asking for or giving a reason as the most frequently used strategy was somehow expected for a crime news topic. It is usual for people to ask for reasons that led to the crime. It is also normal that people strive to analyze the crime in order to find or to give reasons especially if such a crime becomes widely known (a public opinion). It is also expected that people work hard to give suggestions (i.e., offers) to prevent similar future crimes. One of the strategies used by both genders was making offers (see (19-20)):

19. *jadʒib fasʔil ʔatʔʔalibaat ʔan ʔatʔʔulaab*; English translation: Female students must be separated from the male students.

20. *laazim ʔahl ʔilbnt jitʔuxuu ʔiʔʔab ʔabaab ʔildʒaamʔa ʔaʔaan jisʔiir ʔibra lalkul*; English translation: The girl's family must shoot the young man at the university so that he becomes an/a example/lesson for all criminals!

On the other hand, males provided more positive politeness strategies than females in commenting on the topic of economy i.e., 50 vs. 39 comments, respectively (although this difference was not statistically significant). The topic was the apparent increase in the price of petrol in Jordan. This clear difference- in the number of comments- can be justified in relation to the differences in genders' interests. In Jordanian society, females tend not to be as interested in economic issues as their male counterparts and fewer females are drivers, making them less affected by oil prices. The data revealed that the males' most frequently used positive strategies were joking and asserting reciprocity, as in (21-22) below:

21. *fii hadaa maʔu raqam raʔiis kuria ʔiʔamalijji haab ʔahki maʔu bimadʔuuʔ beini w beinu*; English translation: Does anyone have the phone number of the President of North Korea, I want to talk to him personally about something?

22. *ʔirsuu ʔalaa bar gabil ʔwai qaraʔit ʔinnu inxaffadʔ hassa irtafaʔ*; English translation: Explain it clearly, I have just read that prices will go down, but now they have increased!

However, females' most frequently used strategy was exaggerating interest (see (23-26)):

23. *maa xaluu ʔiʔi marafaʔuuh!*; English translation: Everything has been increased

24. *hasbija allah waniʔma ʔalwakiil*; English translation: God is sufficient for us, and He's the Best Disposer of affairs!

25. *wallah haraam heik ktiir*; English translation: I swear, this is too much!

26. *huu maafi biqaamuus ʔilhukuumih yeir kilmit rafiʔ waʔirtifaaʔ*; English translation: The government's dictionary has no words other than 'increase' and 'raise' prices.

The data also showed that giving or asking for a reason is the least frequently used strategy by both genders (see 27-28):

27. *huu bas bilʔurdun birtafiʔ ʔaalamijan ʔamma bisʔiin wʔamriika binzal leshʔ*; English translation: It is only in Jordan, a global rise, but in China and America, why is it decreasing?

28. *tʔajjib maaʔi yilli ʔaalamijan leʔ ʔihnaa ʔaylaa dawli wadnaa murattbaat bilʔaalamʔ*; English translation: Ok, it is globally expensive. Why are we the most expensive country and with the lowest salaries in the world?

Commenting on weather conditions (i.e., the temperature increase reaching 40 in the summer days), both genders showed similarities in some strategies, such as being optimistic, joking, and avoiding disagreement. Examples from males' comments are in (29-31) and from females are in (32-34):

29. *ʔahlan wasahlan bisʔief*; English translation: Welcome summer!

30. *min kuour ʔiʔʔub wirtifaaʔ ʔilharaara balafit ʔafuk ʔinnu ʔilhukuumaa baaʔat ʔilyilaaf ʔildʒqwwi*; English translation: Due to high temperatures, I began to doubt that the government has sold the atmosphere.

31. *laa hawla walaa quwwa ʔilla billah*; English translation: There is no power but Allah.

32. *hiluu ktiir ʔahla minilbard*; English translation: Nicer than cold.

33. *Ṭalḥamdu Ṣalaa kulli Ṣajji?*; English translation: Thank Allah for everything.

34. *ḤilḶurdun juuṢamlīh bimasṢarḥaa laḥataa sṢaar finaa heik*; English translation: What did Jordan do in its early childhood until we became like this?

Using in-group identity markers, asserting reciprocity, and giving gifts to the hearer (see 35-37) were the least frequently used strategies by males - while giving or asking for a reason was the least frequently used one by females (38):

35. *Ṣizzalamīh jīṢlaṢ minīlbeit*. English translation: No one will dare leave home (because of the high temperature).

36. *bidkum truṢjuu yaazaat taṢmal Ṣalaa zijaadat dradṢaat ilḥaraara?* English translation: Do you want to spray gases that increase the temperature?

37. *maṢlla Ṷaleikum dajman sabbaṶiīn fīī naṢīr ḤilḶaxbar*; English translation: MashAllah, you are always in the lead in spreading the news, respectively.

38. *ṢaṢaan heik gatṢaṢu Ḥilkahrabba Ṣaleīnaa*; English translation: That's why they cut off the electricity.

It is worth noting that the similarities between the males and females in their use of positive politeness strategies may be attributed to the fact that weather is a neutral topic, and people know that no one controls it. Therefore, Jordanians tried to be as optimistic as they possibly can. Being optimistic might be considered one of the most efficient ways to get closer to the interlocutors, demonstrating positive hope which in turn helps to build trust between the writer and the reader of the post.

Despite the obvious differences that appeared in the use of the positive politeness strategies by males and females in their online Facebook comments on the different topics, they were not statistically significant in relation to the news topic. This might indicate that Jordanian Facebook users attempted, to a large extent, to minimize the apparent 'face' threat to their interlocutors and to please them regardless of the topic they commented on. However, the results showed that gender affected the type of strategy used. There was a statistically significant correlation between gender and the type of strategy used. The data revealed that Jordanian males mostly tended to use the strategy of asserting common ground, but it was joking in the case of Jordanian females. These findings might reveal the different social roles and interests of males and females in the Jordanian community. Males tended to be serious in their comments and thus attempted to avoid the threats to their interlocutors' positive face. This can be done through asserting and providing common ground knowledge that enriches their interlocutor's knowledge on the subject. On the other hand, Jordanian females tended to do so by using their sense of humor, which strengthened social relationships with their interlocutors. These gender differences may be attributed to the differences in the reasons behind using Facebook. Nazir (2012) indicated that males use Facebook to establish new social relations and to meet new people, however, females use it to preserve their existing relations, enjoy their time, and have fun.

The findings of the current study have confirmed the findings revealed in the previous literature that gender had an essential impact on the type of the positive politeness strategies used. Each gender employed its own strategies which were different from the other (cf. Nazir, 2012; Zarei, 2013; Lai et al., 2015; Alshakhanbeh & Alghazo, 2022). However, each of these studies showed different findings regarding the most frequent strategy used by each gender. This could be attributed to the differences in the online topics discussed in each study e.g. paying condolences, commenting on official government pages, political issues, etc. Interestingly, the findings of the current study might confirm the findings of Alshakhanbeh and Alghazo's (2022) - as both studies tried to provide a comprehensive picture of a pragmatic analysis of the Jordanian community. That is, generally speaking, Jordanians tended to use sense of humor (i.e. sarcasm and joking in Alshakhanbeh & Alghazo, 2022) and our study, respectively) to express their opinions or thoughts towards a particular topic. Furthermore, our findings seemed to be similar to Alshakhanbeh and Alghazo's (2022) in the use of the criticism strategy. The Jordanian males in the current study tended to employ the politeness strategy of asserting or supposing common ground as the most frequent strategy in their comments. These findings again seemed useful in drawing a comprehensive picture of the Jordanian community from a pragmatic perspective.

Unlike previous studies (e.g., Lakoff, 1973; Holmes, 2013), the current paper cannot provide any clear-cut evidence regarding which gender is considered more polite in the online comments because the current study focused only on investigating the positive politeness strategies, which is different from other studies that investigated different kinds of politeness strategies i.e. positive and negative.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to explore the use of positive politeness strategies following the online comments by Jordanian males and females on different news topics posted by the Roya news Facebook page. The results demonstrated that Jordanians tried to minimize the threat to their interlocutors' face through using different positive politeness strategies. For instance, the results showed that the most frequently positive politeness strategies used by males for the topic of education were asserting common ground and asserting reciprocity, and joking was most common among the females. However, the most frequently positive politeness strategy used by both males and females for the topics of crime and weather was asking for a reason and being optimistic, respectively. Furthermore, the most frequently used positive politeness strategies by males for the topic of economy were joking and asserting reciprocity; for females, exaggerating interest was used mostly. Gender was found to have a significant correlation with the type of strategy being used. That

is, the most frequently used strategy in all topics was asserting common ground by males, and joking by females. Furthermore, the results revealed that the most frequently used strategy by both genders in all topics was joking.

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Navigating the Real World: A Grounded Theory-Based Exploration of Autistic Adolescents' Identity Formation in *Marcelo in the Real World*

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Abstract—This study analyses the depiction of autism in *Marcelo in the Real World*, a young adult fiction novel, to critically explore the identity formation of the character Marcelo who navigates the challenges and complexities of the real world. By using the grounded theory and drawing on ideas from disability studies and social identity theory, the research demonstrates that parental guidance, encouragement and normal treatment of friends, and exposure to conflicts and contradictions are the most significant factors and can help autistic adolescents understand social life, improve social competence, and obtain power and control in social relations, promoting positive identity formation. The use of grounded theory methodology enables a full examination of Marcelo's experiences and the fundamental mechanisms guiding the development of his identity. This research deepens our comprehension of identity construction under the setting of autism, advancing both theoretical understanding and useful interventions for autistic adolescents.

Index Terms—grounded theory, autism, social identity, disability studies, adolescents

I. INTRODUCTION

Autism Spectrum Disorders, characterized by repetitive behavior and deficits in social interaction and communication, are chronic neurodevelopmental disorders (WHO Team, 1992). Though an ASD typically emerges in childhood, it has lifelong implications that extend into adulthood and old age (Howlin, 2000). Autistic teenagers often experience social anxiety, and promoting their positive identity formation can help them overcome some of the related challenges. The social identity approach emphasizes the motivation to form social groups, exhibit in-group favoritism, identify with the group, and derive self-worth from group memberships (Dirth & Branscombe, 2018; Rubin & Hewstone, 1998). Bagatell (2007) investigated the effect of identity and discourse in youngsters with autism and concluded that creativity and originality are required for effective identity construction in this population. This task is challenging, which in turn renders reconciling conflicting discourses for molding a mindset and the construction of multiple identities difficult. Cooper et al. (2017) examined the self-esteem and social identity of people diagnosed with autism and indicated that despite the inferior mental health of autistic individuals compared with average people, the positive autistic social identity can provide a protective mechanism. Existing studies have been conducted from medical, neurological, and philological perspectives, but only a few studies have used literature review to analyze how the identity of people with autism is formed. Literature provides realistic depictions, including physical, behavioral, and linguistic characteristics, for investigating the development of identity in autistic individuals. Furthermore, studying texts avoids the inconvenience and ethical constraints imposed on the study of people with autism in real life. *Marcelo in the Real World* depicts the story of the journey of Marcelo, a teenager with autism who navigates the challenges and complexities of the real world outside his familiar and structured environment, ultimately finding his unique identity. In this study, grounded theory and textual analysis are used to understand the path of identity formation for Marcelo. The findings contribute to the area of autism research and improve support and therapies for this population by fostering a deeper knowledge of the particular difficulties, growth, and experiences faced by autistic adolescents as they pursue self-identity.

The novel *Marcelo in the Real World* portrays the journey of Marcelo, a 17-year-old autistic teenager who embarks on a life-changing summer journey away from his comfortable and familiar surroundings to navigate the difficulties and challenges of life in the law firm. Marcelo encounters significant challenges as he transitions from the comfort zone of school for special students to the complex settings of the law firm. He also faces social dynamics and moral

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conundrums. The book describes the psychological challenges, worries, and successes encountered by him as he discovers how to deal with social situations and cultural norms, ultimately leading to self-discovery and a better knowledge of others and himself.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review of the literature summarizes the pertinent literature in two key areas: studies on identity development in autistic adolescents, and studies on the book *Marcelo in the Real World*.

A. *Studies on Identity Formation in Adolescents With Autism*

Studies on the formation of identity among adolescents with autism have mainly focused on two perspectives, namely social influence and family. First, from the perspective of social influence, Myers et al. (2011) argued that autistic adolescents and young adults achieve psychological well-being if they are advised to live in the dominant world with acceptance of their autistic identity. The author emphasized that the sense of belonging to the dominant culture and an autistic individual's minority culture tend to influence their self-esteem, subsequently affecting their psychology. Cooper investigated the social identity and mental health of autistic individuals (Cooper et al., 2017) and revealed that in addition to social and communication difficulties, autistic individuals experience social stigma, which negatively affects the formation of positive social identities. Rocque (2010) studied the identity formation of autistic adolescents and asserted that mothers can play important roles in the construction and maintenance of a positive identity of children through explaining and reshaping their children's behavior to influence the interpretation and reaction of strangers. During these interactions, mothers play the role of the child's surrogate because they influence how other people perceive the child; thus, mothers shape the social identity of the child. Riccio et al. (2021) analyzed whether the perceptions of adolescents on autism and identity are affected by parents' decisions to disclose/conceal their children's autism diagnosis. Parents can guide their children to perceive autism positively by communicating with them during the early development phase of autism. Studies have used various methods, including interview, questionnaire (Cooper et al., 2017; Riccio et al., 2021), literature review (Myers et al., 2011) and participant observation for data collection (Rocque, 2010). Furthermore, a collaborative and participatory study was conducted (Mogensen & Mason, 2015). However, limited studies have focused on the combined influences of school, society family, friends, strangers on the psychology, and discourse of autistic adolescents, leading to potentially biased conclusions. Therefore, this study uses the grounded theory to comprehensively investigate how people around autistic adolescents in the fiction influenced the discourse and behavior of autistic adolescents. Specifically, the grounded theory was used to extract text, refine category, and investigate the influence of people around the autistic teenager in the text. Thus, the path of their identity formation could be identified, which is crucial for studying identity formation among autistic adolescents.

B. *Researches on Marcelo in the Real World*

This section explores the critical analysis of the novel, highlighting its significance as a literary work that addresses autism and identity formation. It discusses the themes, characters, and narrative elements within the book that contribute to the understanding of autistic identity development. By examining the specific context of Marcelo's journey in the novel, this section enriches the overall understanding of identity formation among autistic adolescents.

Studies on the novel *Marcelo in the Real World* are mainly based on textual plot and theme analysis. Curwood (2013) used literary and critical discourse analyses to investigate how the plots and themes of novels are shaped by identity, agency, and power. Orlando (2018) compared Mark Haddon's *The Curious Incident of the Late Night Dog* with Francisco X. Stoker's *Marcelo in the Real World* to investigate the identities and upbringings of young protagonists with different neural systems in the two novels. The argument that the neurodiversity represented by Marcelo's character is subtle suggests that neurodiverse people can not only be protected by society but also contribute to society without changing themselves.

In conclusion, while existing studies have examined identity formation in autistic adolescents, only a few have utilized literary texts as a source of analysis. Typically, novels describe complex, concrete, and emotional experiences that cannot be depicted in purely scientific studies due to abstraction, objectification, and generalization of observations (de Monthoux & Czarniawska-Joerges, 2005). Moreover, even though previous research has looked at the factors that influence the identity development of autistic adolescents, there is a need for a more thorough investigation of the influences of parental guidance, peer relationships, exposure to conflicts and contradictions, as well as the influence of societal expectations and cultural norms on identity formation among autistic adolescents. Marcelo's experiences, problems, and successes in negotiating the complexities of social relationships and cultural norms outside of his comfort zone need to be further examined. The present study aims to bridge the gaps in the literature by using a grounded theory approach and insights from disability studies and social identity theory, which will help us understand the influences, processes, and difficulties that affect how autistic adolescents develop their identities.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN, CATEGORY REFINEMENT, AND MODEL CONSTRUCTION

A. *Research Methodology*

For this examination, the ground theory research methodology was utilized. With this approach, researchers essentially conduct an inductive investigation process in which they create a theory about a phenomenon by methodically gathering and assessing relevant facts. To present the formation process of autistic adolescents' identity, texts are extracted for analysis and logical demonstration to construct and perfect the corresponding theory, which is consistent with the qualitative research theory construction of "starting from the original data, gradually generating theory through the inductive analysis of the data." The grounded theory proposed by Glaser et al. (1968) is a qualitative research method that provides a rigorous analytical approach for theoretical development, promotes the research and critical exploration of social justice issues, and recognizes the necessity for continuous reflection in the research (Charmaz, 2014). In the theory, retrospective iterative and reasoning analysis are applied to create abstract categories based on qualitative data and finally develop and construct theories (Charmaz, 2014). Based on the grounded theory, key factors contributing to Marcelo's identity formation are extracted to examine his discourse and psychological performance throughout his identity formation process. By refining and summarizing the discourse and psychological aspects portrayed in the book, the study systematically codes, compares, and analyzes the content of these categories. Social identity theory offers a theoretical framework for investigating how people get their sense of self from their affiliations with groups and social categories (Turner et al., 1987). By looking at how autistic persons create their social identities, deal with social categorizations, and comprehend the effects of society perceptions, stigma, and acceptance on their self-concept and identity formation, it can be used to investigate identity formation in people with autism. The study offers a theoretical framework that pinpoints Marcelo's identity formation process.

B. Sample Selection and Data Collection

Marcelo in the Real World won the Schneider Family Book Award and provides a complex, realistic portrayal of Marcelo from the mental, physical and emotional perspectives. In this book, the protagonist, Marcelo, enters society from a school for the disabled, experiences frustrations, makes friends in a new social environment, and finally finds a sense of identity. Therefore, the novel *Marcelo in the Real World* was used to obtain data in the present study.

I began by reading *Marcelo in the Real World* in its entirety. Segments of particular interest were chosen for subsequent analysis, focusing on their potential impact on Marcelo's identity development. The selection process prioritized segments that offered insights into Marcelo's inner thoughts, emotions, reflections on their interactions and, contemplation of others' attitudes, and how they think and speak about their self-identity. During the early twentieth century, Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis proposed that an individual's mind is a defining feature of his/her identity (Benwell, 2006).

The sample size was determined by the factors for Marcelo's identity formation. Furthermore, multiple rounds of sampling were conducted according to the principle of theoretical saturation until the saturation was achieved. Data were simultaneously collected and analyzed and continuously compared, and the saturation of the database was continuously tested during the analysis. Four rounds of data extraction were performed, with the third round of coding close to saturation as suggested by the coding status.

C. Open Coding to Distill Concepts and Categories

Open coding refers to the process of coding, labeling, and grouping the source material word by word. We employed a line-by-line coding approach to ensure a thorough examination of each individual line and its significance, avoiding premature generalizations (Charmaz, 1996). This process yielded 210 provisional codes closely tied to the original text (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Concurrently, I began drafting memos to document initial comparisons and unexpected patterns (Charmaz, 2006). These memos served as an initial basis for comparing distinct instances and facilitated cautious abstraction from the grounded material (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lempert, 2008). Following the constant comparative method, the data collected by the initial coding were continuously compared, analyzed, summarized, merged, and organized (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), resulting in the derivation of 26 initial concepts. For example, "denial of disability" was derived from the original statement that "I remember once I asked Arturo if I could take Naim to the mall, and he replied, 'You don't have a disability.'" The original texts were then labelled, and similar concepts were grouped together and assigned the same category. For example, "denial of disability," "stress on normalcy" were grouped into the same category of "Parents' encouragement." Finally, 10 initial categories were obtained (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
OPEN CODING OF MARCELO'S IDENTITY FORMATION.

Category	Concept	Original Text
F1 Parents' encouragement	F11 Denial of disability	I still remember the answer Arturo gave me once when I asked if I could take Namu with me to the mall: "You're not disabled," he said.
	F12 Normal treatment	"You look like any other young man. Better. You're better-looking than most. You're tall and handsome and strong."
F2 Parents' guidance to normal world	F21 Explanation of joining normal world	"At Paterson you contribute by just being yourself. It is easy for you to be around.... The job at the law firm will require new skills from you, and you'll be around people who are not always nice."
	F22 Encouragement to leave comfort zone	"but because you have not been in an environment that challenges you to do them. Jasmine, the girl who runs the mailroom, will show you the ropes. ... But going slow doesn't mean you won't need to expand beyond your comfort zone."
F3 Sense of belonging in disability group	F31 Unwillingness to leave disability group	"It should be Marcelo's decision." I gather up all my strength... Dr. Malone. "I should be allowed to finish the last year of high school at Paterson, where I've always been."
	F32 Trust in disability group	Arturo needs to be convinced that the best way for me to be like everyone else is to continue at Paterson, where I can learn at my own pace, where I am learning to make decisions and becoming responsible and independent,...
F4 Fear of exposure to new group	F41 Fear of change	"Marcelo is afraid."
	F42 Fear of difficulties	"There are so many things I still have difficulties with. I cannot walk by myself in a strange place without a map. I get flustered when I am asked to ... They expect responses from me I cannot give."
F5 Friend's positive influence	F51 Friend's encouragement	"You're Marcelo," she says, reminding me of who I am.
	F52 Friend's normal treatment	"It's okay, you can look at me, I don't mind."
F6 Social group's complex influence	F61 People's satire	"Sit down, Gump, I'll be right with you."
	F62 People's unintentional hurt	"I meant what's wrong with you, with the way you think. Your father said you had some kind of cognitive disorder."
	F63 People's stare	Immediately, I feel her gaze scan me from head to feet and back again just like the light of the copying machine.
	F64 Verbal abuse	She looks at me. "Aren't you supposed to be re... I mean, slow or something?"
F7 Fight for justice	F71 Pursuit of justice	"I have not." I am at a loss to explain why. I am doing something that Arturo would disapprove of, I know. ... persuade him that helping Ixtel is something he should do, we should all do.
	F72 Opposition to hegemony	I feel an obligation to right my father's wrong. But why? Shouldn't my father's welfare come first? His welfare is my welfare. How does one weigh love for a parent against the urge to help someone in need?
	F73 Adherence to right action	I feel like what is right should be done no matter what. Maybe the right action is a lake like this one, green and quiet and deep.
F8 Improved social competence	F81 Acknowledgement of benefits	"Aurora was right when she told me that working at the law firm would help me be strong... Oak Ridge will help me as well."
	F82 Improvement in communication	"I have been trained. It is training and concentration. Years of learning how to communicate."
	F83 Courage to accept challenge	All I can think of now is that it is not right for me to be unaware of that pain, including the pain that I inflict on others.
F9 More empowered identity	F91 Improved resilience	"I know," I say. "I knew what could happen to all of us. Marcelo did not succeed in following the rules of the real world. He knows.... And still, he would do it again."
	F92 Improved self-awareness	For all the pain I saw at Paterson, it is nothing compared to the pain that people inflict upon each other in the real world.
F10 A self-advocate	F101 Self-identification	I stand up and walk to the corner. I think: Now I look normal like everyone else, walking and talking on the cell phone. I read the street sign to Jasmine. "It says 'Ping On.'"
	F102 Self-acceptance	Then it comes to me. It cannot be that this is the first time I realized this, but it is. We all have ugly parts. ...We see our ugly parts, and then we are able to forgive, love kindness, walk humbly.
	F103 Positive plan for future study	There is so much to be done. Plans. Preparations. Oak Ridge High will be hard. ... I will need to learn the way they learn... Going to Oak Ridge High will help me.
	F104 Confidence in ability to adapt to society	That the way she is strong and gentle on behalf of children will be my way as well. The road seems so long. Another year of high school, then college,...

D. Main Axial Coding to Establish the Main Categories

Main axial coding is used to develop the nature and dimensions of main categories and discover potential logical relationships between main categories, thereby forming the main categories and subcategories. In this stage, to ensure the relevance of emerging categories and analytical rigor, we conducted a comparative analysis of the initial codes and integrated them into broader categories, consistently examining both the commonalities among codes within a category and the distinctions between codes across different categories (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In addition, we reviewed the source material and modified our categories a few times to reduce the number of specific codes, and then condensed them into five main categories that effectively express the essence of the data. The implication of the category provided meaningful explanations (see Table 2) (Charmaz, 1996).

TABLE 2
MAIN CATEGORIES CREATED BY AXIAL CODING

Main category	Category	The implication of the category
Parental influence	Parents' encouragement	By encouraging their autistic adolescents to express their needs, preferences, and opinions, parents empower them to become self-advocates. This process allows autistic individuals to develop a sense of agency, assertiveness, and self-determination, which are vital for shaping a positive identity.
	Parents' guidance to normal world	Parents' guidance plays a crucial role in helping autistic adolescents acquire practical life skills necessary for independence and integration into the normal world.
Membership in disability group	Sense of belonging in disability group	Joining a disability group provides autistic adolescents with a sense of belonging and connection to a community of individuals who share similar experiences, challenges, and perspectives.
	Fear of exposure to normal world	The fear of facing social difficulties and not fitting into societal norms can lead to anxiety and a desire to avoid situations where they may feel exposed or different.
Real world's dynamic and complex influence	Friend's positive influence	Friends can provide emotional support, empathy, and understanding, which are vital for autistic adolescents' positive identity formation.
	Social group's complex influence	Autistic adolescents may face social exclusion or rejection from certain social groups due to their differences in communication and social behavior.
Having power and control	Fight for justice	Engaging in social interactions aimed at fighting for justice or advocating for important causes can provide autistic adolescents with a sense of purpose and empowerment and enhance their self-esteem and self-worth, contributing to a positive identity formation.
	Improved social competence	Through these experiences, autistic adolescents can develop and refine their social and communication abilities, leading to improved self-confidence and social competence.
Positive identity formation	More empowered identity	Autistic adolescents need to navigate societal expectations, disclosure of their neurodiversity, and self-advocacy in the workplace, which can contribute to the development of a more empowered identity.
	A self-advocate	Autistic adolescents reflect on what accommodations, support, or resources would enhance their ability to succeed and thrive in various settings, such as school, work, or social environments.

E. Selective Coding and Model Building

Selective coding is the systematic analysis of all identified categories to determine a core category as well as the integration of all other categories to cover most findings theoretically. During this phase, we synthesized these components into a comprehensive preliminary analysis, aiming to construct a coherent narrative that aligned with the coding while substantiating the connections between categories. The inclusion of memos and figures served as a bridge between the detailed coding process and the development of theoretical insights. While the research approach was primarily inductive, the emerging theory was also compared to and influenced by existing theories, incorporating elements of abductive reasoning into the study (Bryant & Charmaz, 2008). The identity formation pathway of autistic people was the core category for structuring the “story line” around the core category. The factors, mental processes, discourse performance, and results of the identity formation pathway extracted from *Marcelo in the Real world* were coded to develop the “story line” of Marcelo’s identity formation pathway. Finally, a model of Marcelo’s path of identity formation was established (see Figure 1).

Parents who provide encouragement play a crucial role in creating a safe and supportive environment for their autistic adolescents. This emotional support promotes a good self-image while also promoting a sense of belonging, which is crucial for the development of an individual's identity. Parents can open diverse experiences and opportunities for their teenage child with autism by helping them integrate into society. This exposure enables them to broaden their horizons, discover their passions, and develop a more comprehensive sense of self. Although autistic teenagers can benefit from joining disability groups specifically designed for individuals with similar experiences, challenges, and perspectives, it is important to acknowledge that autistic adolescents may encounter difficulties in social relationships and communication, which can contribute to their fear of engaging with the mainstream world. To become part of a professional social group provides them with valuable opportunities to develop essential skills for navigating professional settings. They can learn about professional etiquette, effective communication, teamwork, problem-solving, and time management. By dealing with complicated issues such as pursuing justice, autistic teens can enhance their self-esteem and self-worth, ultimately forming a positive identity. Finally, with self-advocacy, autistic individuals can cultivate self-awareness, understand their strengths and interests, authentically express themselves, and advocate for their rights and promote their unique perspectives.

F. Theoretical Saturation Test

To assess saturation, the coding results and the model were presented to experts and scholars in the field who provided positive feedback. Furthermore, some remaining original statements collected for this study were used to conduct the theoretical saturation test. The same open coding, axial coding, and selective coding were performed according to the grounded theory for comparing concepts, categories, and relational paths as obtained during the theory construction process. Whether any new concepts, categories, main categories, and relational paths emerged was then investigated through data coding and analysis, which revealed that no new concepts and categories emerged. Thus, the theoretical saturation test was passed, and theory convergence was achieved.

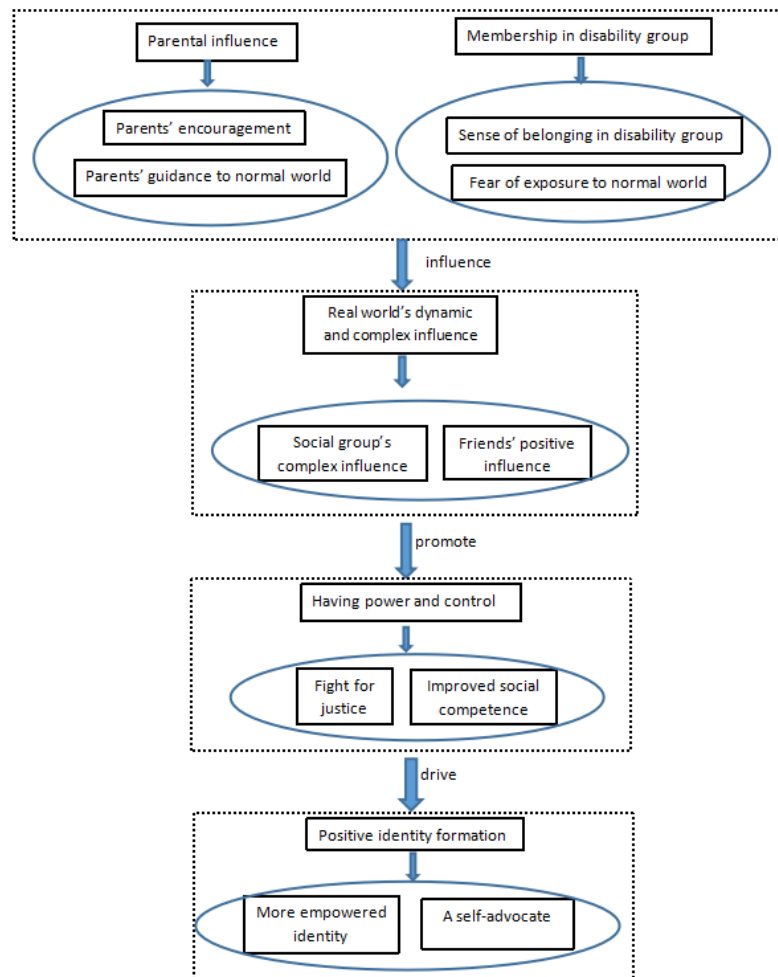


Figure 1. Model of Marcelo's Identity Formation

IV. FINDINGS

A. Parental Influence

Parents' encouragement plays a crucial role in shaping autistic adolescents' positive identity formation. Parents who provide encouragement create a safe and supportive environment for their autistic adolescents. This emotional support helps them develop a positive self-image and a sense of belonging, which are essential for identity formation. The most telling example is that Marcelo's mother complimented Marcelo every morning, and his father always smiled at him and treated him as a normal person. "You're better-looking than most. You're tall and handsome and strong" (Stork, 2010, p.32). Parents who treat autistic adolescents as normal individuals can enhance their independence and autonomy. Parents' encouragement also allows them to develop and practice essential life skills, make decisions, and take responsibility for their actions. Although Marcelo believed he should be accompanied by an adult to the mall, his father denied he had a disability. For instance, Stork wrote, "I still remember the answer Arturo gave me once when I asked if I could take Namu with me to the mall: "You're not disabled," he said." (p.40) Likewise, his mother often said that he looked no different but rather better than many other children. These actions of parents may positively reinforce autistic adolescents' belief that they are not different from other people. Therefore, when parents treat autistic adolescents as normal individuals, it helps foster a sense of self-esteem and self-worth. It sends the message that their condition does not define their value as a person. By emphasizing their strengths, talents, and abilities, parents can instill confidence in their children and help them develop a positive self-identity.

Apart from parents' encouragement, parents' guidance can also expose autistic adolescents to a variety of experiences and opportunities in the normal world. This can include skills such as communication, problem-solving, and self-care. By equipping them with these skills, parents empower autistic adolescents to navigate everyday challenges and build confidence in their abilities, thereby contributing to a positive sense of identity. In *Marcelo in the Real World*, to help Marcelo leave his former group and come out of his comfort zone, his parents patiently persuaded him to contact more people in the real world. Parents of autistic adolescents "inherit a moral responsibility," acting as interpreters and

advocates for their children in a world that lacks resources required for them to succeed (Hart, 2014). During persuasion, Marcelo repeatedly refused to believe his parents, arguing that he would not leave, as he had spent all his life in the school for disabled and the disability group was most suitable for him. Collective identities considerably affect how people behave (Tajfel et al., 1979). An individual can feel satisfied when identifying with particular groups (Ysseldyk et al., 2010). They often face challenges in social interactions and understanding social norms; hence, parents' guidance can help bridge the gap between their autistic child and the normal world by providing them with essential social skills and teaching them appropriate social behaviors. This guidance enables autistic adolescents to navigate social situations more effectively and enhances their sense of belonging in the broader society.

B. Membership in Disability Group

Being part of a disability group can provide a sense of belonging and community for autistic adolescents. They may feel understood and accepted by peers who share similar experiences and challenges. Marcelo attended a school for students with disabilities where he did not consider himself disabled, despite being diagnosed with autism, due to his ability to effectively communicate with other students. "Arturo needs to be convinced that the best way for me to be like everyone else is to continue at Paterson, where I can learn at my own pace, where I am learning to make decisions and becoming responsible and independent, all the things he wants me to be" (Stock, 2010, p.11). Marcelo believed that continuing to study at Paterson was the best choice for him as the group satisfaction enabled him to think that he was not disabled. Research findings indicate the significance of social identification processes in autistic adults. For example, a study by Cooper et al. (2017) revealed a positive relationship between psychological well-being and autistic social identity and self-esteem. This association is influenced by collective self-esteem, which reflects individuals' positive evaluation of their autistic identity. Additionally, acceptance of one's autistic identity and perceived acceptance from family and friends have been linked to well-being among autistic adults (Cage et al., 2018).

However, continuously associating with a disability group may reinforce a primary identity focused on disability rather than emphasizing the diverse abilities and strengths of autistic individuals. This could potentially hinder their overall self-perception and hinder positive identity formation. Determination of a group membership by a label or classification, such as having a spinal injury or cognitive impairment, can adversely affect many facets of a person's social life (Hutchinson et al., 2018). In *Marcelo in the Real World*, Marcelo was uneasy after learning that his parents were going to transfer him from his current school for the disabled to a completely unfamiliar environment. He resisted and argued with his parents and denounced his parents' actions as unjustifiable. Autistic individuals not only exhibit deficits in social communication but also exhibit repetitive and restricted patterns of behavior, interests, and activities (5th ed.; DSM-5; American Psychiatric Association, 2013) (Roehr, 2013), due to which they may face difficulties in expressing themselves and understanding others, particularly in social settings. This can lead to a fear of exposure as they worry about not being able to effectively communicate their thoughts, feelings, or needs. They may fear being misunderstood or being unable to navigate social expectations, which can increase their anxiety in unfamiliar or challenging situations. As Marcelo said, "There are so many things I still have difficulties with. I cannot walk by myself in a strange place without a map. I get flustered when I am asked to do more than one thing at once. ... They expect responses from me I cannot give" (Stock, 2010, p.23). According to Rosemarie Garland Thomson, when a body or mind functions in a manner that contravenes social norms, a maladjustment hinders the disabled individual from functioning according to the expected norms (Garland-Thomson, 2011). However, belonging to a stigmatized social group might have a negative impact on one's well-being. Autistic people face substantial prejudice, which is known as autistic minority stress (Botha & Frost, 2020). This discrimination impairs autistic young people's well-being and self-esteem, and people with autism are more likely to encounter mental health challenges compared with the individuals having normal development (Lai et al., 2019). Therefore, if autistic adolescents are not guided to leave the disabled environment and their comfort zone, their social life in adulthood may be affected.

C. Real World's Dynamic and Complex Influence

Friends play a crucial role in facilitating the development of social skills in autistic adolescents. Engaging in social interactions with peers allows them to practice and refine their communication, socialization, and emotional regulation skills. Positive friendships may provide a platform for learning and growth, where autistic adolescents can observe and emulate their friends' social behaviors, expanding their social repertoire. At the law firm, Marcelo's best friend Jasmine not only treated Marcelo as a normal person but also encouraged him to express himself, as inferred from "'You're Marcelo,' she says, reminding me of who I am" (Stock, 2010, p.295). Jasmine considered Marcelo to be a normal person, encouraged him to express himself bravely, and helped him manage daily tasks. Jasmine's daily encouragement enabled Marcelo to gain a clear perception of the real world and he became increasingly confident. Socializing with people supporting this identity transformation may act as an enabler and strengthen the renegotiation process for individuals to be more confident and gain freedom to be their true self (Hutchinson et al., 2018).

Besides friends' positive influence, autistic individuals may face social exclusion or rejection from certain social groups due to differences in their ability to communicate and social behavior. Individuals with autism spectrum disorder face greater stigma because of their diagnosis, which may result in high-level bullying (Humphrey & Hebron, 2015). This phenomenon is particularly obvious in a law firm, wherein a social group's complex influence includes friends'

unintentional hurt, nicknames given to him, taunts from strangers, injustice issues, and malicious stares from other people. For example, Marcelo's coworkers referred to him as dumb and an idiot, and labeled him "Gump."

Positive and complex effects help individuals embrace challenges as a significant part of life. As social identity theory suggests, examining social self, intergroup relations, and intragroup processes can create a sense of belonging and provide a definition, that is, the relationship between people and the social category to which they belong (Harris et al., 2014; Hogg et al., 1995). Jenkins (2014) related identity with "the map of the world and our position in it, as individuals and collective members" and that the self is both an individual and a society. Therefore, dynamic and complex social influences on autistic people, especially the constant encouragement of friends around them, promote their sense of belonging, which helps them establish a positive identity.

D. Having Power and Control

Participating in social interactions related to justice and advocacy would help autistic adolescents develop a deeper understanding of their own strengths, challenges, and rights. This increased self-awareness empowers them to become self-advocates, speaking up for themselves and others, which can positively shape their identity. In *Marcelo in the Real World*, the protagonist Marcelo demonstrates not only self-advocacy but also a commitment to advocating for others, including Ixtel, a young immigrant who is financially disadvantaged and orphaned, who relies on a lawyer to protect her legal rights. When Marcelo decides to provide essential evidence to Ixtel's lawyer, even at the risk of jeopardizing his father's case as the defendant's attorney, it becomes evident that he has embraced the role of a disability rights activist. He must choose whether to help the girl or consider how his family and coworkers are affected. However, with Jasmine's encouragement, Marcelo finally chooses justice and helps the girl, which promotes Marcelo's sense of control and increases his awareness of the world.

Transitioning to a social group like a law firm exposes autistic adolescents to new challenges and expectations. Professional settings have higher demands in terms of performance, deadlines, and interpersonal skills. Navigating these challenges can promote personal growth, resilience, and the development of adaptive strategies. The most telling example of this is Marcelo's courage to accept challenge and improvement in communication. "I have been trained. It is training and concentration. Years of learning how to communicate." (Stock, 2010, p.239). Self-esteem is positively linked with the number of social groups to which a person belongs, as social groups contribute to the development of collective self-esteem to some extent, suggesting that social identity enhances individual self-esteem as people take pride in their (positive) group membership (Jetten et al., 2015). People can belong to various social categories, each with its own level of significance and impact on their sense of self. These memberships contribute to their social identities (Hogg et al., 1995). Therefore, the challenges and obstacles faced in social interactions focused on fighting for justice can contribute to personal growth and resilience in autistic adolescents. Overcoming hurdles, standing up for what they believe in, and advocating for change can foster a strong sense of resilience, determination, and personal development.

E. Positive Identity Formation

The journey of autistic adolescents from the disabled world to the normal world is a transformative process that leads to the development of an empowered identity. Through increased awareness, acceptance, and access to support, these individuals gain the confidence to navigate challenges of the normal world and embrace their unique abilities. As they navigate through the challenges and triumphs of this transition, they undergo a process of self-discovery and empowerment. The positive societal opportunities in recognizing autistic people's capabilities and positive guidance and encouragement from people close to autistic people contribute to positive identity transformation. In the social environment, people gradually learn the strategies for identity management such as shaping positive group distinctiveness or focusing on methods by which group members gain advantages over group members (Blanz et al., 1998). As the book comes to a close, Marcelo and Jasmine are preparing to relocate to the country and establish a pony farm for children with disabilities. In the meantime, they have fallen in love.

An autistic person's path towards recognizing their own strengths, problems, and particular needs related to autism is greatly aided by self-advocacy. They are better able to communicate their experiences and stand up for themselves with their enhanced self-awareness. For teenagers with autism, the process of self-advocacy includes self-discovery, empowerment, and assertiveness, empowering them to create their own narratives, advance acceptance, and work toward constructing a more inclusive society. For instance, according to study by Jetten et al. (2012), people who are a part of several social support networks have more opportunities to offer and receive assistance, which promotes their well-being. In case of Marcelo, interactions with his coworker Jasmine in the traditional workplace gave him valuable learning opportunities and regular reinforcement, gradually allowing him to create a sense of positive identity. Having a second social identity gave Marcelo the chance to improve his social communication abilities in everyday situations. According to Jetten et al. (2012), having several social identities acts as a safeguard against a variety of mental and physical health problems and broadens one's range of personal identities. This is best illustrated by Marcelo's journey, who gained self-advocacy, made plans for his future studies and job, and developed willpower to attend a regular school, high school, and college. Despite falling behind at first, Marcelo's commitment and tenacity motivated him to put in a lot of effort to catch up. He even planned for his personal and professional lives after graduation and identified his life's

purpose. This phenomenon demonstrates the positive effects of exposing autistic people to the outside world, since it promotes their integration into society and helps them recover from autism.

V. RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS AND RESEARCH PROSPECTS

A. Research Conclusion

This work investigated the process of identity construction in autistic teens through a grounded theory-based investigation centered on Marcelo's experiences in the real world. The study highlights the advantageous facets of Marcelo's identity development by incorporating ideas from disability studies and social identity theory. According to the study's findings, it can be concluded that Marcelo's identity was significantly shaped by his parents, encouraging friendships, exposure to disputes and inconsistencies, and negotiating social expectations. These elements helped him to develop awareness of social dynamics as well as the ability to read nonverbal clues, understand the viewpoints of others, and exercise social agency. Marcelo was able to change and develop a good identity by actively engaging in these events. A theoretical framework for analyzing the process of positive identity formation in adolescents with autism has been developed through the integration of disability studies and social identity theory. Disability studies have made it possible to explore the effects of social and cultural factors on people's identity construction, and social identity theory has shed light on the causes of social group formation, the formation of group identity, and the sources of self-worth derived from group memberships. Grounded theory has been used in this study to provide a thorough examination of Marcelo's experiences and the fundamental elements of his identity construction. Themes that illustrate the transformative journey Marcelo takes as he negotiates the complexity of the outside world and creates his distinct personality have been developed through a meticulous examination of the textual data.

B. Contributions

This study is the first to use grounded theory to analyze the discourse and psychological performance of the development process and outcomes of autistic characters in novels. Unlike earlier studies of autistic adolescents, this study does not impose ethical limitations as a guide for future research on the psychologically aided treatment of autistic individuals.

A model of identity formation was constructed in this study. Currently, research on identity formation in autism is based on medical and psychological analyses. This study pioneered analyses of the discourse and psychological performance of autistic characters in literature and abstracting the path model of identity formation, providing a theoretical framework for further analysis of identity formation in individuals with autism through literature. Furthermore, a comprehensive analysis of the psychology and surroundings of autistic individuals in this study provides insights for the psychological interventions for individuals with autism.

C. Research Limitations

Data used in this study were collected from the book *Marcelo in the Real World*. However, although the collection process was as comprehensive and complete as possible and the principle of theoretical saturation was followed, a certain subjectivity exists, as the data were extracted from a single book. Therefore, in-depth interviews with autistic individuals and their families can be conducted in the future to collect supplemental data and validate the identity formation of autistic individuals. Comprehensive research is yet to be conducted on autistic individuals. Given the rise in the prevalence of autism in adolescents, more research is required to develop a comprehensive and effective approach to the complementary psychotherapy intended for autistic individuals.

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Influence of Social Networking Sites on Undergraduate Saudi EFL Learners: A Study at Ha'il University

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Abstract—Smart usage of social networking sites can make them useful instruments for communication, learning, and teaching purposes. Owing to rising demand for it, digital technology, particularly social networking sites are finding a place in the universities. The purpose of this study is to look into the influence of using social networking sites in the teaching of English at tertiary level. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with twenty-five lecturers and fifty undergraduate students from the first year of the academic calendar year 2020-2021 in the University of Ha'il, Saudi Arabia. The findings of the study revealed that SNSs may be a double-edged sword, as they may have both favourable as well as detrimental impacts on the development and improvement of EFL learners' speaking and writing abilities. The study highlights the necessity for the proper usage of social networking sites (SNSs) in academic contexts. It also suggests that social networking sites (SNSs) if appropriately used, can be incorporated into the undergraduate teaching system to improve EFL proficiency and competence.

Index Terms—adult learning, EFL education, Saudi Arabia, social media, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past several years, the institutions in Saudi Arabia have undergone/experienced a significant transition and improvement. The purchasing and utilisation of information and communication technology (ICT) resources, for instance, are some of the clearest indications that these changes are taking place, and they may be used to detect this. The institution has made great strides in encouraging and educating its teaching staff and students to embrace technology to enhance content delivery and the learning process, respectively. Even though this innovation process occurred for a variety of reasons, little research was conducted to determine how it influenced the students. Surprisingly, there is a lack of research on how students use technology and engage with Social Networking Sites (hereafter SNSs) in particular in Saudi higher education. The researchers hardly found a study on the usage of social networking sites (SNSs) and their influence on EFL learners in this situation as consequence, particularly in the context of the University of Ha'il. The current paper attempts to address this gap in the literature.

SNSs have changed gradually and progressively. According to Arroyo (2019), the emergence of social media created a new medium for communication based on shared objectives, beliefs, and even hobbies. To stay up with the rapid digital revolution, people constantly embracing new social practices and social networking to fit their demands. For individuals in general and undergraduate students in particular, SNSs have turned into a double-edged sword. According to studies, the usage of SNSs like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, and others is directly connected to users' and EFL students' English proficiency.

According to McLuhan's (2003), "All media exist to fill our lives with arbitrary perceptions and attitudes" (p. 199). The social media revolution is significant as a new tool for students and instructors to form solid social bonds. According to Anderson (2008), "access to an educational experience that is, at the very least, more flexible in time and location than campus-based education has always been the concern of online learning, as a subset of all distant education" (p. 53). Social media has been shown to have a significant impact on our mental processes, routine behaviours, responses, and attitudes, which has a significant impact on how we communicate. At the same time, our talks expose us to fresh linguistic idioms regularly.

Internet slang, which refers to a collection of short forms and language use adopted by internet users, such as LOL, ASAP, and so forth, is becoming more and more popular in the technological era, keeping up with the rapid expansion and growth of SNSs (Kay et al., 2014). Some academics, linguists, and professionals in the English language are concerned that the usage of online slang would negatively impact the standard English lexicon. However, there are

academics who support online slang. As Crystal argues over at BBC News: "Language itself evolves slowly, but the internet has sped up the process of those changes so you see them more rapidly" (cited in Kay et al., 2104, p. 5). Some common acronyms, short forms, and abbreviations used on social media, such as LOL, BTW, BF, GF, JK, etc., have evolved into distinct words that EFL users use formally in their writing and speaking situations. However, this intrusion has a detrimental effect on the linguistic competence of EFL learners as well as their English speaking and writing abilities.

Therefore, EFL students often unintentionally overuse Internet slang in formal writing and speaking contexts, including letter homophones (*abbreviations and acronyms*), incorrect capitalization and punctuation (!!!!), onomatopoeia and stylized spellings (*hahahaha*), keyboard-generated emoticons and smileys (.) (smiling face), T.T (*crying face*), leet (a colloquial language or code used on the internet, in which standard letters are frequently replaced by symbols, numerals, or special characters, such as *10V3* (love), 4 (for), and many other short forms of words, inappropriate or non-standard grammar, and sentence structures.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Impact of SNSs on Language Learning*

Facebook is one of the most well-known SNSs, with more than 1.32 billion registered members (Prigg, 2014). Furthermore, Barón (2012) argues that Facebook, which was founded in 2004 and is now among the most widely used SNSs worldwide, acts as a bridge for meeting new people and maintaining connections with those you already know. Almost all of your personal information, including your interests, hobbies, favourite movies and music, political and religious beliefs, relationship status, age, gender, and more, is available to the public (Hargittai, 2011). The latest data, however, shows the record breaking usage of Facebook at almost 3 billion users in March 2022 as per Globaldata.com.

SNSs can be a tremendous tool for teaching or studying English, particularly for developing students' writing and speaking abilities. There is sufficient prior research that shows a significant correlation between the use of SNSs and a learner's English competence (Al-Ahdal & Alharbi, 2021; Al-Ahdal & Shariq, 2019). However, some of the results of this research demonstrated a favourable association between the two, whilst other results revealed a detrimental effect of SNSs on the speaking and writing abilities of EFL learners.

One of the most increasingly powerful breakthroughs of the modern period has been the internet. The entire planet has become a global village as a result of the emergence of social media and the internet. By connecting people from all over the world, social networks and the internet have significantly reduced the gaps and distances between nations and continents. Particularly social networking websites provide a shortcut for nearly instantaneous connection between people throughout the globe. Social networking sites (SNSs), as described by Kay et al. (2014), are "web-based platforms that enable individuals to construct their profiles in a secured system, together with other users that share a centralised link" (p. 14).

Users of SNSs, particularly students may post any type of content, including photos, videos, check-ins for places they've been, and more. This is a key factor in the remarkable development of SNSs. According to Alassiri et al. (2014), social networking sites (SNSs) offer an interactive platform that enables users to interact with one another to build social connections and exchange knowledge and information about everyday activities and personal experiences. SNSs have been utilized as an exceptional educational and learning tool by EFL teachers and educators throughout the world to deliver relevant teaching materials and knowledge for their students, particularly in the aftermath of the pandemic. However, rather than benefiting users and learners, the lack of language regulation on SNSs has done more harm than good. Consequently, they are a two-edged sword (Kay et al., 2014).

The vast majority of SNSs, including Facebook and Twitter, might be useful instructional tools for improving students' English reading, speaking, listening, and writing abilities, according to previous studies. However, to guarantee successful outcomes, EFL instructors, educators, and teachers must incorporate these as a project with clear learning objectives. Numerous studies have demonstrated that students who spend a significant amount of time on social networking websites are unable to focus on their language sessions. These groups of EFL students tend to be far more easily distracted in class and have significantly lower attention spans than other groups. In addition, pupils disregard the value of direct, face-to-face engagement, direct experience, and real-world application (Bloxham, 2010). As a result, if students spend a lot of time on SNSs, numerous negative impacts might manifest and be seen, such as poor concentration in class and trouble interacting with peers and teachers.

Facebook also causes significant changes in linguistic ability. When people utilise Facebook or another SNS as tools for English language learning, they may have a lot of opportunities to study with millions of other users at the same time (Educause Learning Initiative, 2006). Additionally, students may utilise Facebook to strengthen their language skills while indirectly learning through varied interactions with other users. Furthermore, students' real identities are not required while participating in debates on Facebook, which can promote a more laid-back mindset that facilitates interactions without any fear of making mistakes. When problems are made public, EFL instructors may identify and fix them, which is beneficial for the students (Murphy, 2009). The Affective Filter may be eliminated by this learning technique in the long run, which will increase motivation and encourage taking risks when learning a language (Krashen, 1988). Teachers may use Facebook to share instructional resources, tasks, materials, upcoming events, helpful links, and more (Kay et al., 2014).

B. The Social Learning Theory

One of the most important theories of growth and learning is the social learning theory, which Albert Bandura (1997) first presented. Bandura contends that all forms of learning cannot be explained by direct reinforcement alone. He goes on to say that through seeing, copying, and modelling new information behaviour, individuals may pick it up (Belal, 2014). In addition, there are three key ideas to keep in mind: behaviour change is not a natural result of learning; observation can be a method of learning; and mental health is a crucial component of learning (Bandura, 1977; cited in Belal, 2014, p. 10). According to Bandura (1977), "In the social learning system, new patterns of behaviour can be acquired through direct experience or by observing the behaviour of others" (p. 20). Bandura also adds that learners cannot learn much by observation if they do not attend to, or recognize the basic features of the model's behaviour.

Observing other people's behaviour or having first-hand experience are both effective ways to learn new behavioural patterns. Furthermore, if a learner does not pay attention to or understand the fundamental characteristics of the model's behaviour, they will not be able to learn very much via observation (Bandura, 1977). He also argues that certain SNS users often remain active online and leave comments on other user's status updates and postings, which encourages other users to interact with the SNSs and discover fresh information and material. This informational cycle encourages more people to adopt optimistic viewpoints toward their accomplishments (Belal, 2014).

Nowadays, the majority of students use social media and spend the majority of their time exploring and surfing these social networking sites. Undergraduate students were more likely to access SNSs online at colleges and universities than anyplace else, according to research by Boyd (2008). Therefore, it is evident that SNSs have an informal impact on the speaking and writing abilities of EFL students at the college level (Bin-Hady & Al-Tamimi, 2021). Online social networks, as defined by Tyson (2009), refer to both the method and the platform that individuals use to connect online (p. 10). Therefore, social networking technologies provide a venue for EFL students to hone their productive English speaking and writing skills.

C. Research Objectives

This study aims to investigate how English major students at the University of Ha'il in Saudi Arabia perceive the influence of social networking sites (SNSs) on their speaking and writing abilities. It is important to note that English is taught and utilised as a foreign language in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Social networking sites (SNSs) are used by many EFL students both as a communication and educational tool. Social networking sites (SNSs) have a significant impact on how well EFL students learn English. Younger generations frequently use SNSs because of how addicting and popular they are. Social networking technologies have made it possible for people to communicate with one another in current culture, and as a result, the language used in these media has a direct and indirect impact on people, especially the younger generations. As a result, social media has a significant impact on the language acquisition of EFL learners, while it is still up for debate and more study to distinguish between the good and bad effects is needed.

The study also investigates how SNSs motivate and help EFL students improve their English writing and speaking skills as well as their English proficiency. The study examines the relationship between the use of SNSs and English proficiency. One of the components of the Internet is the social network that links people together on this planet. These internet relationships have surely made our lives easier and benefited us all. Facebook, which has about more than 1.2 billion active members in 2014, is one of the most widely used social network tools. Along with Facebook, there are other digital SNSs with unique features and applications, like Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, and many more. SNS use can be beneficial for a variety of purposes, but it can also be harmful at times. The language used in SNSs may not always be appropriate, according to some earlier research, which may have an impact on EFL students' language ability and academic results. There are many possible possibilities, however, this study aims to offer a solution to such a contentious issue.

SNSs are not just for socialising; they may also be used for education and learning. They provide a way to exchange information or expertise with the globe while also bringing individuals from all corners of the world together. For instance, the social networking site Facebook has a function called "Pages" that allows anybody to create a page and exchange knowledge and information as well as advertise news, websites and links. It has been observed that English majors at the undergraduate level at Ha'il University often employ Internet slang, grammatical errors, and ungrammatical structures and phrases in their exams, quizzes, homework assignments, and papers. Numerous academics and experts in education at universities and colleges have noted this issue, particularly in the English department at Ha'il University. The EFL Learners and users will instinctively utilise such informal English in their formal English speaking and writing situations once they are familiar with social media lingo, jumbled sentence structures, incorrect punctuation, and spelling errors.

D. Research Questions

The manner that EFL students speak and write has been evolving continually with the advent of the Internet and SNSs. The primary text language that EFL learners utilise for communicating on SNSs is the speech they produce. Tyson stated:

The networks normally contain a relationship between the entities in it, an association such as a shared value, kinship, friendship, business transaction or other systems. The networking that occurs influences an individual's thoughts, feelings and ideas and is an essential element of human interaction. (Tyson, 2009, p. 10)

This study demonstrates that social networking sites have an influence on both our writing and speaking abilities in addition to our thoughts and feelings. This study aims to determine how social media platforms like Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Instagram may affect the writing abilities of English majors at the undergraduate level at Ha'il University in Saudi Arabia.

The questions that this study tries to investigate and examine are as follows:

1. What are the positive or negative influences of using SNSs on the English writing and speaking skills of the undergraduate FEL learners of Ha'il University?
2. To what extent do SNSs motivate EFL learners at Ha'il University to improve their English writing and speaking skills?
3. What are the SNSs' detrimental or useful influences on EFL learners as recognised by the instructors at Ha'il University?

III. METHODOLOGY

This is a purely qualitative study. Public invitation for an interview as a research instrument was posted at the university PR board to invite voluntary participation from the interested EFL teachers and learners who were teaching and learning in the first and second semesters of the academic year 2019-2020 at Ha'il University, Saudi Arabia. Out of the 25 teachers and 50 students that comprised the population, only two teachers and seven students volunteered for sharing their views and perspectives. This was a study based on convenience sampling method. All data were recorded both manually and electronically, transcribed, and content analysis was performed to identify major themes. The interview questions were semi-structured but broadly stayed close to the positive and negative influences of using SNSs on the English language skills of the undergraduate students at hand. The interviews were conducted face-to-face with the teachers, and via Zoom with the students, the former being mixed genders while the latter was exclusively male participants. Gender-based analysis was not part of this study.

Data analysis

Some extremely intriguing perspectives were revealed by the data. There was a consistent understanding among instructors and students of the advantages and disadvantages of incorporating SNSs into the educational process. The difference was in how much the two participant groups supported using SNSs for educational purposes. Teachers were more worried about the distracting nature of SNSs, but students preferred the ease of access and interaction these sites provide with their classmates and teachers. The benefits and downsides are discussed separately in the sections that follow. The themes dominant in the responses were identified and systematically analysed.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Social Networking Sites: A Sword of Two- Edges*

SNSs have merged seamlessly into our lives as electronic and digital media like computers, tablets, and cell phones have grown in popularity. Whether these behaviours are good or bad for EFL learners is still controversial. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to clarify the connection between SNS usage and English proficiency.

Following are the key themes in the interviews which the student participants revealed:

- i. All students have personal mobile devices, and the accessibility of high-speed, reasonably priced Wi-Fi allows them to always be "in contact" with their friends and instructors.
- ii. Learning is the easiest when connected with technology.
- iii. Teachers may not always view language learned through SNS communications as a formal language.
- iv. SNSs give significantly more language exposure than any instructor or institution has ever offered in a regular classroom.

The teachers, on the other hand, presented their views along the following themes:

- i. It is hard to completely cut students off of their smartphones since they are drawn to technology in both their academic and social lives.
- ii. It is an unspoken practice among users to utilise the specific registers that each SNS provides.
- iii. Students usually encounter idioms, slang, and neologisms that are not a part of the grammar or vocabulary that is commonly used.
- iv. It might be difficult for teachers to encourage their learners to "unlearn" the language they prefer to use on SNSs and "relearn" the normative language. The students may eventually withdraw or lose interest in the learning environment as a result.

B. *Positive Influence of SNSs*

SNSs may be an excellent teaching and learning tool, particularly for improving student's speaking and writing abilities. According to the student's responses, a few of the constructive attitudes are: "i. *All youngsters have personal mobile devices and the availability of high-speed affordable wi-fi enables them to stay 'in touch' with peers and teachers at all times*". "ii. *Learning is the easiest when connected with technology*". According to Asad et al. (2014), when social learning outcomes are improved, academic learning results for EFL learners also improve. However,

students are eager to utilise SNSs for academic purposes, and this offers an opportunity to involve them in informal learning by researching, exploring, and testing ideas with other students inside their social networks (Gremu & Halse, 2012). Livingstone (2008) also demonstrates how having a friend on an SNS provides you access to a variety of free and simple communication channels, including the ability to reply to journal entries, send public or private messages, play online games, comment on uploaded photos, share movie and music preferences, and more.

Furthermore, an attitude was brought from teacher 1 *"It is impossible to wean the students away from their devices as nothing appeals to them like technological tools, whether in academic or social life."* This point of view is shared by teachers and learners alike. Eastment, (2007) mentions that social media like Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, "are impacting upon education far more dramatically than the conventional word-filled web page" (p. 11). Likely, Boyd (2007) believes that both adults and teens use SNSs to easily connect with friends and peers, share knowledge, rediscover their personalities, and exhibit their social life. Flad (2010) asserts that since children and teens now possess their mobile phones and can easily access SNSs, communication has become instantaneous in modern society. So, another summarized point of view: *"iv. The language exposure gained over SNSs far exceeds any exposure that the teacher or institution has ever provided in traditional learning"*. Since communication is frequently intentional and meaningful and because learners have options about language grammar and functions, this type of knowledge is considered real and thorough. This point of view has been emphasized by Krashen's (1981) hypothesis that comprehensible input is a necessary, yet insufficient condition for language learning. Theoretical treatments and several investigations on the topic were also examined by Ellis (1985), who concluded that input and interaction can affect the learning of a second language.

Blackstone and Harwood (2012) indicate that teachers may show that they are engaged in their students' Facebook learning by liking a link they post, leaving motivating comments on their posts, or bringing up a debatable topic that has previously come up on their page. Furthermore, according to Blackstone and Harwood, SNSs signal to students that the instructor is aware of and interested in what is occurring online and that he or she values their involvement and contributions. Additionally, according to Harwood and Blackstone, this form of assistance can enlist the participation of students who are less self-assured in the learning process and class discussions. Additionally, students are encouraged to write more creatively and professionally, since they are aware that their professors are watching them and will either appreciate or reply to their remarks if they are noteworthy and creative.

Any learning environment where students actively participate in their learning is supported by Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory. Vygotsky advises that the conventional roles of the student and the teacher be transformed to allow the teacher to work with students to make the process of meaning construction simpler. Additionally, Greenfield and Subrahmanyam (2003) claim that online chat offers a novel venue for communication that might prompt changes in students' language use. According to Greenfield (1972), "One dimension that separates spoken from written language is explicitness—spoken language is more implicit since it requires both verbal and nonverbal settings to complete its meanings, whereas written language is more explicit" (p. 12) and context-independent.

Bunce (2010) adds that "SNSs provide conditions for language use, through which language acquisition processes, via exposure, production, and collaboration, are thought to occur" (p. 426). Bunce also states that this interaction encourages comprehensible input through pushed output, interactional modification, corrective and remedial feedback, and collaborative conversation. Kern (1995) argues that online interaction helps learners reduce their anxiety and feel free to participate and improve their language proficiency. Using SNSs as a learning tool has become popular among adult learners as they boost motivation, increase participation and reduce the learner's anxiety (Pellettieri, 2000). SNSs can create corrective feedback, "negotiation of meaning and form, self-correction, and output pushed towards target-like language," (Toyoda & Harrison, 2002, p. 82) since the learners are aware of their position in the world of SNSs.

C. Negative Influence of SNSs

However, some unfavourable opinions on social networking sites were also documented. Firstly, the negative attitudes received from the students are: *"iii. Sometimes the language learnt in communications over the SNSs is not considered formal by the teachers."* This is supported by teacher 2: *"iii. Students often come up with expressions, slangs, and neologisms which are not a part of the standard lexicon or grammar."* previous studies have been done, and they all support these sentiments. Learners practise using communication standards and tools, some of which are inappropriate for an online educational setting (Anderson, 2008). Approximately, 80% of the utterances in published log data, according to Crystal (2001), were five words or fewer in length. According to Hezili (2010), SNSs' users frequently remove copulas, articles, and subject pronouns. When writing academic tasks, articles, and essays, learners are less able to connect and communicate effectively since they are frequently substituting misspelt words and spellings for common words and concepts in the language (Hezili, 2010).

The language that students use in online chat is also regarded as irregular. There is an unspoken norm among the users that the SNSs always adopt their unique specific registers. Face-to-face spoken communication, according to Bunce (2010), is more successful than online chat because "slow typing can greatly hamper language production, negotiation, [and] collaboration" (p. 12). Chat rooms are inherently visual, and chat dialogues incorporate elements of both spoken and written language (Freiermuth, 2002). Herring (1996) contends that spoken language, which is primarily spontaneous speech, is made up of incomplete, inaccurate, or fragmented sentences that are riddled with

grammatical and typographical errors. The chat takes place in the written medium, where words are typed on a keyboard and read from a screen.

SNSs have a significant influence on EFL students' English speaking and writing abilities. In formal writing and speaking environments, learners are influenced by such social tools and represent their ideas through the use of acronyms, bad grammar, and fragmented sentences. Despite these drawbacks, social networking sites can aid EFL students in strengthening their language skills and inspiring them to study English from reliable sources.

English majors at Ha'il University may find it difficult to compete in the job market if they are unable to effectively communicate in written and spoken English. The findings of this study may also indirectly help EFL teachers plan and provide successful courses and assistance to their students as they improve their speaking and writing English. For instance, instructors can deliver classes and lectures on how to employ appropriate online chitchat techniques.

V. CONCLUSION

Social networking sites (SNSs) have grown in popularity as a kind of media with several benefits for learning. The use of SNSs is aggressively growing in today's world due to their enormous success. In this space, students may electronically interact with their classmates and instructors and discuss problems relating to the teaching and learning process.

Social media has been instrumental in bringing together and bridging the gap between individuals from various parts of the world. SNSs like Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube may be very effective learning and teaching tools in addition to being incredible communication tools. This study paves the way for future research by giving important details on how SNSs may affect the English speaking and writing abilities of undergraduate English majors at the University of Ha'il in Saudi Arabia.

The findings demonstrate the mixed effects of social media on the growth of English speaking and writing abilities of undergraduate English majors at Ha'il University in Saudi Arabia. This study's findings imply that social networking sites are a double-edged sword that, when utilised wisely, may be an excellent academic tool for enhancing students' writing and speaking. The study demonstrates that SNSs have been adopted by Ha'il University's English major undergraduate students as well as their EFL instructors for academic and communicative objectives. For the best results, teachers should encourage their students to use social media as a language learning tool. The study also emphasises the need for EFL teachers in helping their students make the most of SNSs' advantages to advance their proficiency and competence in English.

The students' routines and preferences are mostly responsible for influencing how much they are engaged with various social media sites. Numerous studies demonstrated that social networking sites alone should not be held accountable; rather, how students utilise them is the key element. According to the study's findings, students should exercise caution since using the same social media sites for an extended period may harm their English language skills. To avoid using SNSs' slang without considering its appropriateness, students should learn to distinguish between using it in formal and informal settings.

The study concludes that social media use affects the growth of English major students' speaking and writing abilities in both positive and negative ways. The same social networking sites can prove to be very beneficial educational tools that might improve students' speaking and writing abilities if used wisely. The study demonstrates how social media platforms may both constructively and unfavourably affect EFL students' learning, including how they can inspire them to improve and enhance their speaking, writing, and other productive abilities in English. Previous research suggested that students majoring in English could lower their language competence levels by using social media as a learning aid. The use of such jargon, particularly Internet slang, has negatively affected EFL students. Students' obsession with the Internet and social media may have a considerable impact on their writing and speaking abilities as EFL learners. Some neologisms, acronyms, and abbreviations that students use when interacting with one another online have crept into their writing and speaking.

In light of the results of the study, the researchers recommend the need for further studies on similar variables, as well as the necessity for the proper use of social networking sites in an academic context. It is recommended that SNSs be made a part of the EFL learning machine but under the careful and guided direction of the teachers if the media is to be kept useful and not a mere source of distraction for the learners. Thus, detailed, scientific studies need to be undertaken in the short and long terms, concerning the pros and cons of integrating SNSs into the EFL classroom practices.

It is worth noting the view that SNSs are posing a threat to Standard English language acquisition and usage as students take the writing of Standard English with levity. The social media language is different from the Standard English language. While Standard English is subject to concord or grammatical rules, language use on SNSs does not stick to any grammatical rules or concord. Social media language is gradually eroding students' writing and speaking skills. Daily exposure to social media language makes students overlook mistakes whatsoever. It is noted that students addicted to the use of SNSs tend to transfer social media abbreviations, misspellings, and grammatical mistakes into their writing and academic life. Instructors must strive to increase their students' awareness regarding the dark side of SNSs.

It is therefore recommended that:

1-Students should be motivated to adhere to the standard use of English; also, they should be reminded to avoid substandard and unacceptable English usage.

2-Teachers should identify the use of social media errors, misspelt words, contractions, abbreviations, and acronyms in students' writing and correct them instantly.

The study made a unique effort to gather qualitative data on the efficacy of SNSs in enhancing the speaking and writing skills of EFL undergraduate students at the University of Ha'il. However, certain limitations were perceptible along the way. The purely qualitative data could be enhanced with quantitative results with the merging of the survey method to gather wider and more bulky data. Gender too can be a factor in the learning environment and one whose role needs careful evaluation; future studies can consider this as a plausible variable. Lastly, the duration of the interviews could be longer to delve deeper into how SNSs work in the lives of the EFL teachers and learners at the University of Ha'il.

What this paper adds

- 1- To build a thorough understanding of the issues involved in integrating social networking technologies and guaranteeing their sustainability at an institution considering the need of EFL learners.
- 2- This study fills a research gap about the issues associated with EFL learners' preferences for the use of social networking technology in higher education institutions.
- 3- Previous literature has not adequately examined the influence of this SNSs on EFL learners. This research provides a detailed examination of SNSs on EFL by stating the fact that there are both negative and positive impacts on the learner. It requires constant observation of whether they are learning or surfing.

Implications for practice and/or policy

- 1- Teachers should guide learners on the effective usage of SNSs technology while learning a language while making them aware of the damaging effects of these sites on their English proficiency and academic performance.
- 2- The proper use of English should be encouraged among students, and they should be warned against using it in inappropriate or substandard ways.
- 3- Teachers should be involved in their student's learning through SNSs so they can monitor how much time they spend using them, spot social media mistakes in their writing, such as misspelt words, contractions, abbreviations, and acronyms, and fix them right away.

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A Survey of Translation Learners' Uses and Perceptions of Neural Machine Translation*

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Abstract—This paper reports a questionnaire-based survey that was designed to investigate how a group of Chinese translation learners used and perceived Neural Machine Translation (NMT), with a view to providing pedagogical implications for translation instruction which is being confronted with the AI-powered translation technology. 326 second- and third-year college students, who were translation learners as well as English majors from the same university in China participated in the survey. They reported high frequency of NMT use in their translation learning as well as English major learning. Instead of directly borrowing the NMT output, most of them post-edited it and/or used it as inspiration to accomplish their translation tasks. Although they evaluated NMT in a positive way and held an optimistic view toward the future of translation career, they expressed varying degrees of worry and anxiety toward their future employment and toward the use of NMT in the process of the translation learning. They clearly articulated the needs for NMT instruction in translation courses. Based on these findings, this paper proposes several ways to help reduce the learners' worry and anxiety in translation instruction.

Index Terms—Neural Machine Translation, translation teaching, translation technology, sustainability

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background and Motivation

Neural Machine Translation (NMT) seems to symbolize the beginning of a new era for machine translation because of its allegedly largely improved translation quality. Google's NMT (GNMT), for example, is proved to have an improved translation quality which is close to human translation on some test sets, whose translation error rate is said to have dropped by approximately 60% on some popular language pairs compared with Google's early version of MT, the phrase-based statistical machine translation (SMT) (Wu et al., 2016). A lot of other empirical evidences also point to the fact that the translation quality of NMT is significantly higher than that of SMT (see, e.g. Bentivogli et al., 2016; Isabelle et al., 2017; Klubička et al., 2017; Koehn & Knowles, 2017).

As has been pointed out by Moorkens (2018, p. 375), "The rise of NMT has been accompanied by a good deal of media hyperbole about neural networks and machine learning, some of which has suggested that several professions, including translation, may be under threat." Similar observation has been made by some Chinese scholars like Ye (2017) and Qin (2018). Such threat posed by NMT was also sensed by translation/interpreting majors and foreign language majors. In September 2018, for example, a freshman just enrolled in the School of Foreign Languages of a famous Chinese university wrote at the very beginning of his new school life to the president of the university (Ifeng, 2018), saying that he would have no choice but to drop out of school if he were not offered a chance to change his current English Language program to some other program because he foresaw a future filled with gloom since, according to "many experts", MT would replace human translation in many occasions as long as its accuracy rate reached 93% or above.

It has long been observed that technological breakthrough will have great impact on learning and teaching. This is no exception for majors of translation/interpreting and of foreign languages, for whom AI-powered NMT can be both a blessing and a curse. Accordingly, translation teaching has to make changes, or develop sustainably, to adapt to this new era in which AI is playing a big role.

This study is designed to explore how NMT has impacted a group of Chinese college students majoring in English who are taking or have taken the course of translation (hence I refer to them as translation learners in this article) by examining their uses and perceptions of NMT, with a view to detecting their potential anxiety and needs concerning the new technology so that pedagogical implications can be offered for the sustainability of translation teaching in the era of AI.

B. Previous Studies

A number of studies focusing on MT and the other forms of translation technology (TT), like CAT, are devoted to disclosing translators' uses and perceptions of, and needs for TT with diversified purposes.

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At the time of the advent of Web 2.0 technologies, professional translators had “vague awareness and insufficient understanding” of the new TTs and low frequency of using them probably due to their reluctant attitude towards employing new technologies (Joanna, 2011, p. 195). But just a few years later, this changed significantly probably due to the further development of the TTs and the translators’ raised awareness of them. A case in point is a large-scale survey of MT competencies on representatives from the translation and localization industry, professional translators, researchers and translation trainers conducted in or before 2015, which found “the growing uptake of MT and the perceived increase of its prevalence in future workflows” (Gaspari et al., 2015, p. 1).

In an even larger-scale survey on professional translators from 88 different countries (Zaretskaya et al., 2015), respondents showed high interest in TTs, with the majority of them regularly using translation memory (TM) systems, but with a much lower percentage using MT due to its low quality and the energy-consuming PE. Even so, “most translators (74%) think they could benefit from a high quality MT system” (Zaretskaya et al., 2015, p. 6), indicating that professional translators, though not using it frequently, do not view MT as a threat. However, different results were reported in a focus group study of institutional translators at the European Commission’s Directorate-General for Translation (Cadwell et al., 2016): MT was frequently used and was deemed as a useful tool. The mostly agreed reasons for the active adoption of MT included “for speed or productivity gains”, “because of the perceived good quality of the MT output”, “for inspiration, to kick-start the translation process, or for new ideas” and “to reduce typing or clicking” (Cadwell et al., 2016, p. 21).

More recently, a survey of the translators from the French language department of the European Commission (Rossi & Chevrot, 2019, p. 184) showed “good MT acceptance and frequent use, as well as patent variation and polarisation on the assessment of future prospects.” It further disclosed that the major factors impacting on professional (non-)acceptance of MT are “perceptions of control, subjective norm and image, as well as insecurity (fear of MT)” (Rossi & Chevrot, 2019, p. 177). Cadwell et al. (2018, p. 301) presented somewhat different factors influencing translators’ use and non-use of MT: text type, language pair, quality and trust.

From what is described here, we may argue that translators’ attitude towards TT has changed from being reluctant to being positive, that TT have gained more and more popularity among translators, and that quality is one of the major factors discouraging translators from frequently using MT. The focal points of the major studies concerned involve users’ (in most cases translators’) actual use of TT, perception of the quality of MT, TT’s impacts (or consequences) on users and on the translation process, users’ prediction of TT’s future development and influence on the translation profession, and users’ needs, requirements and expectations concerning TT.

In almost all the studies, it is professional translators who are selected as the participants, whose feedback is good for the improvement of TT since they are the immediate users and/or clients of TT developers, and is also beneficial to the other professionals in the translation industry to help them overcome fear of technology, if any, or any other unintended consequences brought about by TT. Professional translators’ feedback is also helpful in offering hints and suggestions for translator training. But that helpfulness is quite limited since translation professionals are not translation learners so that translation instructors do not know exactly how their direct interactants use and perceive TT, thus not knowing their fear (or non-fear) of TT and needs for TT instruction. Although there are a few studies that did address translation learners’ uses and perceptions of MT, they were not designed for detecting the possible concerns and needs of translation learners. Man et al. (2020), for example, surveyed a group of postgraduates majoring in Translation and Interpreting in China to reveal TT adoption among them, and found a positive correlation between knowledge of TT and its frequency of use. Another study (Liu et al., 2022) conducted among students (both undergraduates and postgraduates) majoring in translation and translation instructors in Hong Kong universities, with the purpose of disclosing how useful MT was in translation competence acquisition, found that “MT is particularly helpful in gaining lexical knowledge and knowledge to ensure translation efficiency, but not in bicultural knowledge” (Liu et al., 2022, p. 1). Both studies had purposes and motives different from this current study.

In this era when we are being “invaded” by robots, learners may soon get lost if the technology issue is not properly handled, and this is particularly true for translation learners, who might think their future job will be completely replaced by robots. Therefore, it is urgent for us to find out how they, as learners, not professionals, practice with and think of TT, especially NMT which seems to be a most threatening technology, so that pedagogical implications can be obtained to maintain the sustainability of translation teaching.

C. Aims

This study will report a questionnaire-based survey targeted at a group of Chinese translation learners who are being trained or have been trained to do translation between English and Chinese, with the aims of:

- (1) providing a clear picture of translation learners’ uses of NMT, and
- (2) clarifying their perceptions of NMT, including their evaluation of its current performance and quality, prediction of its impacts on future career, perception of its impacts on current translation learning and needs for NMT instruction in translation courses, based on which the pedagogical implications for the sustainability of translation teaching in the new era will be discussed.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

The questionnaire developed for this survey contains 30 items which are grouped into six sections: (1) uses of NMT, (2) evaluation of NMT, (3) prediction of NMT's impacts on future career, (4) perception of NMT's impacts on current translation learning, (5) needs for NMT instruction in translation courses, and (6) participants' bio-data. All the items, except one inquiring about the age in the bio-data section, are close-ended questions. Of all the closed-ended items, those in Section 1 and Section 6 are multiple choice questions, while those in all the other sections are five-point Likert-scale statements. The questionnaire was presented in Chinese instead of English to avoid possible misunderstanding since the participants were all native Chinese speakers.

Items in the sections other than the bio-data were designed out of two (groups of) sources in addition to the researcher's own brain work. First, a structured interview designed to provide inspiration and help determine the questions and their options to appear in the questionnaire. 21 translation learners participated in the interview. Second, previous studies, concerning uses, perceptions, evaluation and/or prediction of MT, which provided not only inspiration but also evidence to supplement and refine the items in the questionnaire. Table 1 outlines all the major studies that have informed the design of the items in each section of the questionnaire.

TABLE 1
PREVIOUS STUDIES INFORMING THE DESIGN OF THE QUESTIONS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sections of the questionnaire	Previous studies
1 uses of NMT	Zaretskaya et al. (2015), Rossi and Chevrot (2019)
2 evaluation of NMT	Gaspari et al. (2015), Zaretskaya et al. (2015), Daems (2017), Rossi and Chevrot (2019)
3 prediction of NMT's impacts on future career	Zaretskaya et al. (2015), Wang (2017), Ye (2017), Wang et al. (2018), Zhu (2018)
4 perception of NMT's impacts on current translation learning	López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla (2012)
5 needs for NMT instruction in translation courses	Pym (2013), Feng and Zhang (2015), Daems (2017), Wang et al. (2018)

The draft of the questionnaire (Version 1) was sent for evaluation to four colleagues who had been teaching and researching translation for a number of years. They were requested to evaluate the questionnaire by answering the questions provided by the researcher. Their feedback was carefully considered and analyzed before part of it was adopted to revise the questionnaire, whose 50 items were reduced to 41 in the new version (Version 2).

Version 2 of the questionnaire was then administered to 45 translation learners as a pretest. They were requested not only to answer the questions but also to note down any comments and suggestions concerning the design of the questionnaire. The data of the pretest was analyzed and the students' feedback considered, based on which the questionnaire was revised again (hence Version 3, the final version, was formulated), with the number of items being further reduced to 30.

B. Participants

The final version of the questionnaire was launched through an online survey tool (www.wjx.cn) at the end of April 2019 and remained open for ten days. All the second and third-year undergraduate English majors in the School of Foreign Languages of a university in Southwest China were invited to participate in the survey. The total number of students invited was 336, with 166 second-year students and 170 third-year students. 326 responses were received (with a response rate of 97.02%), of which 292 were valid. The reliability of the questionnaire was verified (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.785$, Cronbach's α Based on Standardized Items = 0.831).

The second-year students had taken a compulsory translation course named *Translation Theory and Practice* for 1.5 semester (48 class hours), and were being trained in this course at the time of the survey, while the third-year students had finished 3 semesters' formal translation training (96 class hours) with the same course. Table 2 presents the full information of the participants.

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Grades	Number of valid responses	Age (Mean)	Sex		Formal training in translation	Formal English major training
			M	F		
Second-year	148	20.00	34	114	48 class hours	1.5 years
Third-year	144	20.79	32	112	96 class hours	2.5 years
Total	292		66	226		

English major is offered in almost all major universities in China, in which the offering of translation courses is officially required (English Section of the National Steering Committee for the Instruction of Foreign Language Programs in Institutions of Higher Learning, 2000; Steering Committee of Ministry of Education for the Instruction in Institutions of Higher Learning, 2018). This means that all those enrolled in English major in China are (potential) translation learners. So the sampling of this study can be representative of this group of learners in China, or possibly of those in other parts of the world where majors of languages are offered in which formal translation training is required.

III. RESULTS

A. Uses of NMT

The first section of the questionnaire contained 4 questions, with a focus on the participants' uses of NMT in the learning of translation and other major-related courses. Question 1 investigated the perceived frequency of NMT use, the responses to which show that a vast majority of the participants (73.29%) have often used NMT, while just 4 of them (1.37%) have never used it. The rest of them (25.34%) stated that they had used it sometimes.

Questions 2-4 were designed only for those who had ever used NMT (288 out of 292 overall participants), inquiring about the types of NMT systems most frequently used, the purposes of using NMT in English major learning and the ways to deal with NMT output in completion of translation tasks. A vast majority of the participants (83.68%) chose smartphone translation APP powered by NMT (or NMT APP for short) as the most frequently used type of NMT systems (Question 2), and very small proportions of them chose the other three options (Figure 1).

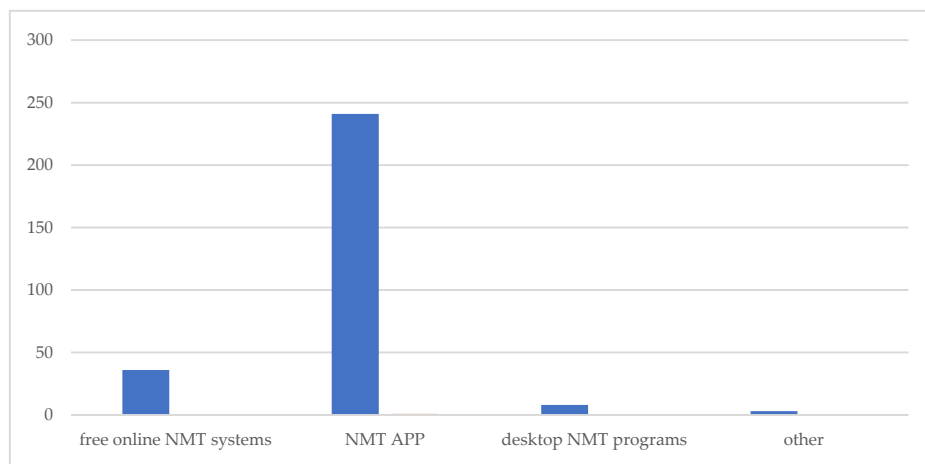


Figure 1. Most Frequently Used NMT Types

Question 3 asked about the purposes of using NMT in English major learning. Participants could choose more than one of its six options. Their choices showed that the vast majority of them had multiple purposes: 87.15% of them chose at least two options and half of them chose at least three. Figure 2 shows the two most favored purposes were comprehending the meaning of new English words (90.97%) and helping improve translation (77.43%), with 39 more people choosing the former. There were also a lot of participants who would use NMT to help English writing, reading and speaking by referring to the English translation of the Chinese expressions.

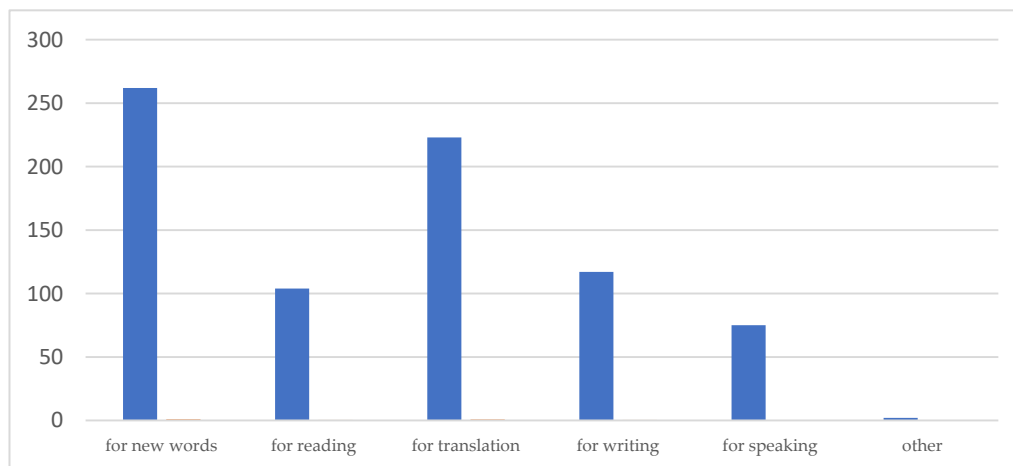


Figure 2. Purposes of Using NMT

Question 4 zoomed in on translation, investigating the ways the participants used to deal with NMT output in completion of translation tasks. It contained five options, from which participants could also choose more than one. A large number of them (42.36%) chose only one option, nearly half of them (48.61%) chose two options, and just a minority of them chose 3 or more options. Figure 3 reveals that the largest number of them (86.46%) would revise the output -- technically speaking, post-edit it -- before using it. Besides, 62.15% of them would get inspiration from the output to help them do the translation on their own. Just a tiny proportion of them would directly copy and use the output as their own translation, and even fewer of them would abandon the output on the ground that it had poor quality.

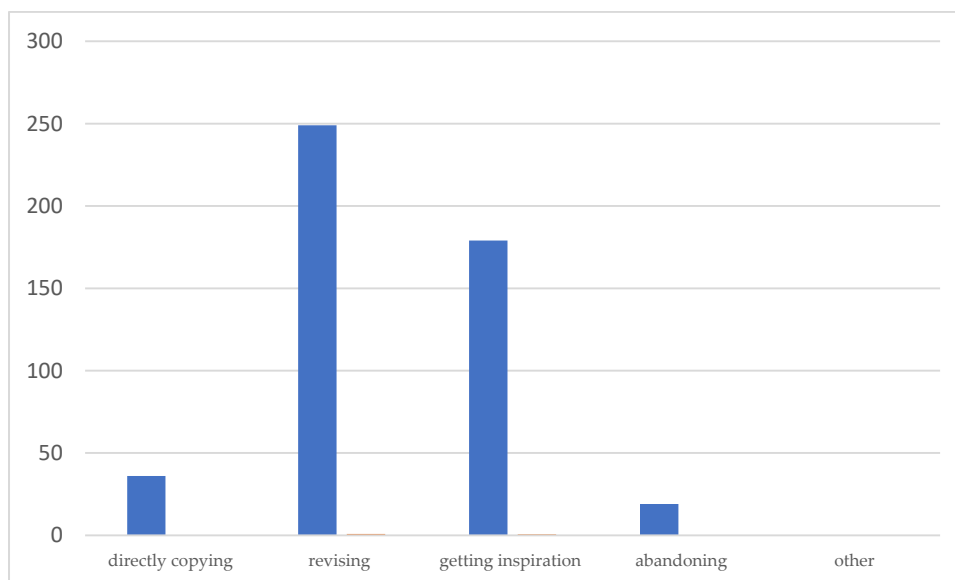


Figure 3. Ways to Deal With NMT Output

B. Evaluation of NMT

Section 2 of the questionnaire invited the participants to evaluate NMT in terms of its helpfulness for human translation and the quality of its output. Table 3 shows that the vast majority of them agreed that NMT could help improve the efficiency of their translation (Item 5), and more than half of them agreed that it could also help improve their translation quality, but there were still one third of them not sure about this (Item 6). When asked to compare the quality of NMT output and human translation, half of the participants were not sure whether NMT had defeated them or not, with just a minority of them agreeing or disagreeing that NMT had surpassed them in terms of quality (Item 7). Although not many people agreed that NMT output has readability, and nearly half of them had no idea of this (Item 8), most of them thought that it could basically fulfill the purpose of information transferring (Item 9).

TABLE 3
EVALUATION OF NMT

Item	Likert 1/2* (%)	Likert 3* (%)	Likert 4/5* (%)	M	SD
5. My translation efficiency can be improved with the aid of NMT.	1.02	15.75	83.22	3.95	0.59
6. My translation quality can be improved with the aid of NMT.	9.59	33.56	56.85	3.54	0.76
7. The quality of NMT output surpasses my own translation quality.	28.08	52.40	19.52	2.91	0.77
8. NMT output has readability.	21.58	48.29	30.14	3.06	0.77
9. NMT output can basically fulfill the purpose of information transferring.	5.48	17.81	76.71	3.73	0.59

* Likert 1/2 = strongly disagree / disagree; Likert 3 = neither agree nor disagree; Likert 4/5 = agree / strongly agree

C. Prediction of NMT's Impacts on Future Career

Participants' prediction of NMT's impacts on future career (in both translation and non-translation fields -- Some English majors in Chinese universities will choose to get employed in the trade of translation upon graduation, while others will take a job in the other English language-related trades. So the items in this section focused both on the translation and non-translation fields.) was investigated through the 5 items in Section 3 (See Table 4 for the results). Most of them did not agree that NMT will completely replace human translators in the future (Item 10). They almost unanimously agreed that professional translators must be able to skillfully use NMT in the future (Item 11). Their opinions were divided concerning professional translators' future task (Item 12) and English majors' future employment (Item 13): nearly half of them thought PE would be professional translators' main task, but the rest of them either did not think so or were not sure (Item 12); similarly, nearly half of them saw a gloomy future as far as employment was concerned due to the impacts of NMT, only a small proportion of them felt optimistic in this regard, and one third of them were not sure about it (Item 13). Finally, most of them agreed that professional translators who have a translation competence lower than NMT will get unemployed (Item 14).

TABLE 4
PREDICTION OF NMT'S IMPACTS ON FUTURE CAREER

Item	Likert 1/2 (%)	Likert 3 (%)	Likert 4/5 (%)	M	SD
10. NMT will completely replace human translators in the future.	76.03	17.47	6.50	2.03	0.87
11. Professional translators must be able to skillfully use NMT in the future.	3.42	9.59	86.99	4.06	0.69
12. Professional translators' main task in the future will be revising and editing the NMT output.	24.66	27.4	47.95	3.27	0.93
13. English majors will have difficulty in getting employed in the future because of the impacts of NMT.	23.63	33.56	42.81	3.22	0.93
14. Professional translators who have a translation competence lower than NMT will get unemployed.	10.96	20.55	68.49	3.67	0.86

D. Perceptions of NMT's Impacts on Current Translation Learning

Section 4 of the questionnaire was designed to disclose the anxiety (or non-anxiety) the participants held toward NMT by examining their perceptions of NMT's impacts on their current translation learning. The results (Table 5) reveal that most of them did not think translation learning meaningless despite the fast evolution of MT technology (Item 15). The largest number of them did not feel disoriented about translation learning either (Item 16), though there were also a lot of them feeling the contrary or being noncommittal. Besides, more than half of them would not be hesitant to use NMT in translation practice (Item 17). But all this does not mean that they were free of anxiety: The majority of them worried about the negative effects of NMT on the improvement of their translation competence (Item 18), diligence (Item 19) and sense of accomplishment (Item 21). Nearly half (and the largest number) of them also reported the feeling of being guilty (Item 20) and uneasy (Item 22).

TABLE 5
PERCEPTIONS OF NMT'S IMPACTS ON CURRENT TRANSLATION LEARNING

Item	Likert 1/2 (%)	Likert 3 (%)	Likert 4/5 (%)	M	SD
15. The fast evolution of MT technology makes me feel that translation learning is meaningless.	75.68	16.78	7.53	2.17	0.80
16. The fast evolution of MT technology disorients me in my translation learning, not knowing which direction to work in.	39.39	34.25	26.37	2.85	0.89
17. I hesitate about whether to use NMT or not in translation practice.	56.85	20.89	22.26	2.58	0.95
18. I'm worried that NMT is not conducive to the improvement of my translation competence.	25.34	17.12	57.54	3.36	0.95
19. I'm worried that NMT will make me lazy.	13.36	10.27	76.37	3.72	0.84
20. I feel guilty about using NMT to complete translation assignments.	31.16	20.21	48.63	3.16	1.03
21. Using NMT to complete translation assignments makes me feel unfulfilled.	28.77	13.70	57.53	3.32	1.02
22. I would be uneasy if I didn't use NMT to do my translation tasks.	34.93	22.26	42.80	3.09	0.97

E. Needs for NMT Instruction in Translation Courses

Section 5 of the questionnaire investigated the participants' needs for NMT instruction in translation courses. The results (Table 6) show that the vast majority of them found it necessary that translation instructors help them learn how to properly use NMT (Item 24), how to post-edit its output (Item 25), how to make use of it to improve their translation competence (Item 26) and how to actively respond to the challenges posed by it (Item 27). But just half of them showed the needs of knowing whether NMT should be used in the process of translation learning (Item 23), with another half either not agreeing or not being sure.

TABLE 6
NEEDS FOR NMT INSTRUCTION IN TRANSLATION COURSES

Item	Likert 1/2 (%)	Likert 3 (%)	Likert 4/5 (%)	M	SD
23. The translation instructor should explicitly tell me whether NMT should be used in the process of translation learning.	28.08	22.6	49.31	3.25	1.02
24. The translation instructor should explicitly tell me how to properly use NMT in the process of translation learning.	2.19	11.99	80.82	3.88	0.79
25. I should be taught in the translation course how to revise the NMT output.	8.56	13.01	78.42	3.83	0.81
26. I should be taught in the translation course how to use NMT to improve my translation competence.	6.16	6.16	87.67	3.96	0.73
27. I should be taught in the translation course how to actively respond to the challenges brought about by NMT.	4.11	8.56	87.33	3.98	0.68

IV. DISCUSSION

A. *Uses of NMT*

One of the aims of this study is to show how the participants have used NMT in their major learning, including translation learning. The results show that, (1) they have used it frequently and for multiple purposes, with appreciating new English words and aiding human translation being the two most favored ones, (2) they have used the NMT output by post-editing it or for inspiration in order to accomplish their translation tasks, and (3) their most favored NMT type is translation APP instead of online systems or desktop programs.

Popular use of NMT among translation learners contrasts with the findings made just four or five years ago by Gaspari et al. (2015) with professionals and academics in the translation field, of whom only 21% had used MT, but it is consistent with the more recent findings made by Rossi and Chevrot (2019) who disclosed a high rate of MT adoption among institutional translators, and Liu et al. (2022) who reported that all translation learners used MT to accomplish their translation tasks. It may be argued that in the era of NMT where the quality of MT is largely improved, translation learners, as well as translation professionals, put more trust in the technology.

The participants' frequent use of translation APP instead of the other NMT forms is somewhat surprising in that a translator would most probably use online NMT systems or desktop NMT programs (as is evidenced by Gaspari et al., 2015 who reports that the vast majority of the participants who were using MT chose online MT systems) because one would generally choose to do translation on a computer instead of on a smartphone to improve the efficiency. But a glimpse of their purposes of using NMT will decipher this puzzle: as English majors, not only translation learners, they used NMT to do a lot of things in addition to translation, including word comprehension, reading comprehension, writing, and speaking. A smartphone APP, rather than the other forms of NMT, would enable them to fulfill those purposes at any time and place convenient for them. Therefore, a distinction may be made between translation learners and professionals: The former use NMT as a learning tool as well as a translation tool, while the latter may use it more as a translation tool than as a learning tool.

The participants' disposal of NMT output is consistent with Gaspari et al. (2015)'s, and Zaretskaya et al. (2015)'s findings that the majority of those who used MT always post-edited its output, and with Rossi and Chevrot (2019)'s and Cadwell et al. (2016)'s findings that many translators used MT output for inspiration. This indicates that translation learners, like what translation professionals were doing, used the NMT output in a positive way: They chose to post-edit it or get inspiration from it, instead of directly copying it or simply discarding it. This is echoed by Liu et al. (2022, p. 9) who reported that a large number of translation learners "had never used the raw machine-translated texts without modifications".

B. *Perceptions of NMT*

The participants' perceptions of NMT were examined in this study from four perspectives, namely, evaluation of the technology, prediction on its future influence, impacts on current translation learning and needs for NMT instruction.

Evaluation. Generally speaking, the participants thought of NMT as a useful tool to help improve their translation efficiency and quality; on the other hand, they did not think that or were not sure whether NMT produced a high quality output (when compared with their own translation and in terms of the readability), a finding somewhat similar to Liu et al. (2022) where the lowest number of the participants would think MT could produce accurate target texts. However, what seemed to be contradictory in this study was that the participants found NMT able to convey information somewhat successfully. Maybe they deemed that NMT had yet to meet the strict criteria of translation by producing a faithful and fluent target text, but it was good enough to produce a text that could basically get the source text's idea across to its audience. If we also take into consideration the high frequency of NMT use among the participants and the high percentage of them post-editing the NMT output (Figure 3), we may arrive at the conclusion that the participants found the NMT output generally usable. Earlier studies like Gaspari et al. (2015) and Zaretskaya et al. (2015) show that most translation professionals regarded MT output quality as being poor, but more recent studies like Cadwell et al. (2016) and Rossi and Chevrot (2019) show an increased acceptance of MT by translation professionals for its improved quality. Cadwell et al. (2016, p. 21), for example, reports that among the top 3 reasons why the participants used MT was "the perceived good quality of the MT output". This means that both translation professionals and translation learners in this new era did not reject MT on the ground of poor quality.

What is noteworthy is the large proportion of the participants who did not know for sure about the quality of the NMT output (Items 7 and 8, Table 3). This was in contrast to translation professionals, most of whom would not sit on the fence -- they either thought it to be high or deemed it to be low (as is evidenced in Cadwell et al., 2016; Rossi & Chevrot, 2019). One of the possible reasons underlying this contrast is that the former, due to their comparatively low proficiency in both languages (SL and TL), had difficulty in assessing the quality of translation.

Prediction. The results of the survey show that most of the participants were optimistic about the future of translation professionals: They did not think NMT will completely replace human translation in the future. But they did think that a good command of the technology was a must for professional translators, and that they must develop a translation competence higher than the machine in order to stay on their job. In other words, human can not be defeated by machines, but he or she must be "stronger" than them and be able to make them work for him or her. The translation learners held a view toward the destiny of translation professionals that is similar to scholars (who are also translation

instructors) like Ye (2017), who holds that machine translation can not possibly replace human translation in that they are two completely different activities and the former can not accomplish translation tasks whose ST is fuzzy and difficult to make sense, and Zhu (2018), who argues that “the panic that human beings are to be replaced by machines [in translation]... is self-evident fallacy” (Zhu, 2018, p. 109).

However, the participants' view of PE was somewhat different from that of the scholars: A large number of them seemed not to have realized or agree with the important role PE will play in the future translation career (see Table 4). By contrast, some researchers see the importance of PE and predict its mainstream use in the future translation industry. Wang (2017), for example, argues that MT + PE is and will be the mainstream work mode for the translation professionals. Feng and Zhang (2015) claim that MT and PE represent the future of translation career. In addition, some other researchers have gone beyond the stage of argumentation for the significance and justification of PE; instead, they have begun to work on the effective ways of doing and/or improving PE (e.g. Daems et al., 2017a; Daems et al., 2017b; Arenas & Moorkens, 2019; Tezcan et al., 2019; etc.). This is probably because of the already-existent PE practice that is prevalent in language service industry. According to a survey conducted in 2018 by the European Language Industry Association and the other five organizations, PE was a popular operational practice for language service companies in and out of Europe, 37% of which indicated that they wanted to increase this practice and an additional 17% indicated that they were starting this practice (ELIA et al., 2019). The discrepancy between the translation learners and researchers in the understanding of PE's status in the future translation career may be attributed to the latter's ignorance of the current and future development of the translation industry, which, in turn, is possibly due to their translation instructors' failure to inform them about it.

As far as the future employment was concerned, the participants, who were translation learners as well as English majors, were not as optimistic as when they predicted the destiny of translation professionals -- the largest number of them foresaw difficulties in getting employed because of the impacts of NMT, and one third of them expressed uncertainty about the difficulties (Table 4). This may be indicative to some degree that many of them, like the freshman mentioned in Section I, were worried, if not threatened, by the fast evolution of the translation technology as far as their future employment was concerned. Similar worry, or “fear”, is detected with translation professionals by Rossi and Chevrot (2019) who report that fear of MT, among others, has an impact on the participants' adoption of MT.

Impacts. Effects of the technology use on students' anxiety have long been a focus of attention (e.g. Jiao & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; López-Bonilla & López-Bonilla, 2012; Memmedova & Selahattin, 2018), but the effects of MT on translation learners' anxiety have received little attention. The current study detected NMT-induced anxiety in the translation learners, in addition to other negative impacts of NMT on their translation learning. More or less, they expressed the feeling of being disoriented about translation learning, being hesitant about whether to use NMT or not, feeling guilty about using NMT to complete translation assignments, being unfulfilled if NMT was used and being uneasy if NMT was not used. They also expressed the worry of NMT's negative impacts on the improvement of their translation competence and the degree of diligence in translation learning. They shared some forms of the anxiety with translation professionals who reportedly expressed the fear of MT making them become lazy and “reducing their opportunities to learn and develop their skills” (Cadwell et al., 2016, p. 23).

Needs. The participants almost unanimously voiced their needs of being taught in the translation course about how to use NMT, how to post-edit its output, how to use NMT to improve translation competence and how to cope with the challenges brought about by NMT. Besides, half of them also articulated the need of being informed of whether or not they should use NMT in translation learning. All these reflect to some degree the translation learners' struggle, puzzle and anxiety over NMT use and its unintended consequences to translation learning and future career, echoing their responses to the items in the previous two sections.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The translation learners -- who were also English majors -- in this study reported high frequency of NMT use in their translation learning as well as major learning, who used it for multiple purposes: comprehending new English words, aiding human translation, and helping English writing, reading and speaking. These purposes prompted them to choose NMT APP among any other NMT types, which was taken as both a convenient translation tool and an English learning tool. In translation practice, instead of directly borrowing or simply abandoning the NMT output, most of them post-edited it and/or used it as inspiration to accomplish their translation tasks.

Although the translation learners did not think that or did not know whether NMT produced a high quality output, they evaluated the technology in a positive way: it was a useful tool to help improve their translation efficiency and quality, and its output was generally usable. They also held an optimistic view toward the future of translation career, but recognized that a translation professional must be equipped with a good command of the technology and a translation competence higher than the machine in order to ‘defeat’ the machine. That being said, they expressed a seemingly contradictory attitude towards their future employment as an English major: they were worried to some degree. They did not have a full recognition of the importance of PE in the future translation career either. When it comes to the NMT's impacts on their current translation learning, they expressed varying degrees of anxiety: feeling disoriented, hesitant, guilty, unfulfilled, and uneasy. They were also worried about NMT's negative impacts on their translation competence and their diligence in translation learning. They clearly articulated needs for translation

instruction in the proper ways of using NMT, post-editing, improving translation competence with the aid of NMT and dealing with the challenges brought about by NMT.

The above findings confront the translation instructors with at least one major task: to help reduce the worry and anxiety felt by the translation learners toward NMT. The translation learners' worry of their future career can be partially diminished by guiding them toward a correct understanding of NMT since fear of MT is probably caused by little knowledge of it, as has been observed by Rossi and Chevrot (2019), and of its future impacts on translation industry. Expert opinions concerning the future fate of HT (e.g., Ye, 2017; Qin, 2018; Zhu, 2018; etc.) may be cited to help them regain confidence. For instance, they can be informed of the 'battlefields' lost, preserved and gained in human being's 'engagement' with machine: Machine may take away translation tasks that are simple and unimportant, and require a low level of readability, but human has always been and will proceed to be the master in such fields as literary translation and the only trusted force when a high-quality TT is required; besides, machine will provide new 'battlefields', i.e., new job opportunities for human -- PE (Qin, 2018), for example.

The translation learners' anxiety toward NMT's impacts on their current translation learning may be effectively reduced by instructing them whether, when and how to use NMT. First of all, they need to be informed of the occasions on which NMT can or cannot be used. For example, at the initial stage of translation instruction when the learners have little knowledge about translation and low level of translation competence (see PACTE, 2018 for the specific components of translation competence), they may be discouraged from using NMT to accomplish any translation tasks since it may hinder their acquisition of the knowledge and competence -- machine may do their job that is particularly designed to empower themselves to 'defeat' machine. But at a later stage when their translation competence is fully developed, in other words, when they are empowered with abilities to 'reign' the machine, they can not only be encouraged, but also trained to use NMT. The decision of whether to discourage or encourage NMT use can also function on a task-specific basis, i.e., with some tasks designed to develop the learners' sub-competence of TT use, where use of NMT is encouraged, and some other tasks designed to develop the other sub-competences, where use of NMT is discouraged. Following the decision of whether and when to use NMT, the translation instructor needs to carefully design how to teach NMT. This may at least involve teaching the learners how to choose from and use the different types of NMT, how to assess the quality of the NMT output, how to post-edit the output, and how to use the output as a source of inspiration.

What this study focuses on is the learners of a translation course instead of the whole interpreting/translation program. These two groups of learners may use and perceive NMT somewhat differently. Therefore, the findings of this study which are meaningful for the sustainable development of the translation course may have difficulty to be fully generalized to interpreting/translation majors. This is exactly what we need to do in the future: investigating how the latter use and perceive NMT and providing more comprehensive pedagogical implications for the sustainability of the translation education as a whole.

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A Diagnostic Study on English Spelling Errors Among the Elementary School Children in India

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Abstract—Learning the four skills of the English language is a requirement for pupils to utilize the language effectively, given the importance of learning it for both school and profession. Spelling – an important part of writing skill – is considered to be fundamental for written texts. The real meaning of a piece of writing can be changed by spelling mistakes, making it more challenging to understand. In India, teaching spelling is frequently overlooked while teaching English as a second language. The research attempts to determine the current level of spelling proficiency among Indian primary school students as well as the gaps and issues they encounter when spelling English words. The research approach used for this investigation was a form of descriptive survey. Children attending Jalpaiguri Municipal Corporation's elementary school in West Bengal, India, served as the study's sample. Normal probability curves and Ogive were created to analyze the frequency distribution of the English Diagnostic Test results. Central tendencies of the sample and sub-samples were studied. According to the study, spelling proficiency among elementary school students differs significantly depending on whether they attend government or non-government schools, even though there is no statistically significant difference between them based on gender and the medium of instruction they receive.

Index Terms—EFL, ESL, language skills, writing skills, spelling errors

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language can be difficult for beginners because word pronunciation and spelling in their native language follow certain conventions. As the structures of a foreign language vary from those of their mother tongue, learning them might be challenging because they try to adapt the structures of their mother tongue to the foreign language (Nor & Rashid, 2018). The language intuition of students must be altered in several ways to fit the knowledge of the foreign language, which necessitates developmental phases and repeated exposure to the language (Kocatepe, 2017; Zuriyani & Mohamed Ismail, 2019). While learning, the individual encounters sounds that are dissimilar from the ones they already know intuitively, and is obligated to make assumptions about their function.

Given the significance of mastering English for both school and career, acquiring the four skills of the English language is a prerequisite for students to use the language appropriately. It may be said that the English written form (spelling) poses a challenge to the majority of students because it has to convey their concepts and thoughts, coupled with the detrimental repercussions of not being able to use it well and acquire linguistic skills. Therefore, the correct use of spelling is regarded as crucial for written texts. Spelling errors can alter the actual message of a piece of writing, making it difficult to comprehend. Therefore, it is crucial to spell words correctly to express the content's true meaning. According to Babayiit and Stainthorp (2010), grammatical and phonological abilities significantly affect spelling efficiency. Thus, it can be said that pupils need to be proficient in spelling, which is a fundamental talent. Correct spelling assists writers in conveying their concepts and ideas within a comprehensive method that is simple for readers to comprehend. Appropriate spelling is required for good writing skills.

A person who wants to communicate through writing should have adequate content and correct forms of English words that affect writing. Knowing these (spelling, grammar, etc.) helps readers to understand the writing material well. Thus, the writer must know how and what to say in his writing. When he writes, he must use the correct form. The use of correct spellings provides good communication between writers and readers. Wrong spelling causes communication breakdown. Readers who read wrongly spelt words may understand the words in a wrong way and he may be confused to understand the messages of the writers.

Therefore, knowing and using the correct spelling of words helps create good communication between readers and writers. It is important for people to know how to spell English words. A child who does not know how to spell English

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words commits spelling errors that can cause a communication breakdown. Poor spelling can impede educational achievement, employment, interpersonal relationships, and self-esteem. Even students who speak English sometimes commit spelling errors when they write what they say or what others say. Therefore, incorrect spelling in the students' test, class work, homework, assignments, and lecture notes seem to mislead teachers to understand the students' answers incorrectly. The absence of adequate reference materials on how to learn English spelling for practical use in our local context has also prompted researchers to sort out the reasons why students tend to make spelling errors in their writing.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A considerable number of researches have been carried out in 'spelling error in English' and in most of the cases it was found that the student's mastery over the skills was not up to the mark. Pressey (1965) conducted a statistical research and found that stringy sentences had the highest percentage of errors. It demonstrated that the areas of difficulty felt most by the students were agreement between subject and verb, usage of incorrect tense forms, etc. In his study, Wyatt (1973) demonstrated that the areas with the highest percentage of errors include sentence structure, punctuation, verb groups, and non-verb groupings. Paulose (1975) studied and concluded that lexical errors showed the highest percentage of incidence and that girls commit significantly less errors than boys. Carl James (2001) conducted a study on English errors committed by foreign learners and found out that native speakers of English committed more serious problem in English. Bakshi (1978) conducted a study on the Punjabi speaking learners of English and concluded that in error analysis inter language is a broader theory as it is the only hypothesis which can account for inter-lingual, intra-lingual and developmental errors. It was observed that the students over generalized the rules of English syntax owing to inter-lingual and intra-lingual interference. Apart from grammatical errors, the students also made errors in spelling. Amma (1986) conducted a study of the errors committed by secondary school pupils in written Hindi with reference to certain selected structure. The major finding was the minimum error was seen in the case of spelling (24.79%). Supriya (1986) made an analysis of spelling errors in the written English of secondary school Pupils. Urban and English medium subjects were found to be committing less errors in written English than their counterparts, and sex of the pupils is found to have no association with the incidence of errors. Ghosh (1976) carried out a study of backwardness in English in the secondary schools of West Bengal among the pupils of classes II to IX. The study concluded that 32% to 34% of children of West Bengal schools were backward in English. Backwardness in different aspects of English in order of their intensity were noted in the use of capital letters and punctuations, comprehension, usage, spelling, vocabulary and sentence construction. The results of an experimental study conducted by Baskran (1989) revealed that there was no appreciable difference between the experimental group and the controlled group's rates of orthographic errors. According to a research by Jayashree (1989), rural kids' comprehension and vocabulary skills lagged below those of their urban counterparts. Another conclusion was that sex has no bearing on one's ability to spell. Dey (1991) made an attempt at a study and discovered some linguistic factors to assess the students' proficiency in English in areas like vocabulary, spelling, stylistic transformation and alteration derivational structure, applied grammar, and contextual meaning with the goal of identifying significant mean differences in English attainment sex and location wise. In order to identify and describe the English writing errors made by Assamese language learners at the higher secondary level, Sharma (1991) concentrated his research on the challenges of learning English as a second language. It was discovered that roughly 73% of the sentences the students wrote contained one or more errors. The following areas saw the most frequent errors: spelling, verb tenses, passive voice, articles, and prepositions. Ramamoorthy (1992) examined the misspellings made by youngsters in middle school and discovered that word length, comparable sounds, words with silent letters, and words with consonant clusters were the most frequent causes. According to a research by Shankweiler (1996), students in private high schools have lower levels of spelling proficiency than students in public high schools. Boras (2003) discovered that the spelling growth of adult learners was the same as that of students in grade VII. Dua (2004) in his study found out that there did not exist any significant differences in the spelling performance of student's gender.

In a study, Pittman (2007) discovered a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. The study also shown how crucially important phonology, morphology, and orthography are to spelling. Muriungi et al. (2011) in his study found the nature and typology of errors in primary school pupils. They concluded that the primary school pupils have a problem in the area of spelling and phonetics. In a group of young people who had been diagnosed with cognitive impairment, Venkatesan and Holla (2011) initiated a study with the aim of launching an investigation by survey for the creation and administration of a graded spelling list for identification of various aspects of spelling hardships. The significant conclusion was that, when it came to the gender variable, the results of the girls in this sample were practically equal to those of the boys. It can be decided that the impact of school reform on kids' spelling abilities does not show up as a statistically meaningful variable. Joye et al. (2020) conducted a study on children with Developmental Language Disorder and found that children with DLD have issues with morphological endings in English, which are challenges that were first seen in their early oral language and persist into late primary school. Khan (2011) carried out a study with the goal of examining the general level of spelling proficiency. The outcome revealed a significant deficiency in spelling errors. Tamang (2012) conducted a research project with the goal of identifying the typical errors students make when writing in English, particularly those related to spelling, grammar,

vocabulary, and syntax, as well as evaluating the serious errors caused by factors such as gender, location, and management. When comparing the mean scores of students from government and private schools, it was discovered that there was no discernible difference between the mean scores of boys and girls. In a study on youngsters who spoke Hindi, Lahiri (2015) discovered that the majority of the errors were phonologically comparable to the proper spelling. In a study by Arora and Vyas (2017) of standard III and IV pupils, the researchers discovered no appreciable gender differences in the students' abilities to spell words correctly in English.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

When teaching English, spelling corrections should be the major focus. Incorrect word pronunciation results from poor spelling, which also affects the English sentence structure. Regardless of the fact that spelling is crucial for creating effective writing, language schools often prioritize educating vocabulary acquisition, grammar, speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Spelling training is frequently neglected in these programmes. The researchers, therefore, contented that spelling in the Indian context has not received the attention it deserves. So, the main goals of the research are to address the following research questions –

- What is the present level of spelling ability among the children of elementary schools of India.
- What are the gaps and problems children face in spelling English words.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- i) To study the existing level of spelling ability among the children of elementary school.
- ii) To study the spelling ability in English among elementary school children in relation to their gender.
- iii) To study the spelling ability in English among elementary school children in relation to their management of schools (government and non-government).
- iv) To study the spelling ability in English among elementary school children in relation to their medium of instructions in schools (Hindi and Bengali).

V. HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the objectives the following null hypotheses were formulated for the study:

- Ho₁: There is no significant difference in the spelling ability for written English of elementary school in case of boys and girls.
- Ho₂: There is no significant difference in the spelling ability for written English of elementary school children in relation to government and non- government schools.
- Ho₃: There is no significant difference in the spelling ability for written English of elementary school children in relation to medium of instruction variations.

VI. METHODOLOGY

The method of the study designed for the present investigation was descriptive survey type. Assuming the mastery of the students in language, a diagnostic test in English spelling was administered to the IV grade elementary school students of Jalpaiguri district of West Bengal, India, to ascertain the level of competency of the students, to determine their spelling ability, to identify their difficulties in spelling, and to determine whether the students differed in spelling abilities due to their gender, school management, and medium of instruction variation.

A descriptive study design was considered appropriate in the context of the nature and objectives of this study. The descriptive study collected three types of information: what exists, what we want, and how to achieve the goals. In the present study, neither a historical trend nor any manipulation of the independent variable was needed. Hence, the descriptive study was adopted on the principles of status-quo and this is ex-post facto study type as the study will concern itself only on “what is” i.e. what exists at the present has been considered.

A. Sample

The sample of the study was chosen from among elementary school children of the Jalpaiguri Municipal Corporation of West Bengal, India. First, the investigators determined the total number of elementary schools in the Jalpaiguri Municipal Corporation District, including government and private schools, from both Hindi and Bengali medium schools. In the municipal corporation, there are three medium Hindi schools, of which one is private and two are government schools. There are 16 Bengali medium schools, of which 7 are private schools and 9 are government schools. For the purpose of the present study, 4 schools were selected as samples. As there was only one Hindi medium private school, this school was taken as the sample. Three other schools - one government Hindi medium school, one government Bengali medium school, and one private Bengali medium school—were selected through stratified random sampling of equal size.

After the schools were selected, 30 students from each school, consisting of 15 girls and 15 boys, were selected again by stratified random sampling of equal size from among the students of class IV who scored within 50%-60% marks in

their last English test to maintain homogeneity of the sample. A detailed description of the samples is provided in the schematic design below.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHY OF THE POPULATION

Sl. No.	Name of the school	Medium	Management Type	No. of girls	No. of boys	Total sample
1	R.R Prathamik Vidyalaya	Bengali	Government	15	15	30
2	Jalpaiguri Maroari Hindi Higher Secondary School	Hindi	Government	15	15	30
3	Asalata Basu Vidyalaya	Bengali	Private	15	15	30
4	Ursuline Hindi School	Hindi	Private	15	15	30
				60	60	120

B. The Tools of the Study

For the present study a standardized test “Diagnostic Spelling Test” developed by Gupta and Narang (2005) and published by National Psychological Corporation, Agra, (India) was used. The test was standardized to assess the performance of a child’s spelling in English. The test comprised 35 items (words). Learning disabled children when are extremely deficient in spellings and make three kinds of errors (i) Dysphonetic (e.g. seid for side) (ii) Dyseidetic errors (e.g. Sid for side) (iii) Mixed type makes both type of error. Such similar errors would classify children who either need remediation through the visual modality or phonetic (vocal) mode. The reliability of the test was found to be 0.79, using the test-retest method, and the validity of the test was found by correlating the test scores with class test scores at 0.81.

C. Techniques of Data Analysis

The questionnaire for the English spelling test was used for data collection. The investigators used descriptive and inferential methods of data analysis. To assess the frequency distribution of the English Diagnostic Test scores, and normal probability curves were constructed. Measures of central tendencies of sample and sub-samples were studied. A study of normality was conducted to determine the extent to which the score distribution of the Diagnostic Test varied from a normal distribution. For graphical representation, a frequency polygon was used to study the normality. To study the effect of intervening variables, an analysis of the score distribution according to the intervening variables was performed with the help of Ogive.

VII. RESULTS

To interpret and make inferential decision, the investigators used frequency distribution table showing class intervals and frequencies of different sub-samples therein. Frequency polygon with smoothed frequency curve and Ogive were used for descriptive study. The ‘t’ test was used to find out the significant differences in contrasting inter variables like gender, management, and medium. With the help of this statistical measure, the obtained ‘t’ value and table value was compared and finally, it was concluded whether there exists a significant difference between the variables or not.

TABLE 2
STUDY OF THE SCORE DISTRIBUTION OF THE DIAGNOSTIC TEST

C-I	Gender		Management		Medium		Total
	Boys	Girls	Govt.	Non-govt.	Bengali	Hindi	
31-35	4	5	0	9	9	0	8
24-30	5	6	3	10	10	11	11
21-25	6	6	13	10	11	17	14
15-20	16	16	24	14	12	30	32
11-15	14	14	17	10	9	2	28
06-10	13	12	3	7	8	0	24
0-5	2	1	0	0	1	0	3
Total	60	60	60	60	60	60	120

The distribution of scores presented in table revealed that the diagnostic test scores range from 3 to 34. It was observed that maximum number of students (32) had the score range from 15-20 and there was a gradual decreasing of scores towards the upper and lower end of the distribution. It was also observed in case of all sub-samples. But maximum frequencies were clustered at the lower end of the model class interval indicating these by skewed distribution of the scores. The distribution of scores was put into a frequency polygon with a smoothed frequency curve superimposed on it as presented in the figure (i). The graphical representation of the scores on the diagnostic test in terms of cumulative frequency percentage has also been presented in figure (ii). From figure (i) it was inferred that the curve was positively skewed than the normal curve. This was caused due to the sampling error. From figure (ii) of ogive the percentage of students above and below mean score was obtained and it was observed that 16.45 % of students were above the mean and 15.28 % students were above the midpoint of the distribution. This also supported the earlier findings relating to the skewness of the curve.

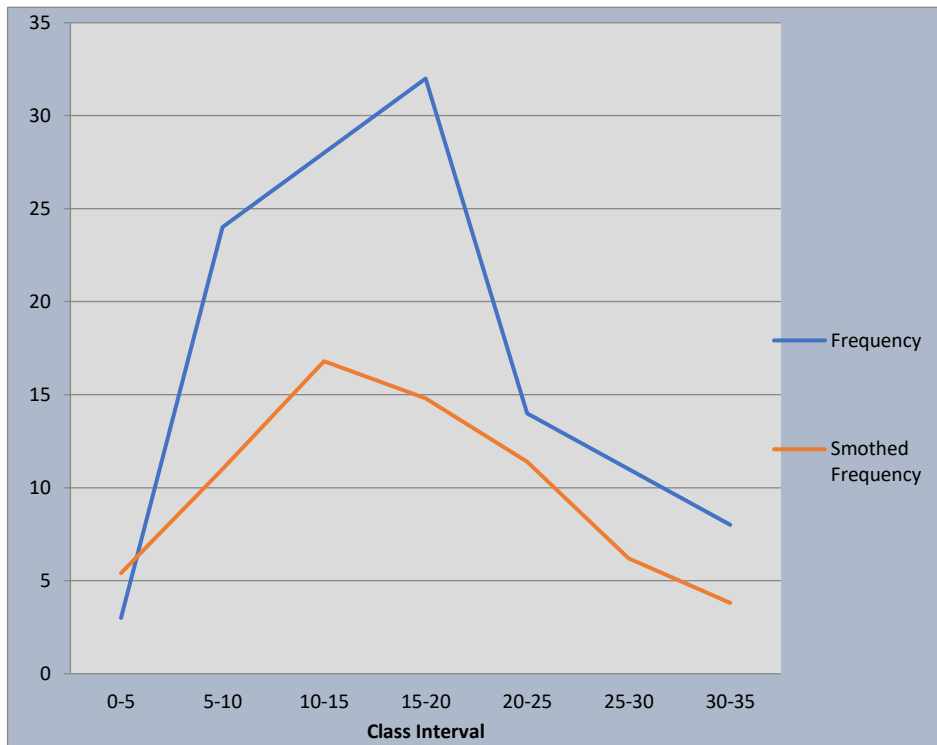


Figure 1. Frequency Polygon of the Scores of English Spelling Test With Smoothed Frequency Curve Super Imposed

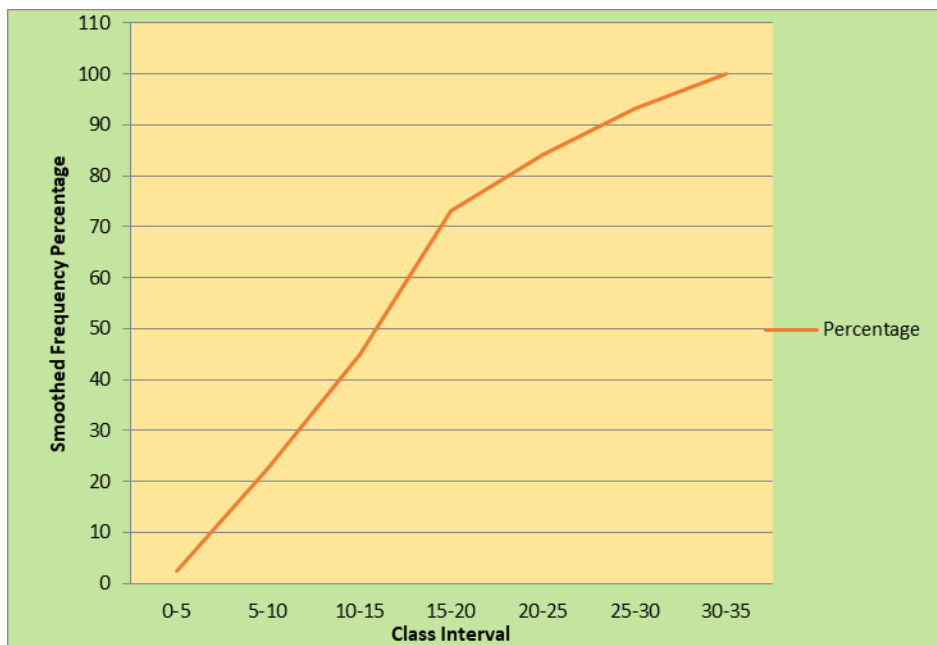


Figure 2. Ogive Showing the Scores in English Spelling Test With Regard to Total Students

A. Sub- Sample Analyses on the Scores

As stated earlier the sample was split into sub sample in relation to gender, management, and medium of school variations. Thus the following sub-sample were built into the study namely:

- Gender (Boys vs. Girls)
- Management (Govt. vs. non govt. schools)
- Medium (Bengali vs. Hindi medium schools)

Attempts were made to calculate significant difference into contrast by application of the test of significance of difference between two means of two independent paragraphs. The details of the result were presented in the following paragraphs.

B. Study of Spelling Ability in English Due to Gender Variation

One of the objectives of this investigation was to study the impact of gender differences on English spelling ability. As such, the hypothesis formulated in this respect was that “There is no significant difference in the spelling ability of elementary school children for written English in the case of boys and girls” was put to test, through the test of the significance of the difference between the means of the two groups as an application to two independent samples. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF THE ‘T’ RATIO ON SPELLING ABILITY DUE TO GENDER VARIATION

Sample	Variables	N	M	SD	SE _D	‘t’	Remarks
Gender	Boys	60	16	3.35	0.51	1.78	Not significant
	Girls	60	16.91	2.43			

‘t’ for df 118 at 0.05= 1.98 and 0.01=2.62

The table value of ‘t’ for the df (118) was higher than the calculated value of ‘t’ (1.78). Hence, this result is not significant. Thus, the null hypothesis ‘There is no significant difference in the spelling ability of elementary school children for written English in the case of boys and girls’ could not be rejected. The null hypothesis was rather accepted, leading to the conclusion that the scores of the English diagnostic test for boys are equal to the scores of girls. Hence, it may be concluded that the variable of gender had no role in the English diagnostic test scores.

C. Study of Spelling Ability in English Due to Management of School Variation

Another objective of the investigation was to study the impact of management differences on the scores on the English spelling diagnostic test. As such, the null hypothesis formulated in this respect was that ‘There is no significant difference in the spelling ability of the children of govt. and non-govt. schools’ was put for the test. Mean scores of govt. school and non-govt. school children were put through the test of significance. The value of ‘t’ is listed in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF THE ‘T’ RATIO OF SPELLING ABILITY IN ENGLISH DUE TO MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL VARIATION

Sample	Variables	N	M	SD	SE _D	‘t’	Remarks
Management	Govt.	60	17.16	3.31	0.81	3.81	Significant at 0.01 level
	Non-Govt.	60	20.25	5.93			

‘t’ for df 118 at 0.05= 1.98 and 0.01=2.62

Table value of ‘t’ for df (118) for govt. school and non-govt. school children was less than the calculated value of ‘t’ (3.81). Therefore, the ‘t’ is significant at both 0.5 and 0.01 level. Hence, the null hypothesis ‘There is no significant difference in the spelling ability of the children of govt. and non-govt. schools’ is rejected. It is concluded that school management variation has a significant effect on the spelling ability of elementary school students in English. A higher mean score is in favour of non-govt. schools, thus showing non-govt. school children are better at spelling in English. Hence, it may be concluded that the management variable has a significant effect on spelling ability in English.

D. Study of Spelling Ability Due to Medium of Instruction Variation

The next objective was to study the effect of medium differences on English spelling ability. As such the null hypothesis formulated in this respect was that ‘There is no significant difference in the spelling ability for written English of children in relation to medium of instruction variations’ was put to test. The mean scores of the Bengali and Hindi medium schools were used to test for significance. The value of the ‘t’ is listed in the table below.

TABLE 5
SUMMARY OF THE ‘T’ RATIO ON DIAGNOSTIC TEST DUE TO MEDIUM OF SCHOOL VARIATION

Sample	Variables	N	M	SD	SE _D	‘t’	Remarks
Medium	Bengali	60	20	5.82	0.9	0.64	Not significant
	Hindi	60	20.58	3.9			

‘t’ for df 118 at 0.05= 1.98 and 0.01=2.62

The table value of ‘t’ for the df (118) in case of Bengali medium schools v/s Hindi medium school is less than the calculated value of ‘t’ (0.64). Hence, the null hypothesis could not be significant. Thus, the null hypothesis “There is no significant difference in the spelling ability for written English of children in relation to medium of instruction variations” could not be rejected. The null hypothesis was rather accepted coming to the conclusion that the scores of English diagnostic Test of Bengali medium are equal to the scores of Hindi medium school children. Hence, it may be concluded that the medium of school has no significant effect on spelling ability. The observed difference in the mean score of the two variables was due to sampling error only.

VIII. DISCUSSION

The study provides insight into the spelling ability of children, both boys and girls studying in government and non-government schools of Bengali and Hindi medium located in West Bengal State, India. The study revealed that the

spelling ability score of children gradually decreases from the peak to the upper and lower ends of the distribution and thus follows a normal distribution. With regard to gender and spelling ability, the study shows that there is no significant difference between the spelling abilities of boys and girls in elementary schools. This finding is in conformity with other researchers concluded by Paulose (1975), Dua (2004), Jayashree (1989), Dey (1991), Venkatesan and Holla (2011), Supriya (1986). The study also shows that the medium of instruction in the schools (Bengali and Hindi) does not have any impact on the spelling ability of children of elementary schools as in both cases the calculated table value for 't' are significantly less than the table value revealing that gender and medium of instruction have no impact on the spelling ability of the children of elementary schools. This finding is in conformity with other researchers conducted by Khan (2011), Supriya (1986), Bakshi (1976), Ghosh (1976), Amma (1986). However, the calculated 't' value for the spelling ability scores of children reading in government and non-government schools is significantly higher than the tabulated value, showing the difference in favour of children studying in non-government schools. This finding is in conformity with other researchers concluded by Tamang (2012) and Shankweiler (1996). Hence, we can infer that elementary school children studying in non-government schools have better English spelling than government-managed school children.

IX. CONCLUSION

It was observed from the study that spelling ability is normally distributed among elementary school children. At the same time, it is also found from the study that although there is no significant difference in spelling ability of elementary school children in relation to their gender and medium of instruction, there is a significant difference in spelling ability in relation to their type of school management, that is, govt. and non-govt. schools. As it is evident that although the spelling ability is normally distributed, but there is difference of spelling ability between govt. and non-govt. schoolchildren and govt. managed schools should give greater importance to this attribute. The govt. managed schools should train English language teachers more effectively and design activities for learning and practising English spelling in English classrooms and homes. The schools may also arrange different type of competition like 'Spelling Bee' for the improvement of spelling of students of the govt. managed schools. Writing is an important aspect of communication in human life, and correct spelling is of utmost importance in writing. Therefore, the govt. managed schools should take measures to improve the spelling ability of children.

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